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Dear Readers,

With the rapid development of Chinese education worldwide, Chinese has become an indispensable part of the education systems in an increasing number of countries and regions. Against this backdrop, the *Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe* 欧洲中文教 was launched, aiming to provide a platform for scholars, teachers, and educators engaged in Chinese teaching and research to exchange academic ideas. The successful release of the first issue received an enthusiastic response and support, which has greatly encouraged and motivated us to continue striving to present high-quality academic work to our readers.

In the second issue and beyond, we will continue to focus on cutting-edge topics in the field of Chinese education, aiming to build a bridge between theory and practice. This issue will cover several important topics, including the operational and management strategies of Chinese media accounts and their profound impact on the promotion of the Chinese language. Additionally, we have included several articles that explore other topics, including the acquisition of Chinese consonants by Hungarian learners, factors that weaken the motivation of adult Chinese learners in Europe, and factors affecting learners' satisfaction of online courses. Through these discussions, we hope not only to provide educators with practical teaching strategies but also to inspire new thoughts and explorations in the academic field of Chinese education.

It is worth mentioning that this journal will also place special emphasis on the diversity and inclusivity of Chinese education. We believe that the future of Chinese education lies not only in the teaching of the language but also in cultural exchange and understanding. By exploring the practical experiences of Chinese education in different countries and regions, we hope to further promote the development of this field and provide richer learning resources for Chinese learners worldwide.

We sincerely invite scholars and educators from diverse backgrounds to actively submit papers and contribute new perspectives and ideas to our journal. At the same time, we encourage readers to participate in our discussions and work together to advance the progress and development of Chinese education.

On behalf of the *Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe* 欧洲中文教 editorial team, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to all the authors, reviewers, and readers who have supported us. We look forward to collaborating on future research and practices to contribute our wisdom and strength to the future of Chinese education.
Thank you all!

Dr Ye Qiuyue
Editor-in-Chief

尊敬的读者朋友们：

随着全球中文教育的蓬勃发展，中文已成为越来越多国家和地区教育体系中不可或缺的一部分。在这个背景下，《欧洲中文教育》期刊应运而生，旨在为从事中文教学和研究的学者、教师以及教育工作者提供一个学术交流的平台。第一期的顺利发行，得到了大家的热忱反馈和支持，这令我们倍感振奋，同时也激励我们继续努力，为大家呈现更多高质量的学术成果。

在第二期及今后中，我们将继续关注中文教育领域中的前沿话题，力求在理论与实践之间架起一座桥梁。本期将涵盖多个重要主题，包括海媒文化账号的运营与管理策略，探索了其对中文推广的深远影响。此外，还收录了关于匈牙利学习者汉语辅音习得情况、欧洲成人学习者汉语学习动机削弱因素及在线课程满意度影响因素等多篇文章。我们期待通过这些讨论，不仅能够为广大教育工作者提供切实可行的教学策略，还能激发学术界对中文教育的新思考与新探索。

值得一提的是，本期刊还将特别关注中文教育的多样性与包容性。我们相信，中文教育的未来不仅在于语言的传授，更在于文化的交流与理解。通过探索不同国家和地区中文教育的实践经验，我们希望能够推动这一领域的进一步发展，并为全球中文学习者提供更加丰富的学习资源。

我们诚挚地邀请来自不同背景的学者与教育工作者积极投稿，为本期增添新的视角与思考。同时，我们也鼓励读者们积极参与我们的讨论，共同推动中文教育的进步与发展。

在此，我代表《欧洲中文教育》编辑部，对所有支持我们的作者、评审和读者表示衷心的感谢。期待在接下来的研究与实践中，我们能够携手并进，共同为中文教育的未来贡献我们的智慧与力量。谢谢大家！

叶秋月博士
主编

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“中文+媒介”—海媒文化账号PaTh运维策略探析

摘要

海外媒体文化账号PaTh (People and Things) 是各国民众获取中文学习资讯、了解中国文化、连接广泛民心民意, 推动中外文明交流的重要窗口, 其发展水平和运维效果关乎国际中文教育品牌的形象塑造。本研究对已在Facebook、YouTube和Twitter平台运营的“PaTh”文化账号开展调研, 采用数据抓取、个案分析等定性、定量相结合研究方法, 考察其海外能见度与国际影响力, 并探析在海外运维中国文化账号的策略及发展建议。

关键词: 中文+媒介; 文化账号; 平台运维策略

MING LIU

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'Chinese + Media' - An Analysis of PaTh's Operation and Maintenance Strategies for Sea Media Cultural Accounts

Abstract

The overseas media cultural account People and Things (PaTh) is an important window for people in different countries to obtain Chinese learning information, understand Chinese culture, connect with broad public opinion, and promote the exchange of Chinese and foreign civilisations, and its development level and operation and maintenance effects have a bearing on the image-shaping of international Chinese language education brands. This study

investigates PaTh's accounts operating on the Facebook, YouTube, and Twitter platforms; adopts a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods, such as data capture and case study analysis to examine their overseas visibility and international influence; and analyses the strategies and development suggestions for the operation and maintenance of Chinese cultural accounts in overseas countries. We also analyse the strategies and development suggestions for operating and maintaining Chinese cultural accounts overseas.

Keywords: Chinese+Media, Cultural Accounts, Operation and Maintenance Strategies

一、研究背景和意义

全球化视野之下国际中文教育越发展现出魅力，成为中国通往国际化道路的一张通行证。近年来，海外社交媒体在全球舞台的活跃打破了对既有传播平台的依赖，以智能电子设备为媒介，更加具有深度与广度的传播方式走进人们的视野，社交媒体传播内容的个性化与碎片化也为传播业态的重构进一步创造条件。全球社交媒体的高速发展，为国际中文教育提供了难得的机遇，充分认识海外社交媒体在国际中文教育领域中的重要作用，加强相关体系、业务和能力建设，正当其时。海外社交媒体平台中，Twitter（推特）、Facebook（脸书）、YouTube（油管）等是国外受众获取信息的主要来源。因此，从创新国际中文教育传播手段的角度出发，在海外社交媒体平台开设文化账号，以“转文化（transcultural communication）”¹的视角转换思路，刷新了国际中文教育传播能力建设的方式。“转文化传播”²思维倡导文化的平等对话、广泛融合和自由交流，是人类命运共同体理念在传播领域的具体化。

2020年下半年，中国海外媒体文化账号PaTh在Twitter、Facebook、YouTube平台上建立，借助平台的“草根性、开放性”等特征开展多层次、宽领域、全方位的语言文字与文化交流。在全球年轻人眼里，中文是很酷的一门外语，新世代的青年对于中文的学习动机很强烈，而PaTh账号正为学习者提供了更加便利的学习条件，使得年轻人通过学

¹ 王佳炜2022: 74-76.

² 陈思甜2023:69-72.

习中文，理解中国文化，进而促进良好的国际关系发展。综上，重视对PaTh文化账号在国际传播领域的现状分析，准确把握国际传播规律、舆论态势及用户脉搏，调研海外受众在国际传播环境下接受和传播信息中呈现的分众化现象，减少国际传播中的“文化折扣”现象，分析海外受众最关切的题材，精准投放内容。

二、研究方法

本文采用数据统计和内容分析相结合的研究方法，针对文化账号PaTh利用Twitter、Facebook、YouTube社交媒体平台进行中文推广、文化传播和国家形象塑造是否有效的问题，进行媒介策略研究。本文从效果指标及策略导向的层面，对样本的内容进行分析，以点赞、评论、分享三大传播效果机制作为考量因素，选取样本中的高关注度帖文作为文本内容分析的主要类别对象，并对其进行文本内容的编码与解码。

三、研究内容和发现

3.1文化账号PaTh传播现状

PaTh账号的全称为People and Things，意为通过展示中国当代的人、事、物，呈现有内涵、有温度、有趣味的中国当代文化故事。PaTh还有“途径”之意，意在构建不同文化之间理解的途径，促进民心相通。开设PaTh账号的宗旨是以民间化、年轻化、国际化的交流方式，面向海外青年和“Z世代”，解读中文魅力，讲好中文故事，提升海外民众学习中文与中国文化的兴趣，为提升国际中文教育在全球语言文化传播机构中的影响力和引领力的提升贡献力量。

PaTh账号经过约四年的运营，总粉丝数超40万人，覆盖累计全球超80个国家。随着大数据时代的到来，“数据话语”是一种现实传播优势和深层影响能力的体现。³ PaTh账号的运营数据在短时间内从初步涉足到飞速增长，不仅仅是新媒体时代国际中文教育在海外正面话语权的迫切需要，也同时为中国借助海外开放式互联网信息平台开展国际中文教育传播开辟了新的思路。

³ 陆小华2020:1-6.

3.2 PaTh账号内容运维情况

3.2.1 Path账号文化传播的基本指标呈现

Path账号内容方面根据三个平台的传播特点和运营规律来发布，鉴于Facebook庞大的粉丝量和丰富的社区功能，该账号设为主账号，以图文、短视频、链接等形式发布重点项目内容和主题性活动；Twitter平台动态性强，讲究时效性，该账号重点关注热门话题，内容以短平快为主，重在与海外用户进行文化相关话题的深度有效互动；YouTube作为视频平台，推广制作精品的系列短视频。为保持持续的新鲜度和吸引力，发布频率保持在Facebook和Twitter账号每个工作日分别更新2条内容，每周发布原创贴文数量共10条；YouTube每个月更新2至3条视频内容。根据内容题材的不同，本文将账号所发布的贴文样本分为人文艺术、自然风光、展览活动、中文学习等多个领域，具有较为广泛的国际视野。具体数据如图1所示。

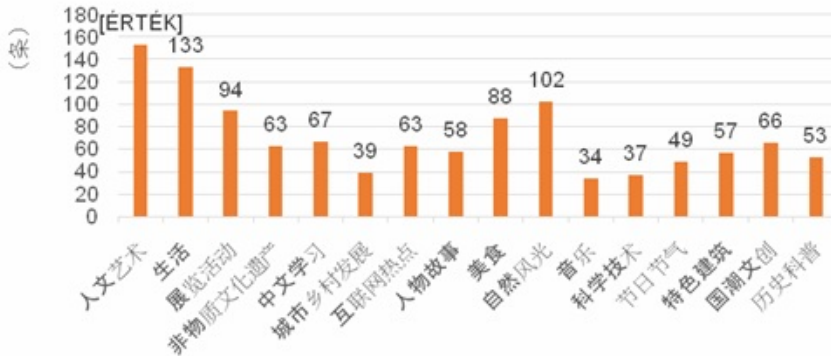


图1: PaTh账号海外社交媒体项目贴文内容分布情况

由图1可知，PaTh账号发布内容最多的为人文艺术153条（占比13.2%），其次为生活类133条（占比11.5%）、自然风光102条（占比8.8%）、展览活动94条（占比8%）、美食88条（占比7.6%）、中文学习67条（占比6%）、国潮文创66条（占比5.7%）。据表1显示，最受海外受众青睐的主题为以下三类：一是中国自然与城市风光；二是贴合生活“烟火气”的话题；三是中国传统文化的新时代表达。

题材	总阅读量	总互动量
自然城市风光类	1050 万	89.8 万
生活“烟火气”	734 万	61 万
传统文化的新时代表达	680 万	53 万

表1: 2023年贴文阅读量居于前三名话题

3.2.2 PaTh账号文化传播内容分析

(1) “处处好风光”，消除文化隔阂

中国自然与城市风光类内容涵盖了多个栏目，如Travel（旅游）、Back-ToField（乡村风光）、Nature（自然）、Tale Of Cities（城市印象），均获得了较高的互动量，而Architecture（建筑）成为账号的热门词汇。通过横向对比，拥有以下若干要素的帖文易收获粉丝关注：一是图片展示中国纯天然秀美河山、城市人文景观、季节性风景的内容自带流量；二是帖文选用的精美图片具有简洁大方、充满线条美的特性；三是语言文字明白晓畅、通俗易懂，总体上为粉丝提供了轻松愉悦的阅读体验。账号发布的“南京秋日美景”“甘泉峡谷”与“阿那亚社区”等帖文自然阅读量均超过2万次，此类内容视觉优美，符合海外社交媒体的“轻阅读”习惯，更大程度上可规避因意识形态差异引发传播障碍和传播隔阂。

(2) “人间烟火气”，实现情感共振

数据显示，较2023年度对比，2024年度该类话题帖文阅读量增长了15%，账号粉丝对中国人民生活话题的好感度与兴趣度持续攀升。此类话题“切口小却有大量能量”，无论是习俗还是美食，都是海外受众感知中国文化最直观的方式。粉丝对账号A Bite Of China（《舌尖上的中国》）、Movements Of Seasons（《岁时记》）等栏目帖文讨论热情高涨，评论多以赞美和积极反馈为主。

此外，账号发布的“中秋食俗”帖文展示了除“吃月饼”以外的中秋美食，如中国浙江特色的螃蟹、炒泥螺；“夏日美食特辑”系列生动呈现了成都冰粉、陕西凉皮等“消暑神器”；日常餐桌上的西红柿鸡蛋、土豆、豆瓣酱等也被引入平台，打破了中餐“食材奇葩”“不

健康”的刻板印象，并展现当下年轻人“一人食”的生活状态。经横向对比，以上帖文关注度较高的原因如下：首先，与人们生活息息相关的话题平易近人，易引人代入之情；其次，西方受众对于“乡土东方”、“传统中国”的猎奇、神秘感、浪漫感的了解需求；最后，通过粉丝留言了解到，此系列帖文展示出的“田园”“慢节奏生活”“地道中国味”等要素或已成为西方社会快节奏都市人群的“精神安慰剂”。

(3) “传统碰撞新潮”，吸引国际目光

中国传统文化融合当代艺术创新表达、亲近的选题角度缩小了与艺术的距离感，助力艺术类话题在社交媒体平台上收获粉丝广泛点赞。相关栏目如SurpriseBag（惊喜盒）、Faces（面孔）广受关注，其中“岩彩画女孩莲羊”与“周毅--翻糖蛋糕演绎中国神话”等帖文均获得了受众的喜爱。经比较，此类帖文具有以下特征：一是主角个性鲜明，符合账号年轻受众对“自我”个性化表达的需求；二是将中国传统文化赋予“潮玩气质”，做到“既有颜值，又有价值”；三是帖文植入交互、开放、共情等互联网传播元素，注重话题发酵，特别注重用年轻人喜欢的话语体系和审美方式制作帖文与视觉效果，让内容更具沉浸感和代入感。

(4) 唤醒“互动仪式感”，打造国际中文教育精品

账号以跟着奥运学中文为主题，聚焦国际赛事，在东京奥运会举办期间每日更新一篇以中文学习帖文，形式为创意海搭配简洁的干货文案的。借大型赛事的热点，融入中文教学，为海外网友解读中文魅力，从竞技体育的感情共振中达到“文化相通”的效果。该系列总阅读量逾57万人次，互动量逾1.2万人次。

谷雨时节，账号抓住联合国中文日的重要契机，在海外社交媒体平台主动发起ChineseConnectsUs（中文连接你我）话题策划，联结四十余家海内外账号，以中文为媒介，讲述人和文的故事，生动展示五千年汉字之美。此次联动累计收获阅读量515万次，互动量超40万次。同步在Facebook、YouTube平台推送八期《万物生长音乐会》节气主题系列音乐视频，从语言、文化、音乐等多角度对二十四节气音乐会中的8首作品进行精彩讲述，增加海外社交媒体平台中文日活动的文化厚度，该系列视频累计阅读量174.2万，互动量17.9万。

(5) 艺术话题增加传播难度

相较于前述四类内容，艺术展览、传统书画作品等相关话题在粉丝群体中的反响相对平淡。包含此类话题的栏目有：If Art Can Talk(《如果艺术会说话》)和Culture Calendar(《文化日历》)。此类话题要求受众拥有一定的艺术涵养，再加上受不同的文化背景影响，为受众欣赏此类内容增添了壁垒，暂时不符合大部分海外受众情感与信息需求，如“陈漫个人展”、“中国古代服饰展”等便未能引发广泛关注。根据以上分析，PaTh账号应持续回应海外网民的关注，持续发布中国自然与城市风光、贴合中国生活“烟火气”以及中国传统文化的新时代表达的相关内容。同时，运营团队应持续做好追踪中国新时代文化要素，挖掘海外网民兴趣点等方面工作，以期持续扩大账号粉丝“朋友圈”。

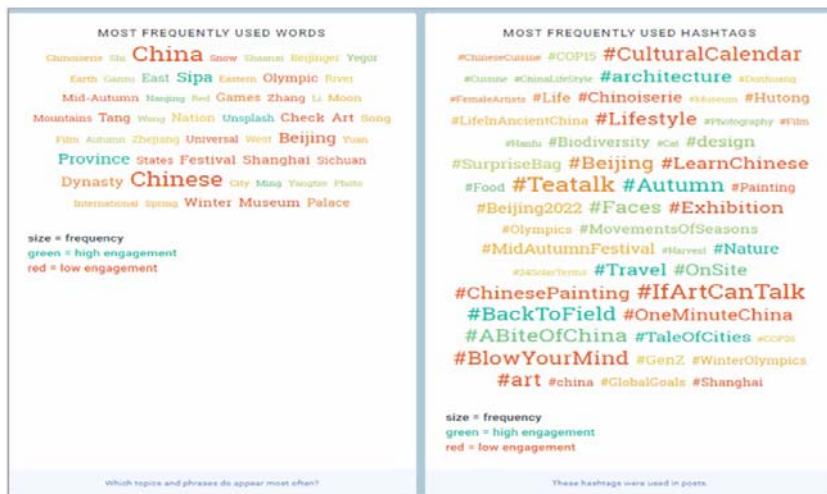


图2: 帖文热词与热门标签，字符大小表示出现频率，字符颜色代表互动量，绿色为互动量高，红色为互动量较低。

3.3 Path账号受众属性分析

3.3.1 受众画像分析

“Z世代”（Generation Z）是盛行于西方的术语，沿袭了西方“X世代”“Y世代”的称谓。众多机构和学者对于“Z世代”年龄范围的划定有一定差异，结合国内外学界、业界较为主流的观点，本文将“Z世代”界定

为在1995年至2010年间出生的群体。联合国经济和社会事务部2020年发布的数据显示，全球“Z世代”在2019年达到24亿人，占世界总人口的32%。从图3和图4受众年龄分布来看，主流群体日益年轻化，“Z世代”⁴占领传播主场。账号后台分析工具显示，PaTh账号占比较多的受众均为13-34岁的“Z世代”群体。Facebook账号35岁以下的年轻受众约为16万人，占比近80%；“Z世代”群体总人数超8万人，占比约达41.6%。YouTube账号后台显示，近28天观众中超过72.3%的受众为13-34岁的青年群体；Twitter用户约为24-45岁年龄段。三个平台的用户“Z世代”群体占领传播主场。受众性别方面，PaTh在Facebook账号男性受众占比远高于女性，分别占总粉丝数的77.6%和22.4%；而PaTh在YouTube账号男性与女性占比较为均衡，分别占总粉丝数的47.7%与52.3%。可见聚集在海外社交媒体平台上的海外“Z世代”对中文与中华文化的好感度明显高于较年长人群，他们思维活跃、视野开阔、开放包容，大多处于世界观、人生观、价值观形成的重要窗口期，可塑性强、发展潜力大，对华意识形态偏见相对弱，他们是“中文+媒介”的关键人群，广泛粘合有一定影响力、发展前景可期的“Z世代”，有利于国际中文教育传播力建设。

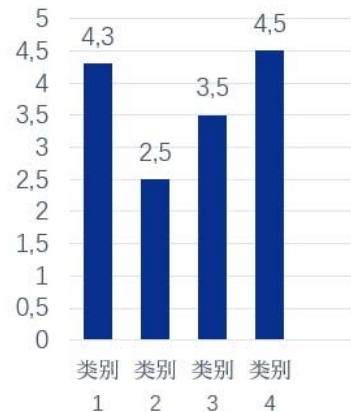
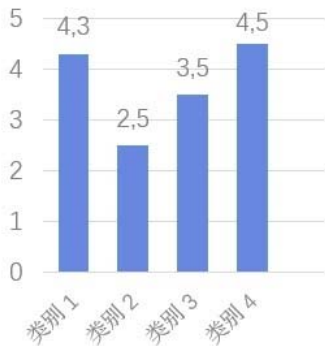


图3: PaTh账号脸书受众年龄分布 图4: PaTh账号油管受众年龄分布

⁴ 任梓楠2021.

3.3.2 受众教育程度分析

PaTh账号后台分析工具显示，拥有大学学历及以上的受众群体占比约76%，并且该群体比例呈上升趋势，可见精英用户持续云集，优质受众主导海外传播。账号发布的中华传统文化、现代生活、生态环保、科技发展等内容与分众化帖文语言风格始终以受众的角度和话语体系去建构传播内容、考虑传播策略，持续贴近海外高学历受众的信息需求和文化心理需求。

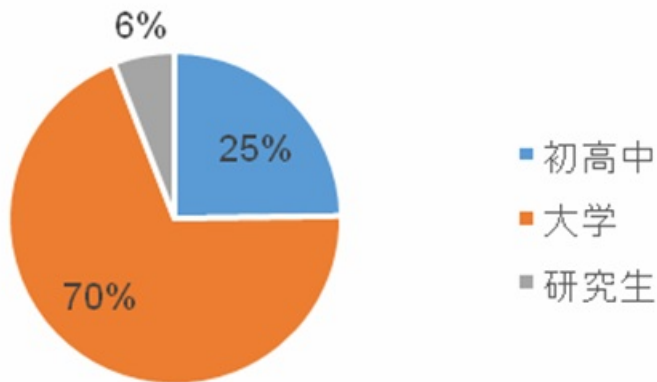


图5: PaTh账号粉丝教育程度分布

3.3.3 受众群体国别分析

账号粉丝国别分布较为广泛全面，除欧美国家、“一带一路”沿线国家和地区外，大洋洲、非洲，国别总数超过80个。账号在亚、非、欧、美洲等地区的影响力逐渐提升，优质“铁杆粉丝”不断涌现，来自美国、加拿大、澳大利亚、英国、法国、印度的超级粉丝持续在账号上留言与互动。由此可见，PaTh账号不仅抓住了第三世界国家受众、传统友好国家（地区）受众等“基本盘”，也高度关注了以欧美为主的西方发达国家受众“重点盘”，在转文化传播中分区块精准式进行内容的生产与投放。

3.3.4 受众活跃时间段分析

数据显示，脸书账号粉丝每日活跃时间集中在北京时间晚7点至11点。剔除数值异常帖文（阅读量极高与极低帖文），账号粉丝在周一下午时段、夜间时段，以及周日下午时段帖文反馈较多。同时，Facebook

账号粉丝活跃时间集中在北京时间周四与周五上午4点到6点，与周末的零点与凌晨1点，可见“夜猫”用户持续增长，周末峰值普遍增高。

PaTh账号在利用社交媒体平台进行媒介内容传播时，形成了自身独特的媒介呈现样式，并以文化内容获得高媒介关注度。由此，凸显了社交媒体平台以社交和沟通的核心功能，运营主体把寻找共同的兴趣和情感关联作为内在心理驱动，从而使得寻找共同的表达元素、话语、情感和兴趣内容成为沟通的必需。

3.3.5 互动情况

账号强化Facebook、YouTube、Twitter等平台之间的多向联动，升级矩阵式传播效果；就重点方向积极拓展资源，着力吸引更多中国文化类账号、高校账号及大V账号的关注与互动，引流粉丝至PaTh账号，持续提升账号的传播影响力以及感召力。通过评论和转发实现优质资源共享与高质量内容的二次传播，同时尝试与多语种账号互动，增加受众群体多元性，进一步扩大“朋友圈”，最大化地实现账号间引流，提高了PaTh在多个主流海外社交媒体平台上的品牌影响力。

四、海媒文化账号优势及发展建议

4.1 从PaTh账号目前的文化传播效果来看，国际化社交媒体平台对国际中文教育转文化传播具有如下优势。

4.1.1 中国声音的鲜活表达。

在内容选题方面，通过“看见中国”和“学习中文”，感受中国社会最新鲜的气息和脉动，直观展现中国人的生活、审美理念、精神需求。挖掘适合当下社交媒体的碎片化阅读、快传播的内容，强化海外粉丝对当代中国现实的印象。例如，中国壮美的生态风光、中国独特的城市人文，包罗万象的地区人民生活风貌、中文学习题材以及年轻鲜活的“Z世代”热议话题，吸引来自世界各国的平台用户、中文学习者持续关注，推动对话和交流。

4.1.2 聚焦共情传播，打造“破圈”产品。

PaTh账号的帖文选取代表性强、认识度高、影响力广，旨在互动传播中寻求共情，找到与“Z世代”的话语共同点和情感共鸣点。在共情

传播方面下功夫，通过共情增进理解、互通情感，使中国声音成功“破圈”。共情(empathy)是一个起源于心理学的概念，是一种本能的情感驱动。⁵当共情触发，横亘在文化间的鸿沟于无形中消失。共情是可以被设置和引导的，他者潜在的共情能力是可以被唤醒的，通过设置容易引发共情的内容或者形式，可以迅速拉近不同文化主体间的距离。受众对信息内容产生兴趣，凝聚起注意力资源，进而产生理解，甚至深度的认同。在此基础上，受众自觉地产生点赞、转发等行为，成为二次传播的节点，实现信息传播的不断扩张，传播力和影响力随之增强。

4.2 在使用社交媒体平台进行国际中文教育和文化的推广时，还存在着创新性和前瞻性不足、传播内容模式化等问题，仍有很大改善空间，发展建议如下。

4.2.1 账号需继续紧跟时事热点，深耕“中文+”领域，对话“Z世代”，加快形成更为整体和系统的“中文+媒介”理念。

要在语言战略传播的层面，需要进行总体性的设计，制定更为明确的语言和文化传播目标及策略行动计划。不断扩充丰富专栏内容，将中文教学融入常态化更新，把握海外中文爱好者快节奏的阅读习惯和对中文热点话题的信息需求，以事实为载体，注重实用性和趣味性，结合环保、公益、冬奥会等主题，创造出多元、灵动、互动性强的文化内容，让海外用户轻松愉悦、潜移默化地加深地对中国文化的认知。

4.2.2 紧跟国家重要发展理念探索国际数据话语新渠道。

重视中国主场外交活动及向世界发出的倡议，创新利用短视频、直播等新传播形式，打造面向海外受众的轻量化国际传播短视频，例如，开设专栏Click To The Future，基于现实对未来进行合理想象，巧妙展示中国国家重要发展理念与已有的发展成就。在有趣的氛围中“俘获”海外年轻受众，建立既体现中国立场观点和价值观念、又能为外国受众理解和接受的数据话语体系。

⁵ 马龙,李虹: 77-83.

4.2.3 立足新媒体平台，重视新媒体时代中的受众主体性作用。

从本质上看，Facebook是一个注重人际传播的社交媒体平台，具有自发性、互动性、即时性等特征。媒介使用者既是信息传播的主体，又是信息接收的受体。如果没有充分的互动和赋权，新媒体便失去了受众的基础支持。所以，PaTh账号应优化主页传播定位，在海外传播过程中进行灵活的策略调整，充分发挥平台节点化、网络化、社区化的传播优势，与全球范围内的中文爱好者进行高频度互动，注重语言文化传播的双向性，摆脱当前账号文化传播中“阅读—评论”的单一受众模式，争取实现更高的文化内容传递效果，培养用户群网络社区，扩展网络传播效应，有效提升文化传播水平和文化传播能力。

4.2.4 强化社交媒体属性玩法积极调动海外受众。

账号需精细化内容运维，以进一步促进国际中文教育和中国文化在海外的推广，根据用户年龄、定位、兴趣、语言习惯等有针对性地投放。通过定向推广，直达目标群体，增强用户粘性，深入探寻关注者真实需求，并制定相应宣传策略。例如，针对海外欧美国国家青年一代精通技术、务实、开放、崇尚个人主义的特点，账号可在推送鲜活丰富的青年文化节目、新兴科技、未来经济动向等内容的同时，以体验类视频的形式邀请他们走近中国，从而搭建中外青年交流桥梁，为国际交流夯实基础。

4.2.5 积极寻求文化传播的认同价值。

曼纽尔·卡斯特尔(Manuel Castells)认为，多元主义时代中的“文化认同”(culture identity)是网络社会的重要特征。⁶ 在扩大中文朋友圈中实现价值认同，推动实现同类文化账号整体联动、立体响应，最大化地实现账号间引流，进而产生“1+1>2”的效果。如重大活动、事件节点的联动策划，日常运营中的良性互动，均可实现为账号引流。总之，PaTh账号将针对海外青年一代愿意接受新事物和观点、尝试新的生活方式、具有批判精神和创造激情等特点，持续推送更多鲜活丰富的中文或中国文化内容，搭建中外青年交流桥梁，促进中国与世界各国之间的相互包容和理解。

⁶ 王超2017.

五、结语

“教育科技的不断创新促进了教育的公平化，教学方式和学习方式的变革加快了新型优质资源和平台的研发、共享和普惠。”⁷ 在全球化时代，语言文化推广是公共外交的重要组成部分，以传播中华文化、推广中文教学为己任的PaTh账号是教育科技不断创新的优质产品，它实现了“以文载道、以文传声、以文化人”的跨文化交流效果，使国际中文教育信息不仅入眼、入耳而且入脑、入心。未来，PaTh账号还将面临更多挑战，应继续在主体、内容、渠道层面开拓创新，为国际中文教育出圈提供新路径，为中华文化走出去提供新动力。

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⁷ 任叁2022:73-75.

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匈牙利学习者汉语辅音学习情况调查与分析—— —基于学习者自测和听辨视角

摘要

本文旨在从学习者自测和听辨的角度出发，探讨匈牙利学习者在学习汉语辅音发音时可能面临的困难。首先，我们根据叶秋月博士对比的汉语与匈牙利语的异同点，大胆推测匈牙利学习者在学习汉语辅音发音方面可能遇到一些挑战。其次，通过学习者自测和听辨，我们将识别出相对困难的发音，并基于这些困难点展开教师问卷调查，以对比学习者的自我认知与客观事实，从而评估他们在汉语辅音听辨能力方面的表现。最后，结合学习者自测、听辨及教师调查的结果，我们将对之前的假设进行论证。经深入分析，我们确认了辅音j[te]、q[te']、x[e]、k[k']、h[x]、c[ts']、zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂ']、sh[ʂ]在学习者学习过程中可能具有较高的难度。

关键词:辅音听辨测试；匈牙利汉语学习者；发音偏误；汉语辅音教学策略；Praat

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A Survey and Analysis of Chinese Consonant Learning Among Hungarian Learners: A Perspective from Self-Assessment and Auditory Discrimination

Abstract

This article aims to explore the difficulties that Hungarian learners may encounter in learning the pronunciation of Chinese consonants from the perspectives of self-assessment and auditory discrimination. Firstly, based on the

comparison of Chinese and Hungarian by Dr Ye Qiuyue, we boldly speculate that Hungarian learners may face challenges in learning the pronunciation of Chinese consonants. Secondly, through learners' self-tests and auditory discrimination, we identify relatively challenging pronunciations. Building on these difficulties, a teacher survey is conducted to compare learners' self-awareness with objective facts, thereby evaluating their performance in recognising Mandarin consonants. Finally, by combining the results of self-tests, auditory discrimination, and teacher surveys, we substantiate our previous assumptions. Through in-depth analysis, we confirm that the consonants $j[t\epsilon]$, $q[t\epsilon']$, $x[\epsilon]$, $k[k']$, $h[x]$, $c[ts']$, $zh[t\int]$, $ch[t\int']$, $sh[\int]$, and sh may pose higher difficulties for learners during the learning process.

Keywords: Chinese consonant initial auditory discrimination, Hungarian Chinese learners, pronunciation errors, Praat

一、引言

汉语作为世界上使用人口最多的语言之一，其在全球的重要性日益凸显。匈牙利作为中东欧地区的一个重要国家也不例外。“匈牙利汉学基础深厚，历史悠久。近些年，汉语教学更是蓬勃发展，成绩瞩目。”¹随着中国与匈牙利在经济、科技和文化领域的合作的增多，能为匈牙利学习者提供的就业机会就更多了，同时高水准的汉语人才也是各大华企争抢的对象。然而，由于匈牙利语与汉语在音系上存在较大差异，学习者在学习汉语辅音²发音时常常面临一些难题。叶秋月（2019）在黄伯荣、廖序东（1991）和Péter Siptár、Miklós Törkenczy（2000）的基础上全方位对比了汉语和匈牙利语语音的异同。本文将基于叶秋月博士对汉匈辅音的对比基础上进行研究。

基于叶秋月（2019）从音系角度对比可知，汉语中的送气与不送气是重要的语音特征，而匈牙利语没有这种明显的区分。同时，也从发音部位将汉语和匈牙利语进行对比，通过对比我们可以发现，有些辅音的发音位置相同但是发音方式却不同，如： $g[k]$ 、 $k[k']$ 在两种语言中同属软腭音，但在汉语里是不送气与送气对立的音对，而匈牙利语中是浊音与清音对立的音对；在汉语中 $h[x]$ 是软腭后音，而匈牙利语

¹ 叶秋月2021：178.

² 本文所讨论的汉语辅音均为位于音节首位的声母。

是声门喉音。在汉语中j[te]、q[te']、x[ɕ]是硬腭音,发音时同时调动舌面前部和硬腭前部。然而,在匈牙利语中,这三个辅音的发音在发音部位和发音方式上都明显有所区别;在汉语中z[ts]、c[ts']、s[s]是齿龈音,需要舌尖和齿背配合发音,在发音时舌尖抵住齿背接触阻碍气流而形成。而匈牙利语中z[ts]、s[s]是齿龈擦音,发音时舌尖或舌面接触上齿龈,c[ts']是软顎塞音,发音时由舌头的后部靠近硬顎形成阻塞,然后突然放开形成。在汉语中,zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂ']、sh[ʂ]、r[ʒ]是卷舌音(舌尖后音),发音时舌尖向后卷曲并与硬顎(齿龈)接触,阻碍气流而形成。而匈牙利语中类似的发音有辅音dzs[dʒ]、cs[tʃ]、s[ʃ]和zs[ʒ],但它们的发音器官和方式却有差异,这四个辅音都是摩擦发音方式,其中dzs[dʒ]和cs[tʃ]龈后塞擦音在发音时舌头的位置介于齿龈后并在齿龈区域形成阻塞的音,而s[ʃ]和zs[ʒ]是龈后擦音,发音时舌头位置介于龈音和硬顎音之间,通过舌头与齿龈的摩擦产生声音。

本文在汉语与匈牙利语语音差异的基础上提出四个与匈牙利学习者感知能力相关的假设。这些假设将验证匈牙利汉语学习者在听辨汉语辅音送气与不送气对立音对、清音和浊音对立音对、相同发音位置不同发音方式以及卷舌音时是否出现听辨偏误。为了验证这些假设,我们将设计相应的听辨材料,以明确匈牙利汉语学习者在哪些语音特征上存在偏误,为进一步分析汉语与匈牙利语语音差异提供实证数据,力争为学习者提供更多针对性的学习途径。

假设一: 匈牙利汉语学习者在听辨汉语辅音不送气与送气音对时可能出现偏误,涉及辅音组有 b[p]-p[p']、d[t]-t[t']、g[k]-k[k']、z[ts]-c[ts']、zh[tʂ]-ch[tʂ']、j[te]-q[te']。

假设二: 匈牙利汉语学习者在区分汉语辅音清音和浊音对时可能面临困难,包括辅音组有sh-r、f-m,同时涉及到不同的发音位置。

假设三: 当匈牙利汉语学习者在听辨具有相同发音位置但不同发音方式的辅音时可能会出现偏误,包括辅音组有h[x]-g[k]、k[k']-h[x]、k[k']-g[k](软顎音);x[ɕ]-q[te']、x[ɕ]-j[te]、j[te]-q[te'](硬腭音);c[ts']-z[ts]、s[s]-z[ts]、c[ts']-s[s](齿龈音)。

假设四: 匈牙利汉语学习者在区分平舌音和卷舌音时可能会遇到困难,涉及辅音组有z[ts]-zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂ']-c[ts']、s[s]-sh[ʂ]。

二、文献综述

2.1、难度等级自测

语言学习是一项复杂的认知过程，近年来，元认知理论在语言学习领域的应用引起了学者们的广泛关注。元认知³，即对自己学习过程进行反思和监控的能力，在解决语音难题方面发挥关键作用，对于语言学习尤为重要。

元认知在语音学习中的重要性已经在广泛的研究中得到肯定。根据 Lei He (2011) 的研究表明，学习者通过元认知能够更主动地监测和调整发音，从而提高英语语音学习的效果。当学习者对汉语辅音难度进行自测时，元认知也在学习策略紧密相关。Clementin Kortisarom P (2020) 的研究关注了元认知意识、动机和听力水平之间的关系。研究通过对一所天主教大学的29名英语系三年级学习者进行调查，使用元认知意识问卷和动机问卷来收集数据，并使用听力理解测试来评估学习者的感知水平。在调查第二语言的自我和他人感知方面，Pavel Trofimovich等人(2016)的研究结果表明，学习者的自我评估与实际表现之间存在一定的关联，并且受到母语背景的影响。发音难度等级自测是一个自我监测的过程，学习者自我测定辅音的难度等级系数，实际上是在进行自我判断。这个过程是学习者对自己学习表现的主观认知，这正是元认知的核心之一。发音难度等级自测实验在研究语言学习者的语音能力时是一个不可忽略的一个环节，它为语音研究提供了独特的分析视角。

本文还引入了听辨测试，即感知实验，这是语音知觉领域常用的一种方法。在语音知觉领域，Lieberman等人(1967)的研究奠定了听辨测试的理论基础。他们提出了“模式匹配理论”，强调语音知觉是通过将听到的语音信号与存储在大脑中的语音模式进行比对来实现的。这一理论为听辨测试的设计提供了理论依据。朱川(1997)在其著作中详细介绍了感知实验的基本概念和方法。他指出，在语音学习中，通过对学习者感知能力的测试可以评估学习者对于不同语音单元的辨别能力，为进一步的发音改进提供具体的指导。这种方法的实施有助于量化学习者的语音感知水平。此外，关于语音感知测试在对外汉语教学中的应用，马燕华(2000)的研究提供了一些有益的见解。她通过

³ 元认知的概念最早由美国心理学家约翰·霍普金斯弗拉维尔(John H Flavell)提出。他在20世纪70年代初首次引入了这个术语，描述了对个体自身认知过程的监控和调控能力。

对初级汉语留学生第三声听辨测试结果分析,为其针对性的发音教学提供了详实的依据。这一观点有助于将听辨测试与实际语音教学紧密结合,提高其实用性。王轶之(2011)在其文章中详细阐述了听辨测试设计的步骤和理论知识,为我们在测试匈牙利学习者的感知实验中提供了方法学支持。鉴于实验的可操作和便捷性,本研究中的语音听辨实验将融合学者们的方法并结合匈牙利学习者自测的结果将听辨测试进行简化,以提高测试的易操作性。

最后,在学习者难度等级自测和听辨测试结果的基础上,本文通过问卷调查获取了教师在教学中遇到的语音教学难点。从另一个视角确认学习者的学习难点,以便更全面地分析。

三、研究现状

在研究匈牙利学习者汉语辅音发音问题的调查与分析方面,已有不少学者有重要的研究成果。其中中国学者在匈牙利学习者汉语辅音发音问题的研究较为全面。他们通过对比汉语与匈牙利语的音系特征,深入挖掘了两种语言的差异,并提出了相关的教学建议。例如:王又民(1998)采用定量实证性研究的方法,对匈牙利学习者汉语双音词声调标注进行了调查,并根据错误倾向设计训练方案对学习者的语音练习。范立波(2015)对比了汉语和匈牙利语语音系统内部关系,分析了两种语言中每个音的发音部位和发音方法,将汉匈语音进行单向性的对比分析。并且结合自己的教学实践,对母语是匈语的成人学习者的学习难点进行了归纳总结,并提出了相应的教学策略。一些学者也借助现代技术手段,对匈牙利学习者汉语辅音发音进行更为精细和全面的分析。通过这些技术手段,他们能够更准确地捕捉学习者的发音差异,为制定个性化的教学方案提供了更多可能性。叶秋月(2019)利用精确的仪器将11名学习者的语音记录并使用软件Praat加以分析。在她的研究结果里,我们可以看到匈牙利汉语学习者在声调上的偏误情况及匈牙利汉语学习者在学习汉语声调过程中产生偏误的原因。

虽然,匈牙利学者在汉语语音方面的研究相对少一些,但也有特别深入的研究,同时提供了多元的视角。如包甫博(2011)指出,汉语中在声母位置出现的辅音当中,以m、l、f、s字母为符号的那些语音与匈牙利语的类似语音,即m、l、f、sz一模一样,所以它们的发音对匈牙利学习者没有任何难点。在学习难度等级中叶秋月(2019)将母语和目标语相同的情况归类为“一致”(即两种语言没有差异的地方,学习者学习起来毫不费力)。这为我们进一步的研究排除了很多冗余的步骤,

让我们更快更准的找到匈牙利学习者的发音难点。Karsai Zsuzsanna (2015) 比较了汉语和匈牙利语的语音差异, 并探讨匈牙利学习者学习汉语语音时面临的困难。文章重点讨论了匈牙利学习者在学习汉语语音时可能遇到的难点, 如将清音读成浊音、舌尖后音的发音问题以及某些汉语韵母造成的困难等。

两国学者在匈牙利学习者汉语辅音发音问题的调查与分析中发挥着积极的作用。通过对语音学和技术手段的综合运用, 他们为理解和解决匈牙利学习者在学习汉语辅音发音中遇到的问题提供了深刻见解和实用建议。这些研究不仅对语言教学领域产生积极影响, 也为中匈文化交流和教育合作搭建了重要的桥梁。

四、研究方法和研究对象

4.1、难度系数自测问卷调查

利用问卷调查收集学习者对自身发音水平的主观感受。这从学习者角度为研究提供了更全面的, 有助于与客观水平的对比分析。针对学习者辅音难度自测的问卷调查表我们共收集了76份; 1年学习者31份, 2年学习者25份, 3年学习者10份, 3年以上年学习者10份。

4.2、听辨测试

运用听辨测试, 以录音形式呈现不同辅音组合的发音, 要求参与者准确辨认, 以考察学习者的辅音听辨能力。我们共收集101份有效听辨试卷。分别是学习了1年汉语的学习者33份, 2年学习者36份, 3年学习者14份, 3年以上学习者18份。

4.3、问卷调查表和自测试卷设计

为了更深入地从学习者主观角度了解匈牙利的汉语学习者在学习辅音时所面临的困难, 我们以汉语和匈牙利语作为说明语言, 列出了21个汉语辅音。请学习者根据难度系数等级从1至5递增进行难度系数自我测定。发音相对容易的音标记为1, 而发音最具挑战性的则标记为5。

4.4、汉语辅音听辨测试设计⁴

为了更全面地测试辅音在词汇不同位置的情况，本文为每个汉语辅音设计了两种不同的位置情况。第一种情况是将被测辅音放在词汇的第一个字上，即声母前置；第二种情况是将被测辅音放在词汇的第二个字上，即声母后置。测试的形式以试题的方式呈现，总共包含42道题目。除了题目会用汉语和匈牙利语进行解释和说明外，试卷上只显示拼音。详情参见附录。

每道题都有两个选项，学习者需要根据所听到的录音，在两个选项中选择出正确的拼音。为确保韵母和声调不会影响学习者对测试辅音的判断，本文中采用了对照研究的方法。在测试试题中，对照组与目标组除了被测辅音外其余条件尽可能的保持一致以便排除其对被测辅音的判断。当测试目标是能否听辨出辅音**b[p]-p[p']**区别时，在此组合中，测试目标为**b[p]**。当**b[p]**前置时，正确的选项提供的是“**bùkān**”，而对照组干扰项则是“**pùkān**”。当**b[p]**后置时，正确的选项提供的是“**fēngbào**”，而对照组干扰项则是“**fēngpào**”。这种设计可以更高效直接地测试学习者对**b[p]**和**p[p']**的听辨能力，同时排除了韵母和声调对测试结果的干扰，使测试结果更加准确，能帮助我们从根源上找到问题所在。

五、研究结果

5.1、难度等级自测结果

通过分析笔者发现，匈牙利的汉语学习者在辅音难度等级自我评估中呈现出一些相似的认知结果。具体而言，无论在学习的哪个阶段，难度等级系数为1的占比均相对较高。这意味着对于从他们主观认知来看，大部分辅音的发音并不具备明显的难度，他们在不同的学习阶段都能够展示相对较为熟练的水平。有关各学习阶段的难度等级自我评估结果详见表1、表2、表3、表4⁵。

⁴ 为了更好地模拟实际交流场景，帮助学习者适应汉语的自然语流，本研究全部基于双音节词进行。

⁵ 表格中的辅音均以字母形式表示。

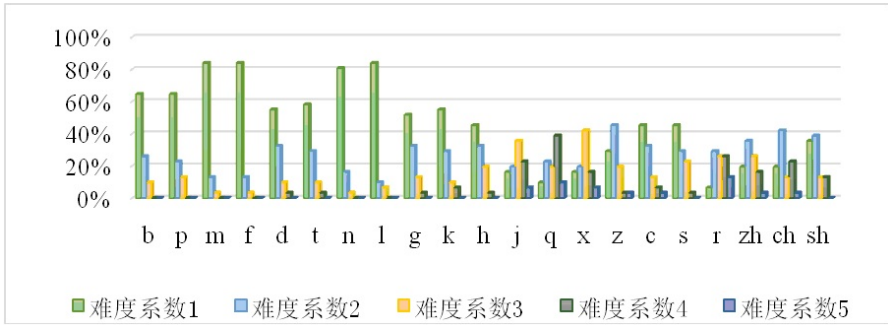


表1: 学习时长一年难度自测

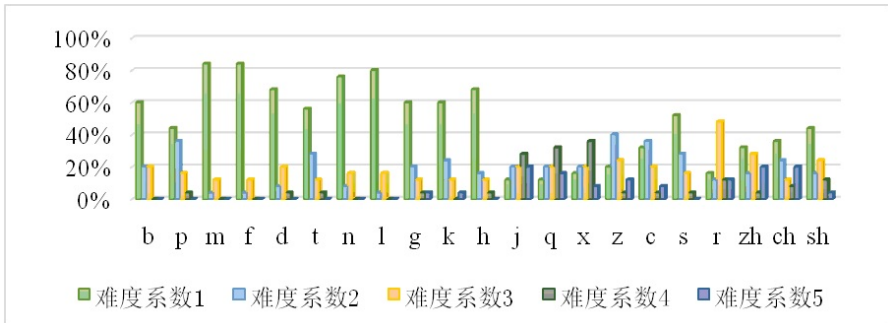


表2: 学习时长两年难度自测

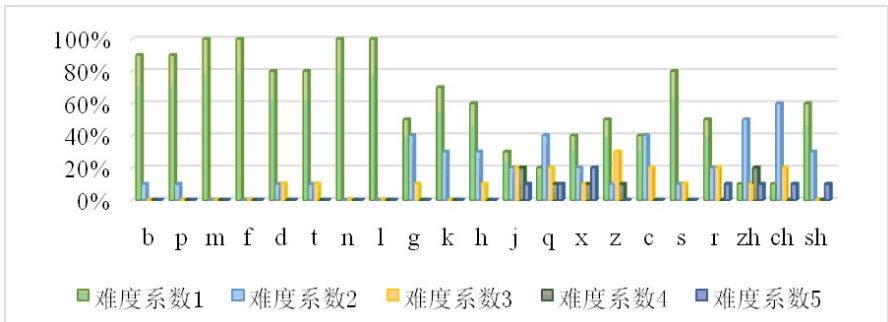


表3: 学习时长三年难度自测

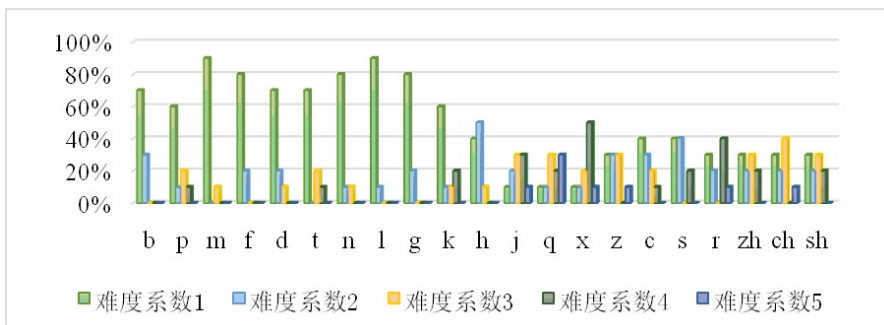


表4: 学习时长三年以上难度自测

从难度等级自测结果来看**b**[p]、**p**[p′]、**m**[m]、**f**[f]、**d**[t]、**t**[t′]、**n**[n]、**l**[l]这些辅音在所有学习阶段都相对较易掌握，难度等级系数1的占比都很高，显示了学习者对于这些基础发音的良好理解和掌握。辅音**g**[k]、**k**[k′]、**h**[x]的发音在各个学习阶段都有一定的难度，但整体来说，难度等级系数1的占比相对较高，表明学习者在基础水平上有一定的把握。这些共同的特征表明初学者和进阶学习者在一些基础发音上还有相似的学习情况，呈现出匈牙利汉语学习者在基础发音方面的整体学习趋势。这也强调了在学习初期要夯实基础，重点关注这些共同的发音特点的必要性。

在各个学习阶段的匈牙利汉语学习者中，一些发音对学习者来说都具有一定难度。**j**[tɕ]的发音在所有学习阶段都表现为相对较高的难度，难度等级系数3、4、5的占比较高；**q**[tɕ′]的发音在所有学习阶段也表现为相对高的难度，特别是难度等级系数4和5的占比相对较高。这可能与匈牙利语中缺乏类似发音的音素有关，导致学习者难以准确模仿所造成发音困难；**zh**[tʂ]、**ch**[tʂ′]、**sh**[ʂ]这些卷舌音的发音在各个学习阶段都有一定的难度，特别是难度等级系数为3、4和5的占比较高。导致这种结果的原因之一可能是由于汉语中存在卷舌音，而匈牙利语中却没有相应的卷舌音，因此学习者在面对卷舌音的发音时，可能会遇到相对较大的挑战。

在对比分析了同一辅音在不同学习时长下的难度系数走向后，通过数据分析，我们可以明显看到某些辅音的发音随着学习者学习时长的增加，难度等级系数呈现出逐渐降低的趋势。例如，辅音**b**[p]、**p**[p′]、**m**[m]、**f**[f]、**d**[t]、**t**[t′]、**n**[n]、**l**[l]、**g**[k]、**k**[k′]、**h**[x]、**s**[s]和**r**[z]随着学习者学习时长的增加，难度等级系数1的占比逐渐增高，而难度等级系数3、4和5的占比逐渐降低。这可能表示这些发音在学习者经过

一定学习后会变得相对容易，也反映了学习者在不同等级阶段对这些发音逐渐熟悉和掌握的过程。在教学中，可以根据这些趋势调整教学策略，更有针对性地帮助学习者克服发音难点。

5.2、听辨结果

为了全面分析和解决匈牙利汉语学习者在发音方面的问题，尤其是辅音的发音，为此本文设计了42组听辨材料，用以测试匈牙利汉语学习者在不同学习阶段对汉语辅音听辨的表现。这些听辨材料是根据辅音的发音部位、发音方式、清浊音对立、送气与不送气的特点以及是否与匈牙利汉语学习者的母语发音相似等因素来设定。结果如表5、表6所示。

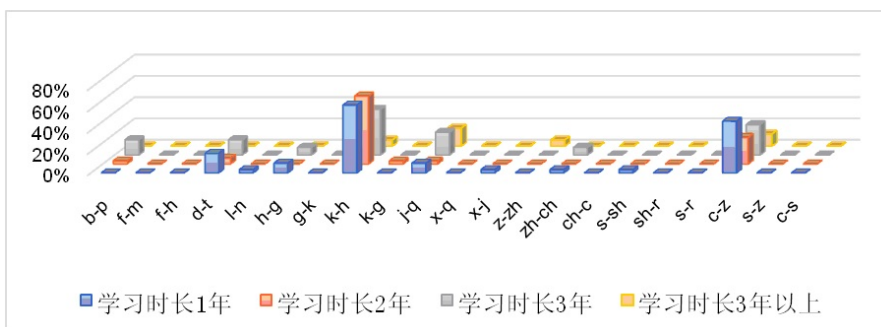


表5: 声母前置偏误率

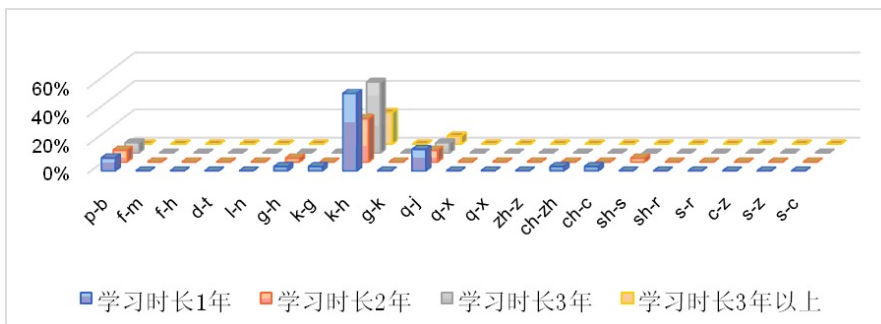


表6: 声母后置偏误率

5.2.1、听辨偏误率较高

在针对性听辨k[kʰ]-h[x]时, 当k[kʰ]前置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为64%, 2年学习者的偏误率为64%, 3年学习者的偏误率为43%, 3年以上学习者的偏误率为6%; 而当k[kʰ]后置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为55%, 2年学习者的偏误率为31%, 3年学习者的偏误率为50%, 3年以上学习者的者偏误率为22%。

在针对性听辨j[te]-q[teʰ]时, 当j[te]前置时1年学习者的偏误率为9%, 2年学习者的偏误率为3%, 3年学习者的偏误率为21%, 3年以上学习者的偏误率为17%。当j[te]后置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为15%, 2年学习者的偏误率为8%, 3年学习者的偏误率为7%, 3年以上学习者的偏误率为6%。

在针对性听辨c[tsʰ]-z[ts]时, 当c[tsʰ]前置时, 每个阶段的学习者都有偏误。当c[tsʰ]前置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为48%, 2年学习者的偏误率为25%, 3年学习者的偏误率为29%, 3年以上学习者的偏误率为11%; 当c[tsʰ]放在词语的第二个单词时, 无论哪个阶段的学习者偏误率都为0。

5.2.2、听辨偏误率低

在多个学习阶段, 学习者对于d[t]-t[tʰ]、l[l]-n[n]、k[kʰ]-g[k]、g[k]-k[kʰ]、x[ɕ]-j[te]、z[ts]-zh[tʂ]、zh[tʂ]-ch[tʂʰ]、ch[tʂʰ]-c[tsʰ]、s[s]-sh[ʂ]辅音组合的听辨偏误率相对较低。详情如下: 在针对d[t]-t[tʰ]的听辨中, d[t]前置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为18%, 2年学习者的偏误率为6%, 3年学习者的偏误率为14%, 3年以上学习者的偏误率为0%。而d[t]后置时, 各阶段学习者的偏误率均为0%; 对于l[l]-n[n]、x[ɕ]-j[te], 只有当l[l]和x[ɕ]前置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为3%, 其他任何情况偏误率均为0%; 在k[kʰ]-g[k]的听辨中, k[kʰ]前置时, 2年学习者的偏误率为3%, 其他任何情况偏误率均为0%; 在g[k]-k[kʰ]、ch[tʂʰ]-c[tsʰ]的听辨中, 当g[k]和ch[tʂʰ]后置时, 只有1年学习者的偏误率为3%, 其他任何情况偏误率均为0%; 在z[ts]-zh[tʂ]的听辨中, 当z[ts]前置时, 只有3年以上学习者出现偏误, 其偏误率为6%, 其他任何情况偏误率均为0%; 在zh[tʂ]-ch[tʂʰ]的听辨中, 当zh[tʂ]前置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为3%, 3年学习者7%, 而zh[tʂ]后置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为3%, 其余阶段为0%; 在s[s]-sh[ʂ]的听辨中, 当s[s]前置时, 1年学习者的偏误率为3%, 其他学习阶段无偏误, 而s[s]后置时, 2年学习者的偏误率仅为3%, 其他学习阶段为0%。

5.2.3、听辨偏误率为零

需要特别指出的是，在针对[f][m]、f[h][x]、x[c]、q[te']、sh[s]-r[z]、s[s]-r[z]、s[s]-z[ts]、c[ts']-s[s]这几组辅音的听辨时，无论是辅音前置还是后置，所有学习阶段的学习者都没有出现听辨错误。这结果表明匈牙利的汉语学习者在这些特定辅音组合上具有高度的听辨准确性。这一发现对汉语教学有着积极的启示。首先，教师可以在课堂上充分利用学习者在这些辅音组合上的敏感度，将其作为正面的例子进行展示。其次，可以通过由易到难的教学思路设计更多涉及这些辅音组合的语料，以保持学习者的兴趣和学习动力。

5.2.4、听辨偏误率无规律

各个学习阶段呈现出无规律的偏误的辅音对有b[p]-p[p']和h[x]-g[k]。在针对性听辨b和p时，当b[p]前置时，1年学习者的偏误率为0，2年学习者的偏误率为3%，3年学习者的偏误率为14%，3年以上学习者的偏误率为0。而当b[p]后置时，1年学习者的偏误率为9%，2年学习者的偏误率为8%，3年学习者的偏误率为7%，3年以上学习者的偏误率为0；在针对性听辨h[x]-g[k]时，当h[x]前置时，1年学习者的偏误率为9%，3年学习者的偏误率为7%，而2年和3年以上的学习者都没有偏误。当h[x]后置时，1年和2年学习者的偏误率都为3%，3年及3年以上学习者的偏误率都为0。无规律听辨测试结果证明，学习者之间存在个体差异性。针对语言学习中的个体差异化，教师可以根据学习者的具体语言问题提供个性化的纠错，促使每位学习者都能够更有效地习得语言。

5.3教师反馈

在对学习者进行自测和听辨测试后，为多角度了解匈牙利汉语学习者发音的情况及认知，针对学习者面临的困难，我们也从教师角度进行了进一步的调查，调查重点放在各个阶级都相对较难掌握的辅音有10个j[te]、q[te']、x[c]、z[ts]、c[ts']、s[s]、zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂ']、sh[ʂ]、r[z]上。这项调查共有36位在匈牙利从事中文教学的教师参与，主要以母语教师为主，占89%，而本土教师占9%。此外，64%的教师在中文教学领域拥有3年以上的教学经验，是一支经验丰富的教育队伍。本项调查旨在详细分析教师的教学特征以及在发音教学方面的观点和实践。

教师调查结果显示大多数教师在元音、辅音和声调的教学上有相对均衡的时间分配，没有明显的偏好。在元音教学中，56%的教师时间

分配相对均衡,而在辅音教学中,75%的教师也有相对均衡的时间分配。这表明教师们在整体上注重对元音、辅音和声调的平衡教学,没有过度强调某一方面。然而,有一小部分教师在辅音教学上表现出相对较高的关注,分配了40%以上的时间。这可能反映了教师对学习者在特定辅音发音方面可能遇到的挑战有更深刻的认识,因此他们致力于更多的时间来帮助学习者克服这些难点。匈牙利汉语学习者发音难度自测结果显示匈牙利汉语学习者面临最大的发音问题是在j[tc]、q[tc']、x[ç]的发音上,占比高达80.6%。这与教师在辅音教学中关注的j[tc]、q[tc']、x[ç]的情况相吻合。因此,教师们的关注点与学习者的实际发音难点是一致的,说明教师的教学重点与学习者的学习需求相符。此外,学习者在自测中对j[tc]、q[tc']、x[ç]的难度系数占比相对较高,表明学习者对这些辅音发音的自信度较低,认识到这些辅音发音存在一定难度。这也印证了教师对于这三个辅音发音问题的关注是有充分理由的,因为学习者在这几个音的发音上确实面临着巨大的挑战。

六、论证假设

论证假设一,即匈牙利汉语学习者在听辨汉语辅音的送气与不送气差异时可能出现偏误,涵盖辅音对有b[p]-p[p']、d[t]-t[t']、g[k]-k[k']、z[ts]-c[ts']、zh[tʂ]-ch[tʂ']、j[tc]-q[tc']。从听辨结果看,在各个学习阶段,无论k[k']和j[tc]前置还是后置,其偏误率都较高,同时也是所有辅音中听辨偏误率最高的。k[k']的听辨偏误率逐渐下降,与学习时长的增加呈现出一致的趋势,这与学习者自我认知中k[k']的发音难度逐渐降低的趋势相符。这可能意味着学习者在学习k[k']的过程中,能够更准确地辨别这个辅音,并且随着学习时长的增加,逐渐掌握了发音的技巧。当j[tc]前置时其偏误率趋势是随学习时长的增加而升高。其发音难度自我认知的结果呈现出较难掌握的趋势,这相互印证表明学习者在j[tc]的发音上仍然存在相当大的难点,并且这一难点不随着学习时长的增加而减轻。

当c[ts']前置时,每个阶段的学习者都存在偏误,不过其偏误率随学习时长的增加而减少;当d[t]前置时,只有3年以上的学习者没有偏误,而1年、2年和3年学习者的偏误率相对较高,不过呈现出随学习时长的增加偏误率减少的趋势。这种情况反映了语言学习中的一个重要现象,即学习者在面对新的语音现象或语法规则时可能会出现一定程度的偏误,但随着学习时长的增加,这些偏误通常会逐渐减少。“根据语音学习模型理论,在学习的初始阶段,学习者可能会将目标语音识

别为与母语相似的音。然而，随着学习者在学习过程中经验的积累，他们逐渐能够辨别出一些目标语音与母语相似音之间的语音差异。”⁶ 时表明，通过反复练习，学习者可以逐渐建立对目标语音的正确认知，并随着时间的推移不断提高语音辨别的准确性。这个结果强调了系统性、有计划的语音教学对学习者的语音习得的重要性。值得强调的是，当d[t]后置时，无论哪个阶段的学习者偏误率都为0。在汉语中，韵母和辅音之间存在协同作用。“前音节末尾韵母部分的差异、和后音节开头辅音发音部位的差异，都会引起对音节知觉的变化。”⁷ 因此推断，当d[t]后置时，前一个字的韵母可能对学习者更清晰地呈现d[t]的特征，有助于学习者更容易辨别d[t]和[tʰ]的差异。韵母的协同作用提供了额外的语音信息，帮助学习者更准确地感知辅音的发音；无论zh[tʂ]前置还是后置时，偏误率都相对较低，说明zh[tʂ]的听辨对于学习者并不是个大问题，随着学习时间的增加是可以准确辨识的。由此可见，匈牙利学习者并非无法听辨送气音与不送气音，只是k[kʰ]和j[tɕ]的听辨是匈牙利汉语学习者的难点。笔者认为，需要更为详尽全面的实验来测定出现其影响声音准确辨识的原因。

论证假设二，即匈牙利汉语学习者在区分汉语辅音的清音和浊音时可能会面临困难，这包括辅音对：sh[s]-r[z]、m[m]-f[f]。从听辨测试结果可以看出，匈牙利学习者在听辨sh[s]-r[z]组和f m[m]-f[f]组时，在任何学习阶段和情况下都表现得非常出色，没有出现听辨偏误。可以得出结论，对于匈牙利汉语学习者而言，听辨清音和浊音并非难点。这可能与匈牙利语中也有相似的清音和浊音的区别有关，因此对于匈牙利学习者来说能更加敏感于清音和浊音的声学特征。这种相似性使得学习者更容易捕捉到并区别出汉语中相似的语音特征。语音相似性是语音学习中影响发音水平的重要影响因素之一，母语与目标语之间的相似性可以促进学习者更快地掌握目标语的语音系统。同时，了解学习者母语中的语音特点，也有助于教师设计更有针对性的教学策略，帮助学习者更好地适应目标语言的语音系统。

论证假设三，当匈牙利汉语学习者在听辨具有相同发音位置但不同发音方式的辅音时，可能会出现偏误，这包括软腭音组h[x]-g[k]（清音-不送气音）、k[kʰ]-h[x]（送气音-清音）、k[kʰ]-g[k]（送气音-不送气音）；硬腭音组x[ç]-q[tɕʰ]（清音-送气音）、x[ç]-j[tɕ]（清音-不送气音）、j[tɕ]-q[tɕʰ]（不送气音-送气音）；齿龈音组c[tʂʰ]-z[tʂ]（送气音-不送气音）、s[s]-z[tʂ]（清音-不送气音）、c[tʂʰ]-s[s]（送气-清音）。

⁶ Flege J E. 1995:263.

⁷ 周迅溢, 王蓓, 杨玉芳, 等. 2003: 344.

首先, 我们看软腭音的三组辅音, 在听辨结果中, 这三组偏误率最高的是 $k[k^{\prime}]-h[x]$, 其余组合出现的偏误率没有或极低。由此可见, 软腭音组的 $k[k^{\prime}]$ 和 x 对于匈牙利学习者而言是有一定的学习难度的。如前文所述, $k[k^{\prime}]-h[x]$ 在发音位置相似, 但是发音方式却有所不同, $k[k^{\prime}]$ 为送气清音, $h[x]$ 为清擦音。由此推断, 在发音位置相似度较高但发音方式有区别的情况下, 学习者可能在语音知觉上产生混淆, 增加了偏误率。硬腭音组, $x[\epsilon]-q[te^{\prime}]$ 组在任何一个学习阶段的学习者都没有出现听辨错误。 $x[\epsilon]-j[te^{\prime}]$ 组, 当 $x[\epsilon]$ 前置时, 学习了1年汉语的学习者偏误率为3%, 其余学习阶段的学习者都没有错误。在听辨 $s[s]-z[ts]$ 、 $c[ts^{\prime}]-s[s]$ 这两组辅音时, 任何情况和学习阶段的学习者都没有出现听辨错误。不过, 当 $c[ts^{\prime}]-z[ts]$ 组合时, 当 $c[ts^{\prime}]$ 前置时, 每个阶段的学习者都有偏误且偏误率较高, 但偏误率随学习时间的增加而降低的趋势。因此我们可以推断, 当学习者感知齿龈音时, 如果汉语辅音发音方式对立(送气与不送气对立)时会干扰学习者对语音的感知听。

最后, 论证假设四, 即匈牙利汉语学习者在区分平舌音和卷舌音时可能会遇到困难, 这包括辅音对: $z[ts]-zh[tʂ]$ 、 $ch[tʂ^{\prime}]-c[ts^{\prime}]$ 、 $s[s]-sh[ʂ]$ 。从测试结果来看, 虽然匈牙利语中并没有平舌音和卷舌音之分, 但是在听辨这组辅音时并没有出现过多的偏误, 即便有偏误也多出现于初级阶段的学习者, 且偏误率极低。因此判断平翘舌音的听辨并不是匈牙利汉语学习者的难点, 也相信随着学习时间的增加, 学习者会克服平翘舌音的辨识问题。在语言学习和语音知觉领域, 有一些研究可以解释为什么目标语与母语有明显的区别时并不会造成学习者很好的掌握目标语。即当目标语言的发音与学习者母语的发音差异越大时, 学习者在听辨上可能更容易。这一观点在Flege, J. E. (1995)的研究已得到验证, 当学习者遇到与其母语差异较大的语音特征时, 这些特征在听觉上更为突出, 因此更容易引起学习者的注意。在语音知觉中, 注意力的集中使学习者更能意识到目标语言中的语音差异, 从而有助于他们在听辨上取得更好的表现。匈牙利学习者面对平翘舌音这一与母语差异较大的语音特征时, 可能正经历着差异加强效应的过程。这种现象可能促使学习者更加关注和敏感于这一特定发音, 进而在学习过程中更积极地纠正和适应。因此, 尽管在初学阶段可能存在一些听辨上的困难, 但随着学习时间的推移, 学习者可能会更加熟练地辨别和产生平翘舌音, 最终取得更好的语音掌握。

通过以上的假设, 我们可以得出结论, 对匈牙利汉语学习者听辨能力产生主要影响的可能是那些在发音位置相似但发音方式不同的音, 例如: $k[k^{\prime}]$ 、 $h[x]$ 、 $j[te^{\prime}]$ 、 $c[ts^{\prime}]$ 。这表明这些音的发音特征之间高度的相似性可能会对学习者在听辨中造成一定的混淆, 需要在语音学习

过程中特别关注。在解决这些音的学习问题上，有必要通过有针对性的练习和系统性的学习来强调这些音的区别，以提高学习者对于这些相似音的准确感知能力。

七、教学建议

综上所述，从学习者自我测试结果来看，j[tc]、q[tc']、zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂ']、sh[ʂ]这几个音的语音学习难度最大；而教师反馈中指出，学习者最难掌握的是j[tc]、q[tc']、x[ç]这三个音的发音；另外，听辨结果显示学习者在感知k[k']、h[x]、j[tc]、c[ts']这几个音时容易出现偏误。鉴于这些发现，本文专注于汉语辅音j[tc]、q[tc']、x[ç]、k[k']、h[x]、c[ts']、zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂ']、sh[ʂ]的对比，探讨汉语与匈牙利语发音特征的异同，并提供相应的教学建议。

汉语中的辅音j[tc]是硬腭不送气清塞擦音，而匈牙利语中的辅音j[tc]发音与汉语完全不同。“在匈牙利语中，/j/ 大多数情况下被视为颚音近音。然而，当它出现在词尾并紧跟其他辅音时，它则表现为一个颚音擦音。”⁸ 在匈牙利语中，辅音q[tc']并不是匈牙利语字母表的一部分，在匈牙利语中，你通常不会看到或听到辅音q[tc']。其发音也与汉语完全不同。匈牙利语辅音字母x的发音与汉语也完全不同。通常情况下，字母x[ks]发音需两个音素 /k/和/s/组合而成。但在汉语中，x[ç]是硬腭音。发音时，舌头的前部接触硬腭，并产生摩擦，形成这个音。因此，教授这三个汉语发音与匈牙利语发音区别较明显的音时，教师应详细解释其发音部位和方式，并提供清晰的口型示范。随着学习者练习的频次增加，他们可以逐渐掌握发音技巧。

辅音k[k']，在汉语和匈牙利语中均为软腭音。但在汉语中为送气清音，匈牙利语中为不送气清音。教授辅音k[k']时，教师可通过清晰的发音示范，让学习者清晰感知软腭的位置。引导学习中感知气流，强调送气音和不送气音的发音时的气流差异。送气音伴随着一定的气流，而不送气音则相对较弱。学习者也可以通过手掌或纸片感知发音时的气流强度。

辅音h[x]汉语中为软腭后擦音，匈牙利语中为声门喉摩擦音。在教授过程中可以强调软腭后擦音和声门喉摩擦音在喉咙位置的差异。软腭后擦音涉及软腭的摩擦，而声门喉摩擦音涉及声带的摩擦。学习者

⁸ Blaho S. 2003: 18.

可以通过手指轻轻摸喉咙部位,感知软腭后擦音和声门喉摩擦音时的振动差异。软腭后擦音可能伴随着软腭的振动,而声门喉摩擦音则伴随着声带的振动。

汉语中的辅音c[tsʰ]为送气齿龈清塞擦音,而匈牙利语中为软腭清塞音。教授时可使用口型示范和示意图,让学习者能够直观地了解发音部位,特别是在齿龈和软腭之间的差异,并通过不同语境的练习提高对该音的敏感度。

如前文所示,在汉语中zh[tʂ]、ch[tʂʰ]、sh[ʂ]是卷舌音,发音时舌尖向后卷曲并与硬腭(齿龈)接触,阻碍气流而形成。而匈牙利语中类似的发音有辅音dzs[dʒ]、cs[tʃ]、s[ʃ],不过它们的发音器官和方式却有差异,dzs[dʒ]和cs[tʃ]龈后塞擦音在发音时舌头的位置介于齿龈后并在齿龈区域形成阻塞的音,而s[ʃ]是龈后擦音,发音时舌头位置介于龈音和硬腭音之间,通过舌头与齿龈的摩擦产生声音。在教授这三个卷舌音时,首先强调它们之间的发音器官和方式的差异,让学习者能够意识到关键的区别。然后提供清晰的口型示范,展示卷舌音的正确发音方式。特别强调舌尖向后卷曲并与硬腭(齿龈)接触的位置。通过面对面的示范,让学习者能够清晰地观察发音动作。

值得注意的是,随着计算机技术的发展和进步,多媒体教学也取得了新的突破。教师们不再仅仅依赖视频和语音等传统教学方式。不少研究证实,实验语音学提供了许多宝贵的启示,促使教师们开始使用一些实验语音学中的研究软件进行教学,例如Praat⁹。作为一款先进的语音实验软件,Praat在实验语音学领域中被广泛使用,深受学者们的青睐。其基本功能包括对语音信号的标注和分析,用户可以录制或导入音频文件,并通过该软件生成各种语音图谱,从而计算出诸如时长、谱重心、分散程度及共振峰频率等参数。这些功能使Praat在语音辅助教学、语音纠错和自主学习中展现出显著的优势。Chun (2012)评估了语音分析软件Praat在汉语教学中的效果。结果显示,Praat通过可视化音高曲线帮助学习者显著提升了声调发音的准确性。训练后,学习者的声调错误减少了近50%。Mengtian Chen (2022)研究了Praat软件在中文声调教学中的效果。结果显示,使用Praat的数据反馈显著提高了学习者的声调感知和发音准确性,比传统反馈方法效果更佳。学习者偏好通过Praat进行的自我纠正和声调轮廓对比,证明了该软件在外语教学中的重要应用价值。

⁹ Praat语音学软件(原名Praat:doing phonetics by computer),是一款由荷兰阿姆斯特丹大学人文学院语音科学研究所的主席保罗·博尔斯马Paul Boersma教授和大卫·威宁克(David Weenink)助教授合作开发的跨平台多功能语音学专业软件。

笔者认为,在辅音教学时,通过Praat观察辅音的摩擦时长、闭塞段时长、谱中心、分散程度以及嗓音起始时间等参数是有效的语音教学和纠错方法。例如,通过分散程度和谱重心,我们可以判断发音时发音器官的开口度和发音部位是否需要调整。有研究表明,“频域上的分散程度反映了发音时摩擦缝隙的大小。通常情况下,摩擦缝隙越大,能量在频域上的分散程度也越大。同时,较大的摩擦缝隙使气流的呼出特性在时间上更加不稳定,容易产生波动。”¹⁰谱重心的大小通常反映了发音过程中能量分布的集中程度。谱重心越高,意味着声音的能量主要集中在较高的频率范围,通常与较前位置的发音部位或较窄的发音缝隙相关,反之亦然。摩擦时长指气流通过狭窄发音通道产生摩擦的持续时间;闭塞段时长则是指气流被完全阻塞的时间。因此,通过调整发音时间的长短,可以达到纠错的目的。为了更有效地应用这一方法,还需要对匈牙利汉语学习者的辅音发音特征进行详细的声学参数收集和整理,从而提供科学的纠错建议。这一过程涉及大量的数据处理工作,笔者目前正在进行统计,期待尽快与大家分享研究成果。

总的来说,对于那些发音方式相同但发音位置微妙不同的音,我们运用口腔形状示意图展示这些差异。同时,通过口型示范,协助学习者理解发音时口腔器官的差异动作,确保学习者清晰了解发音时口腔器官的准确位置,这在生理上有助于学习者更迅速地掌握发音技巧。而在涉及发音位置相似但发音方式不同的音时,我们使用Praat等可视化语音软件进行辅助,以帮助学习者感知不同发音方式的特征。

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¹⁰ 冉启斌2008:162.

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附录：听辨测试

Név姓名:

Szakirány专业:

Milyen régóta tanulsz kínaiul? 学习汉语的时间多长了? _____

听录音，圈出你听到的拼音。				
listen to the pronunciation and circle the <i>Pinyin</i> which you heard.				
#	拼音① <i>Pinyin</i> ①		拼音② <i>Pinyin</i> ②	
1	bùkān	<input type="checkbox"/>	pùkān	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	fǎjiù	<input type="checkbox"/>	mǎjiù	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	fǒurèn	<input type="checkbox"/>	hǒurèn	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	dàibǔ	<input type="checkbox"/>	tàibǔ	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	lóngbāo	<input type="checkbox"/>	nóngbāo	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	huóli	<input type="checkbox"/>	guóli	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	gòngshù	<input type="checkbox"/>	kòngshù	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	kuīqiàn	<input type="checkbox"/>	huīqiàn	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	kōngjūn	<input type="checkbox"/>	gōngjūn	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	jiāodài	<input type="checkbox"/>	qiāodài	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	xíyì	<input type="checkbox"/>	qíyì	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	xízhǐ	<input type="checkbox"/>	jízhǐ	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	zōngguī	<input type="checkbox"/>	zhōngguī	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	zhēnghūn	<input type="checkbox"/>	chēnghūn	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	chuàngbàn	<input type="checkbox"/>	cuàngbàn	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	sìli	<input type="checkbox"/>	shìli	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	shǔyú	<input type="checkbox"/>	rǔyú	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	sóngyù	<input type="checkbox"/>	róngyù	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	càntàn	<input type="checkbox"/>	zàntàn	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	sāoyù	<input type="checkbox"/>	zāoyù	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	cǎilù	<input type="checkbox"/>	sǎilù	<input type="checkbox"/>

22	fēngpào	<input type="checkbox"/>	fēngbào	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	mángfù	<input type="checkbox"/>	mángmù	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	mófàn	<input type="checkbox"/>	móhàn	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	fúdú	<input type="checkbox"/>	fútú	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	yiliàn	<input type="checkbox"/>	yiniàn	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	jūnguān	<input type="checkbox"/>	jūnhuān	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	jiékòu	<input type="checkbox"/>	jiégòu	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	yǎnkàng	<input type="checkbox"/>	yǎnhuàng	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	wéigàng	<input type="checkbox"/>	wéikàng	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	mìqué	<input type="checkbox"/>	mìjué	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	jīngqí	<input type="checkbox"/>	jīngxí	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	tǐqì	<input type="checkbox"/>	tǐxì	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	zhuǎnzhé	<input type="checkbox"/>	zhuǎnzé	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	zuòchèng	<input type="checkbox"/>	zuòzhèng	<input type="checkbox"/>
36	tíchàng	<input type="checkbox"/>	tícàng	<input type="checkbox"/>
37	tǎnshuài	<input type="checkbox"/>	tǎnsuài	<input type="checkbox"/>
38	tōngshāng	<input type="checkbox"/>	tōngrǎng	<input type="checkbox"/>
39	jīnsóng	<input type="checkbox"/>	jīnróng	<input type="checkbox"/>
40	qiāncé	<input type="checkbox"/>	qiǎnzé	<input type="checkbox"/>
41	sòngsàng	<input type="checkbox"/>	sòngzàng	<input type="checkbox"/>
42	tuīsè	<input type="checkbox"/>	tuīcè	<input type="checkbox"/>

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Exploring Demotivating Factors at Different Stages of Learning Chinese as a Second Language: A Case Study of European Adult Learners

Abstract

Demotivation has emerged as a significant issue in second language learning, leading learners to pause, slow down, or even abandon their studies. In L2 Chinese education, numerous empirical studies have focused on motivating factors, but few have explored demotivation, particularly among informal adult learners. Despite that their motivational changes could offer valuable insights into language education, this group has not received sufficient attention from researchers. Drawing on Van den Branden's (2022) integrated language learning motivation model, this study reports a qualitative analysis of demotivating factors based on interviews with three European adult Chinese learners at primary, intermediate, and advanced levels. The findings reveal that dominant demotivating factors varied across different stages of learning, and the impact of co-existing demotivating factors shifted throughout the process. Demotivating factors emerged intensively in the stage when L2 Chinese learners mastered the basics and began applying the language in real-life contexts. When these negative factors were not addressed in a timely manner, they significantly diminished motivation; conversely, timely intervention mitigated their impact. The study also found that demotivating factors often originate from the negative development of motivating factors, with negative perceptions of success and value being the most influential. However, these factors do not necessarily lead to demotivation or abandonment of learning. Finally, a revised multi-level language learning motivation model is proposed, positioning demotivation and motivation on a continuum.

Keywords: motivation, demotivating factors, Chinese as a second language, adult learners, Europe

徐梓涵

探究汉语二语学习不同阶段中的动机削弱因素—— —欧洲成人学习者案例分析

摘要

动机削弱已成为阻碍二语学习者进步的关键因素之一，常导致其学习停滞、放缓乃至彻底放弃。尽管在汉语作为第二语言的教育研究中，众多实证研究聚焦于动机激励因素，但对于动机削弱，特别是对非正式成人学习者的学习倦怠情况的探究却显不足。尽管这一群体的动机波动特点能为语言教学提供宝贵见解，却未得到学界的充分重视。本研究基于Van den Branden (2022) 提出的整合语言学习动机模型，对三名分别处于初级、中级和高级水平的欧洲成人汉语学习者进行访谈并进行定性分析，旨在探讨动机削弱的成因。结果发现，不同阶段的主导动机削弱因素各异，且共存动机削弱因素在学习过程中的影响也呈动态变化。动机削弱因素密集出现在汉语二语学习者掌握基础后并开始尝试在实际生活中运用的阶段。这些消极因素若未得到及时处理，将严重削弱学习动机；相反，适时干预能有效减轻其负面影响。此外，本研究也发现动机削弱往往源于原激励因素的消极演变，其中对成功感和价值感的负面认知最为关键，但并非必然导致动机消退或彻底终止。最后，本文提出了一个修订后的多层次语言学习动机模型，将动机削弱与动机激励置于一个连续体上。

关键字：动机，动机削弱因素，汉语作为第二语言，成人学习者，欧洲

Introduction and literature review

1. Motivation and motivation models

Motivation is one of the most significant predictors of language learning success. There have been multiple motivation models for second or foreign language learning based on studies on learning English and other alphabetic languages. Many of these take the social psychological perspective, such as Gardner's social-educational model, which distinguished the integrative and

instrumental motivation.¹ Dornyei (1994) outlined a three-level L2 classroom motivation construct consisting of the language level, learner level, and learning situation level. Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory distinguished six types of motivation along a continuum system from amotivation to intrinsic motivation. There are other theories focused on various aspects of learners' psychological engagement and learning contexts. Van den Branden (2022) further summarised an integrated language learning motivation model based on prior work.² In his model, success, value, and autonomy are the core factors influencing motivation in a specific context.

2. Demotivation and demotivating factors

As many scholars have emphasised, motivation is complex, multidimensional, and dynamic. However, a reduction in motivation has emerged as a significant factor that can cause learners to pause, slow down, or even terminate their language learning. This reduction in motivation is often referred to as 'demotivation' by some scholars. For example, Zhang (2020) reviewed previous literature on the concept of 'demotivation' and defined it as 'the collective force of all the factors perceived to negatively influence learners' motivation'. According to Zhang, the effect of 'demotivation' is 'demotivating', and the factors that are perceived negatively are termed 'demotivating factors'. The definitions of these terms are used in the present study.

As Chinese is an unfamiliar language to most native speakers of European languages, the factors influencing their motivation may differ from those relevant to learning Indo-European languages. Although there have been numerous empirical studies focused on motivating factors in L2 Chinese learning, fewer scholars have explored the concept of demotivation. The limited existing research has shed some light on this topic. Given the linguistic differences, it has often been assumed that Chinese characters would pose the greatest challenge for native speakers of Indo-European languages. However, a survey by Zhang and Wang (2016) of Irish university students found that this linguistic difficulty was not necessarily a demotivating factor. This

¹ Gardner 1985: 145.

² Van den Branden 2022: 69.

finding suggests that perceived negative factors do not always lead to a reduction or loss of motivation, highlighting the complex nature of motivation.

Campbell and Storch (2011) found that the most dominant demotivating aspects are related to the learning environment, such as the difficulty of coursework and institutional changes. Other studies have shown that external factors, including teachers and their teaching methods, peers, tasks, and examinations, play an important role in influencing motivation (Pretty, 2019; Zheng et al., 2023). However, these studies did not explore the influence of these external factors on learners' internal states. Zhang (2020) further explored the link between different variables and learners' psychology, identifying six main demotivating factors ranked in order: reduced self-confidence, teachers, course design, negative ideal L2 self, negative ought-to self, and influence of another language.

While most existing studies have focused on learners in formal language classes (Campbell & Storch, 2011; Zhang & Wang, 2016; Pretty, 2019; Zheng et al., 2023), informal adult learners have not received adequate attention from researchers. Data from this group can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the nature of motivation in second language learning, which is the primary focus of the present study.

3. The present study

The present study aims to explore the factors that potentially weaken European adults' motivation in learning L2 Chinese and how these factors evolve over time, using Van den Branden's (2022) integrated language learning motivation model. In this context, the term 'L2 Chinese' refers to the Chinese language being learned by a learner after the first language. The main research questions are formulated as follows:

- RQ 1: What are the main demotivating factors for European adult learners in learning Chinese as a second language?
- RQ 2: How do these demotivating factors evolve at different stages of learning?
- RQ 3: To what extent can the 'motivation model' explain the weakening of their motivation?

Methodology

1. Participants

Three adult L2 Chinese learners from Germany (P1), Poland (P2), and Belgium (P3) were invited to participate in the study, representing elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels of proficiency. Participants were selected based on their personal backgrounds, Chinese proficiency, and learning experiences.

The first participant, from Germany, began learning Chinese out of interest and for travel purposes after a trip to China. He primarily studied through one-on-one online tutoring and self-learning. Although his learning period spanned three years, he took a one-year break and has maintained only a primary level of Chinese. The second participant, from Poland, studied Chinese for eight years while earning her bachelor's and master's degrees, primarily for professional purposes. She has reached an advanced level of proficiency in Chinese. The third participant, from Belgium, began studying Chinese during the COVID-19 quarantine in 2020 as a hobby and progressed to an intermediate level within three years. The first and third participants' professions are unrelated to the Chinese language, while the second participant works closely with it. While P2 received formal language education, the other two participants relied heavily on informal instruction and self-regulated learning. Details about the participants are presented in Table 1.

	L1	Gender	Age	Profession	Chinese Level	Learning Period
P1	German	Male	50+	Information technology	A2	2020–2023
P2	Polish	Female	25+	Chinese teacher/translator	C2	2015–2023
P3	Dutch	Male	30+	Enterprise resource planning consultant	B2	2020–2023

Table 1. Summary of participant profiles

2. Data collection method

A one-time, audio-recorded, semi-structured interview was conducted with each participant. The interviews with P1 and P2 were arranged online, while the interview with P3 was conducted in person. Prior to the interview, all

participants received an electronic leaflet that provided a simplified explanation of the interview's purpose, key topics, and main questions to be discussed (see Appendix). They were also asked to draw several simple line graphs in advance, representing their overall motivation and levels of several key factors from Van den Branden's (2022) language learning motivation model.

During the interview, the researcher began by restating the purpose of the study to the interviewee. The interview was divided into two parts. In the first part, the researcher invited participants to share their overall L2 Chinese learning experiences and the changes in their motivation over time. The second part focused on discussing how participants' motivation related to the motivation model, addressing key factors, such as success, value, autonomy, and environment. Each part began with broad questions about their overall motivation and then moved to how these factors explained their discouraging moments. Participants were also encouraged to provide additional information that did not fit within the model and to offer their feedback on the model at the end.

All interviews were audio-recorded with the formal consent of the participants and subsequently transcribed into text documents. After several close readings of the transcripts to identify the main demotivating moments for each participant, NVivo (version 14) was used for thematic coding and further analysis.

Data analysis

1. Thematic coding and analysis

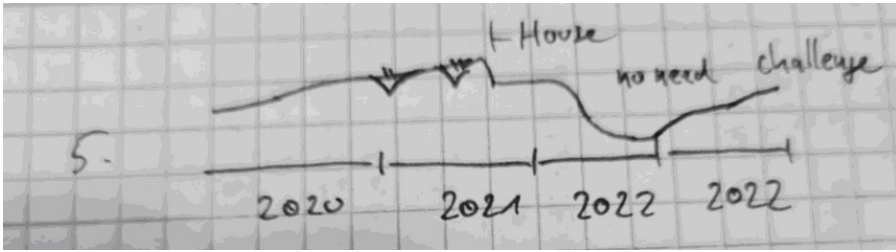
This study used NVivo (version 14) for qualitative analysis, coding the main themes related to motivation in the transcripts of the three interviews. The interviews were structured around Van den Branden's (2022) integrated language learning motivation model to assess its applicability, with thematic codes applied based on this model. Given the focus of the study on factors that weaken motivation, the quotes were sub-categorised into 'positive' and 'negative' factors. Here 'positive' refers to relatively favourable conditions, while 'negative' denotes relatively unfavourable conditions as perceived by the participants. The coding themes and example quotes are provided below.

Thematic Category	Positive	Negative
Success	<i>When I do the studies, I felt some success. Only internal factors, right? So I realised some symbols I can really learn fast and I really learn many symbols. And when I started reading, taking these children's books with limited vocabulary and could actually read them. This was fantastic. I had a feeling of so much joy. (P1)</i>	<i>I feel in a small portion of demotivation when I see I'm learning a symbol and after 10 times repeating I still don't know exactly how to draw it. It doesn't happen very often, but there are some samples which really demotivate me. (P1)</i>
Value	<i>And he told me, yeah, China is kind of prosperous and you learn Chinese. I think the economy is like growing. So if you learn Chinese, I think there will be a lot of job opportunities. (P2)</i>	<i>So I thought that I have to study a little bit more to keep my training on a certain level and get a nice job, but it didn't happen this way. The job wasn't easy to find and wasn't that good. It helped. So I think that's when my motivation dropped down and I don't think it will go up from that time. (P2)</i>
Autonomy	<i>For me, there is no external force to make me learn Chinese. It's just from inside own interest. So I have all the autonomy and I want. I want to keep it. (P1)</i>	<i>But also like having no autonomy wouldn't be good, because I think I would feel frustrated because I'm also an experienced language learner. I'm a teacher and there are some things that need more than some things I'm not interested in, so yeah. (P2)</i>
Environment	<i>So we were also challenging each other a bit that there was some competition going on at some point, using the blackboard also to practice writing, so it's a different kind of atmosphere. (P3)</i>	<i>I don't have a Chinese friend, I don't have Chinese colleagues. I don't use it in every day. (P1) And then I had a break because in just August 2021 I bought this house. And then I made a break until July. (P1)</i>

Table 2. Thematic framework used to code interview transcripts and examples

2. Overall motivation changes and demotivating factors at different stages

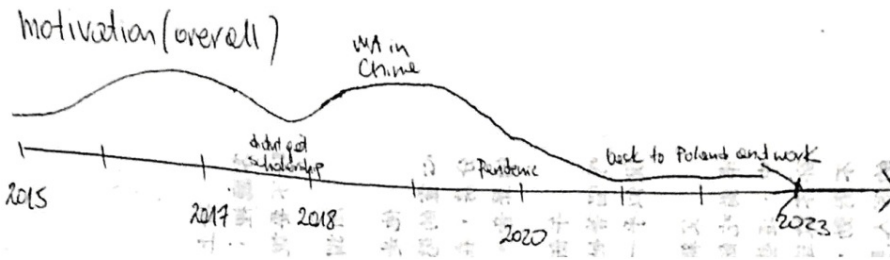
By combining data from the hand-drawn graphs created by the participants with the interview transcripts, it became evident that motivation levels and instances of demotivation varied significantly among the three participants. Therefore, the key demotivating moments at different language proficiency levels are presented individually for each participant.



Graph 1: P1's overall motivation curve

Factors	0-A1	A1	A1-A2
Chinese characters	Forgot easily after repeating many times (light)	Struggled with characters in real contexts, abundance of characters and differences of traditional/simplified, printed hand-written versions (medium); Found the learning method wrong (strong)	Found proper reading materials such as children's books (medium)
Listening and speaking	Did not concentrate too much (light)	Struggled with listening and speaking (medium); Saw the slight chance of making progress (strong)	Found new learning method (light)
Evaluation of value	light	Decreased of possibility of using Chinese in daily life and traveling due to lock-downs (strong)	Possible to travel to China again (light)
Language environment	light	Struggled to find contexts to use Chinese (medium)	Found new language partners (light)
Negative political view about China	light	light	light
Time	light	Bought a house; needed to take care of family (strong)	Got more free time (light)
Learning resources	light	Far away from off-line classes (light)	light

Table 3. Demotivating factors in P1's learning stages

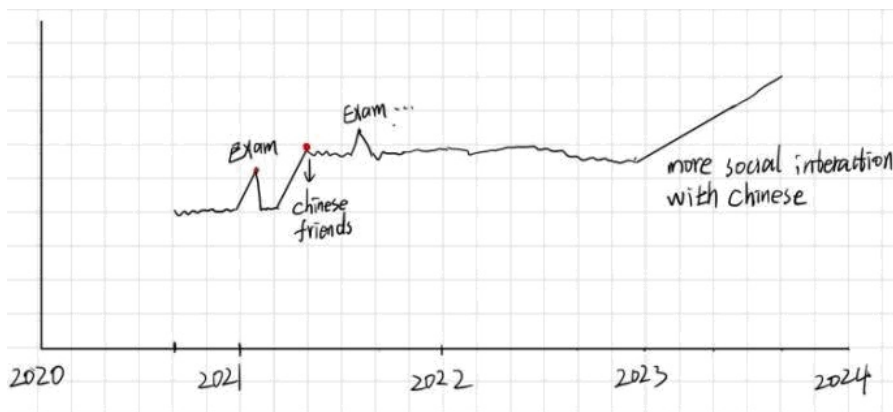


Graph 2. P2's overall motivation curve

Factors	0-B1	B1-C1	C1-C2
Rewards and utility	Failed to obtain scholarship to study in China at the end of bachelor's (strong)	Obtained a different scholarship (N/A)	Failed to find a satisfying job related to Chinese (strong)
Evaluation of value	Decreased possibility of studying in China (strong)	Increased value of Chinese in helping find a job (light)	Decreased possibility of finding a relevant good job (strong)
Autonomy	Low autonomy (light)	Disliked some teachers' teaching methods (medium)	Felt tired of having to use Chinese; not motivated to improve (light)
Life situation	N/A	Lock-downs during COVID-19 pandemic while studying in China (medium)	N/A
Language environment	Lack of language environment (medium)	Found it difficult to use Chinese in contexts beyond daily life (medium)	light
Personal experience with native speakers	Lack of language partners (medium)	Struggled to make close Chinese friends (medium)	Negative experiences with Chinese bosses (strong)
Resources	Struggled to find proper learning materials (medium)	Obtained rich resources while studying in China (N/A)	light
Study environment	N/A	Interruption from roommate (medium)	N/A

Table 4. Demotivating factors in P2's learning stages

Unfortunately, P3 did not draw his overall motivation line. However, according to his description during the interview, the author produced a rough line graph to represent the motivation changes.



Graph 3. P3's overall motivation curve

Factors	0–A2	A2–B1	B1–B2
Study partners	N/A	Demotivated classmates (medium)	Found other study partners (light)
Chinese characters	Struggled with learning Chinese characters (strong)	Chinese characters (medium)	Realised it is sufficient to just type and recognise (light)
Listening and speaking	Did not concentrate much (light)	Focus shifted from characters to this part; realised the differences between dialects and standard accent (strong)	Found more efficient learning methods and resources, but still struggled with real-life conversations and understanding music and videos; feedback from others (medium)
Teacher	N/A	Not used to the approaches of the new teacher at the beginning (light)	Appreciated the new teacher (N/A)
Exams	Felt less motivated after each exams (light)	Did not appreciate the reliability of exams anymore (medium)	Received more reliable exams from China (light)

Table 5. Demotivating factors in P3's learning stages

Results and discussion

1. The main demotivating factors in learning Chinese as a second language

To answer RQ 1, the medium and strong demotivating factors from Tables 3–5 are summarised in Table 6. Note that the three stages are roughly divided by the turning points of the participants' learning curves as discussed in the individual interviews. Stage 1 refers to the very beginning period when the learner's progress grows steadily, stage 2 refers to the stage when the learner reached a certain level according to their own pace and slows down, and stage 3 refers to the latest learning curve of the learner at the time of this study's data collection.

Overall, the most influential demotivating factors identified in the present study of adult L2 Chinese learners differ from those reported by Campbell and Storch (2011) and Pretty (2019), as is discussed in detail below. Their studies found that external factors such as teaching methods, heavy workloads, and exam failures were the dominant sources of demotivation for university students. However, these studies focused solely on current university students and did not consider long-term learning experiences. In contrast, the present study examined learners' memories over three years outside of the formal school context.

	Stage 1			Stage 2			Stage 3		
	P1	P2	P3	P1	P2	P3	P1	P2	P3
Success	Chinese characters; listening and speaking	Lost scholarship	Chinese characters	Chinese characters; listening and speaking; slight chance of making progress	N/A	Chinese characters, differences between dialects and standard accent,	Chinese characters	Failed to find a satisfying job related to Chinese	struggle with real-life speaking and listening
Value	N/A	Decreased possibility of studying in China	N/A	Decreased of possibility of using Chinese in daily life or traveling	N/A	Decreased appreciation of exams	N/A	Decreased possibility of finding a relevant good job	N/A
Environment	N/A	Lack of language environment; language partners; learning materials	N/A	Lack of contexts for using Chinese; interruptions from other commitments	Teaching methods; lack of social interactions and contexts; difficult to make friends; interruption from roommate	Demotivated classmates	N/A	Negative experiences with Chinese bosses	Negative feedback from others

Table 6. Summary of demotivating factors

2. The decisive role of learner’s perception of success and value

The data indicates that the most significant demotivating factors are related to perceptions of success and value. Participants’ motivation was initially driven by their evaluation of value, which was closely followed by their perceptions of past and future success. These two dimensions are highly inter-related and mutually influential, meaning that decline in the perception of success can easily lead to a decrease in the evaluation of value.

Ryan and Deci (2000) distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is driven by inherent satisfaction, while extrinsic motivation is driven by external outcomes. The relative importance of intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation depends on individual purposes for learning the language and is influenced by factors such as personality, profession, age, language environment, and social relationships. For the three adult L2 Chinese learners in this study, the intrinsic value largely originated from their curiosity about the challenges of the Chinese language, particularly Chinese characters, which are markedly different from alphabetic scripts. This fascination dates back to the 16th century, when the Italian missionary Matteo Ricci described Chinese characters as ‘untranslatable images’ (Hosne, 2018). Surprisingly, Chinese characters are considered to be one of the most chal-

lenging aspects for Indo-European language speakers, yet many learners are motivated by the challenge. This reminds us that difficulties cannot be directly inferred as factors that weaken motivation.

Meanwhile, intrinsic value is closely linked to intrinsic success, while extrinsic value corresponds to extrinsic success. For instance, P1 noted that failures in mastering Chinese characters led to a decreased perception of value, while P2's failure to obtain a scholarship diminished her evaluation of the Chinese language. The extrinsic value for participants can be further categorised into social value and utility value, including goals such as making Chinese friends, obtaining scholarships, traveling to China, and finding relevant employment. Persistent and severe failures in these areas can become significant demotivating factors for language learning.

3. The impact of environment

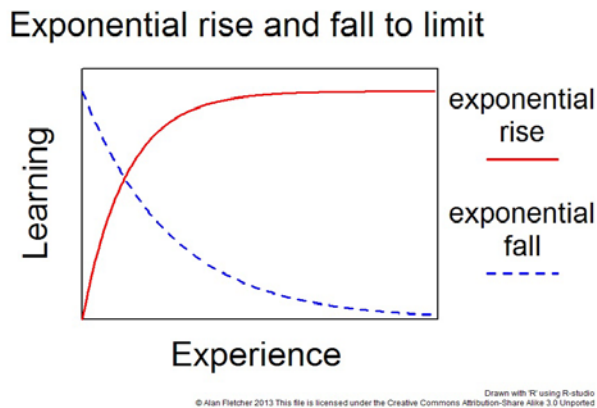
After value and success, the environment is another crucial factor influencing motivation. The term 'environment' encompasses a broad range of elements, including the language environment, physical learning spaces, learning resources, and study partners. Compared to intrinsic factors, it is generally easier for adult learners to address and adapt to negative developments in these external factors. Although some environmental factors, such as a lack of resources and time, can present challenges during the learning process, they are often temporary and adaptable.

For instance, P1 attributed his extended learning disruption to his prioritising other important activities but did not view these factors as demotivating. He resumed learning Chinese once he had more free time. Similarly, P3's study partner lost motivation during the A2–B1 learning stage, but he proactively sought out new study partners to sustain his own motivation.

Finally, while autonomy is widely recognised as a significant factor that enhances motivation, it did not appear to be a major demotivating factor for adult learners. As P3 noted, a high level of autonomy can both enhance and potentially diminish motivation. P1 and P2 also indicated that autonomy did not significantly affect their study experience. Although a loss of autonomy can still be a demotivating factor, mature adult learners, especially those not constrained by degree or certification requirements, tend to maintain a high level of control over their decision to start or stop learning.

4. Demotivating factors at different stages

Van den Branden (2022) summarised three key features of motivation (i.e., the complex, multidimensional, and dynamic), which also applies to demotivation. Demotivating factors show several features. First, it is clear that different dominant demotivating factors appeared throughout the individuals' learning periods, and the weight of co-existing demotivating factors also varied at different stages. Our results show that demotivating factors appeared intensively in the middle and ending learning phases. Only if they could not be remedied timely would they reduce the overall motivation, and vice versa. The middle learning stage witnesses a great deal of difficulties, similar to any other learning activities. Learners' long-term learning development can be explained by Alan Fletcher's smooth learning curve theory (as cited in Zhang, 2020).



Graph 4. Alan Fletcher's smooth long-term learning curve

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Learning_curve#/media/File:Alanf777_Lcd_fig05.png

After the initial stage of discovering a language distinct from one's own native language, an accumulation of perceived problems and slow progress often render learners overwhelmed and decrease their power to combat demotivating factors.

Furthermore, the author found that some demotivating factors are constant while others are temporary. Whether such a factor is constant or temporary depends on the nature of the factor as well as learners' personality and ability to deal with it. For example, in P1's first learning stage, his motivation was

slightly reduced due to failure in remembering the characters even with multiple repetitions, and it continued to decrease when he found that the complexity of the system of Chinese characters far exceeded his previous expectations. His motivation was severely hit when he realised that his learning method was wrong and that he had wasted significant time and effort. However, this issue became milder after he started to gain confidence and satisfaction by reading children's books at an easier language level.

When I do the studies, I felt some success. Only internal factors, right? So I realised some symbols I can really learn fast and I really learn many symbols. And when I started reading, taking these children's books with limited vocabulary and could actually read them. This was fantastic. I had a feeling of so much joy. (P1)

P3 also struggled with Chinese characters at the first stage, but he emphasised that the demotivating influence of characters decreased when he realised that listening and speaking were even more difficult and urgent. In such a case, one's previous enemy (i.e., characters) can become a friend, meaning that a demotivating factor can turn into a motivation-enhancing factor and vice versa.

But these demotivating factors, they change because you find at some point you feel comfortable with characters and instead of seeing that as the most difficult part it becomes ironically the easiest part because you find that at that point. Wow. Like someone speaks to me and I didn't get a thing. (P2)

The force of the same demotivating factor varies from individual to individual due to different personal traits, especially different levels of self-efficacy as explained in Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy refers to one's belief to perform necessary actions to produce designated attainments. While individuals with a high level of self-efficacy engage in activities, exert effort, maintain persistence, and attain achievements, less efficacious learners invest less effort and time in learning activities in the face of difficulties and thus are unsuccessful (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2021). Self-efficacy interacts with related outcomes and other factors in the environment. Therefore, in a dynamic learning period, a mixture of various demotivating factors constantly affects one's motivation.

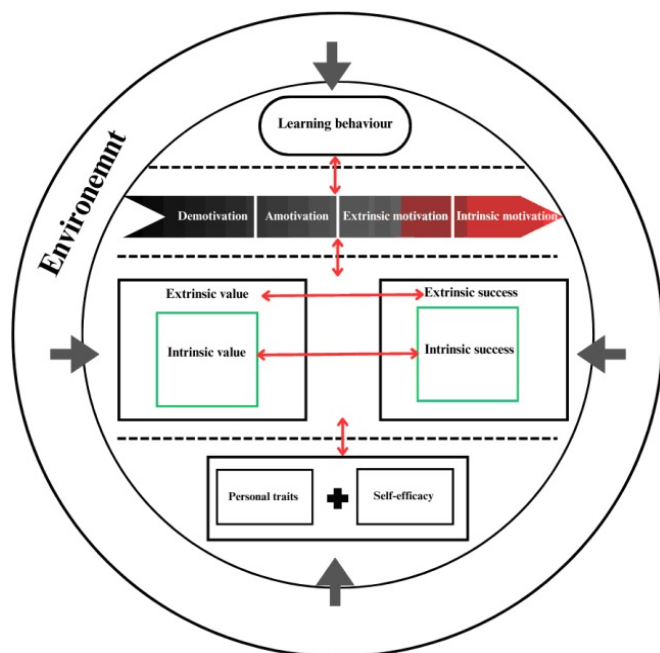
5. Demotivation in L2 learning motivation models

Many language learning motivation models, such as those proposed by Gardner (1985) and Dornyei (1994), are also based on relatively formal classroom settings, where intrinsic motivation can be challenging to sustain (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For adult L2 learners, particularly those for whom the language is not directly relevant to their profession, intrinsic pleasure in learning is crucial. Cronin-Golomb and Bauer (2023) highlighted the importance of exploring self-motivated learning to understand both child and adult learning behaviours.

To fully grasp the motivation mechanisms, it is necessary to consider self-regulated learning and its influencing factors. Cronin-Golomb and Bauer (2023) categorised motivators into situational and personal motivators. Situational motivators include social interaction, problem-solving, and a love of learning, which align closely with Van den Branden's (2022) concepts of 'social value', 'utility value', and 'attainment value'. As Van den Branden emphasised, motivation formation is a process that begins with personal factors such as individual traits and self-efficacy.

The qualitative analysis of this study indicates that most demotivating factors can still be categorised within the components of Van den Branden's (2022) model, as acknowledged by the participants. However, there is room for optimising this model. The discussion highlights the intricate relationship between demotivation and motivation and how both are subject to change.

The findings suggest that personal traits and self-efficacy are the driving forces behind learners' additional language learning behaviours, which in turn shape their perceived value of learning a new language. Value and success operate as secondary motivational drivers, mutually influencing each other. Environmental factors, including resources, learning spaces, and opportunities, along with other contextual factors, create a motivational context that impacts the entire motivation and behaviour system. Furthermore, there is mutual influence across different levels of motivation. The overall level of motivation affects the direction of learning behaviours, whether it be initiating, continuing, or terminating the learning process. We propose a multi-level model to represent this system, which is visually summarised in Graph 5.



Graph 5. A multi-level L2 learning motivation model
Source: designed by the author

The proposed model does not seek to encompass all existing models in the literature but aims to highlight several key concepts for understanding the motivational system of adult L2 learners.

First, motivation arises from various inner traits, such as personality and personal beliefs. As Cronin-Golomb and Bauer (2023) assert, personal traits and beliefs about self-efficacy are powerful drivers of learning behaviour. Second, the overall level of motivation is largely influenced by perceived successes that align with the values that learners attach to their learning activities. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), it is reasonable to view different types of motivation as existing on a continuum. However, the concept of ‘demotivation’, a negative motivational state resulting from failing to reach a positive motivation threshold, should also be included in this continuum. All variables, including environmental factors, interact dynamically within this system, creating a complex motivation mechanism that can be likened to a ‘mixture chemical reaction’. In summary, the motivation mechanism is a multi-dimensional, dynamic, and multi-level system.

Conclusion

This study conducted a case study based on three individual interviews with three adult European L2 Chinese learners to examine demotivating factors at different learning stages. Several key points emerged from the study. First, a reduction in motivation often results from the negative development of initial motivating factors, and the most influential demotivating elements originate from negative incidents that decrease a learner's perceptions of 'success' and 'value'. Second, different dominant demotivating factors appeared throughout the individuals' learning periods, with the weight of co-existing factors varying at different stages. Third, demotivating factors were most intense immediately after the initial phases of learning, and unless addressed promptly, these factors could significantly reduce overall motivation. Conversely, timely intervention could mitigate their impact. Finally, the author proposed a multi-level motivation model, emphasising that the motivation mechanism is a multi-dimensional, dynamic, and multi-level system. The loss of motivation is attributed to the failure to reach the positive motivation threshold.

However, the study has several limitations, primarily due to its small sample size. The research could have been improved by adopting an exploratory mixed-methods approach, incorporating a follow-up survey to collect quantitative data on the weakening of motivation among L2 Chinese learners. A larger dataset would enable a correlational analysis of demotivating learning behaviours and negative variables, helping identify the most influential factors. Additionally, the language learning motivation model proposed at the end of the discussion is highly simplified and lacks support from extensive theoretical and empirical research.

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Appendix. Interview Instruction leaflet

Dear participant,

Thank you for participating in this interview that aims to investigate demotivating factors in the learning of L2 Chinese among European adult learners. I understand that you may have encountered various difficulties and experienced demotivation while learning Chinese, a language distinct from your native tongue. It can be challenging for native Chinese speakers to imagine these obstacles. Therefore, your personal stories and opinions are highly valuable to this research, which focuses on individual differences in demotivating factors in long-term Chinese learning.—

Main questions in the semi-structured interview:

1. Can you please share your overall experience of learning Chinese so far?
2. Were there any moments when you felt demotivated in learning Chinese?

I would like to invite you to draw a line graph for each to present the changes of your overall motivation, your perception of success, value, autonomy, and environment by time in advance. Don't worry about the drawing, it's just a visual way to present the invisible motivation.

Let's move on. Do you think this motivation model applies to you? I would like to hear your stories and opinions. You can contribute to building this model!

Studies have shown that motivation in language learning is influenced by various major factors, including success, value, autonomy, as well as environment. Like this picture below, I will explain later.

factors	explanation	examples	questions
success	Your evaluation of your past and expectancy for future achievements	Extrinsic success: external rewards, e.g. higher salary; praises from others; Intrinsic success: internal rewards, e.g. self satisfaction Long-term vs short-term successes	● How did your perception about success demotivate you in learning Chinese?
value	Your evaluation of the value of the stake and the outcomes of your language learning	Intrinsic value: learning Chinese learning itself is fun or not Social value: social usefulness of your Chinese learning Utility value: usefulness of learning Chinese Attainment value: the significance you attach to learning Chinese, this learning behavior itself.	● What type of values demotivated you in learning Chinese?
autonomy	How much freedom do you feel in learning Chinese	High autonomy: decide learning materials, time and pace, goals by yourself Low autonomy: other decides your learning goals and materials	● How would autonomy demotivate you in Chinese learning?
environment	Environment refers to both physical and virtual surroundings where you learn Chinese	Learning resources: like courses, textbooks, apps, etc. the exact place where you study Or teaching approaches, and the relationships between you and your peers and the teachers. Or it can also include a wider range of the relationship between China and your own country, represented by the media	● What are the factors from the environment that could demotivate you? And how?
Other	Not covered by the model	Anything you would like to add Or you would like to make some comments about this model?	● Are there any demotivating factors or incidents from your personal experience that couldn't fit in the model we just discussed?

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Factors Influencing Chinese Learners' Satisfaction with Online Classes: Insights from Confucius Institutes in Hungary

Abstract

This quantitative study investigates the factors that influence Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) learners' satisfaction with online learning in the context of Hungarian Confucius Institutes. The COVID-19 pandemic forced a rapid shift to online instruction, and while the acute phase of the pandemic has subsided, its impact on education remains significant. This study explores learners' preferences and satisfaction with online learning in the post-pandemic era. A questionnaire was administered to 241 CFL learners across five Confucius Institutes in Hungary, and in-depth interviews were conducted with two learners to provide contextual insights. An exploratory factor analysis and a scale reliability analysis were performed to examine the underlying structure and reliability of the questionnaire data. Five key factors influencing learner satisfaction were identified: engagement and interaction, technical issues, preferences for learning methods, teaching methods and course design, and assessment and feedback. Learners expressed a strong preference for face-to-face learning, citing concerns about engagement, interaction, and motivation in online environments. Technical challenges and the user interface of the online learning platform were also areas of concern. However, learners expressed satisfaction with teachers' performance and responsiveness in online classes.

Keywords: COVID-19, Chinese as a Foreign Language, online learning, factors

陈璐钰

影响汉语学习者在线课程满意度的因素分析： 以匈牙利孔子学院为例

摘要

本文通过定量研究，调查了匈牙利孔子学院汉语作为外语学习者 (CFL) 在线学习满意度的影响因素。尽管新冠疫情 (COVID-19) 的高峰期已经过去，但其对教育的影响仍然具有研究意义。本研究探讨了疫情后时代汉语学习者对在线学习的偏好和满意度。研究人员对匈牙利五所孔子学院的 241 名 CFL 学习者进行了问卷调查，并对两名学习者进行了深度访谈，以提供背景信息。采用探索性因素分析和量表信度分析来检验问卷数据的潜在结构和信度。研究确定了五个影响学习者满意度的关键因素：参与和互动、技术问题、学习方法偏好、教学方法和课程设计以及评估和反馈。学习者表达了对面对面学习的强烈偏好，并表达了对在线环境中参与度、互动性和驱动力的担忧。技术挑战和在线学习平台的用户界面也是他们关注的方面。然而，学习者对教师在在线课程中的表现和响应能力表示满意。研究结果突出了在线 CFL 学习中学习者满意度的复杂性，并强调需要解决教学法、技术和动机因素以增强在线学习体验。本研究同时也为寻求优化疫情后时代在线语言学习的教育工作者和机构提供了宝贵的见解。

关键字：新冠疫情，汉语作为外语，在线学习，影响因素

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic triggered a global shift towards online learning, forcing educational institutions to rapidly adapt and embrace digital platforms. In Hungary, universities were among the first to transition to online instruction, with a nationwide ban on in-person classes implemented in March 2020.¹ This unprecedented disruption persisted for over a year, with univer-

¹ Komuves–Than 2020.

sities progressively resuming face-to-face learning in the spring/summer of 2021.² While the pandemic has subsided, its impact on education remains significant, with online and blended learning models becoming increasingly prevalent. This transition to online learning has spurred a growing body of research exploring its effectiveness and impact on student satisfaction.³ While these studies have yielded valuable insights, they often focus on general online learning experiences or specific disciplines, with limited research examining Chinese language learning in the context of Confucius Institutes. While extant research on Confucius Institutes has predominantly focused on their cultural and economic diplomacy functions⁴ and Chinese language teaching methodologies,⁵ less emphasis has been placed on student satisfaction, particularly in comparing face-to-face and online learning environments in the pandemic period. Recent studies have explored teacher satisfaction within Confucius Institutes amidst the pandemic-induced lockdowns,⁶ but further research is needed to understand the student perspective. This gap is particularly evident in the Hungarian context, where research on online learning satisfaction in Confucius Institutes remains scarce.

This study endeavours to address this gap by investigating the factors that influence Chinese language learners' satisfaction with online classes offered by Confucius Institutes in Hungary. Confucius Institutes, established by the Chinese government to promote Chinese language and culture globally, have been instrumental in fostering intercultural exchange and language acquisition. In Hungary, the inaugural Confucius Institute was established in 2006 at Eötvös Loránd University in Budapest.⁷ Subsequently, a network of five Confucius Institutes has been established across Hungary, situated in Budapest, Debrecen, Miskolc, Pécs, and Szeged.⁸ These institutes offer a diverse range of Chinese language courses, often employing English as the medium

² Reuters 2021, April 9. <https://www.reuters.com/business/healthcare-pharmaceuticals/hungary-delays-secondary-schools-reopening-by-3-weeks-may-10-pm-orban-2021-04-09/> (last accessed: 05.03.2024)

³ Almusharraf-Khahro 2020; Mohammed et al. 2022; Hettiarachchi et al. 2021; Teng 2023, among others.

⁴ Gil 2017; Hartig 2012; Lien et al. 2012; Lien-Tang 2022; Yao 2023.

⁵ Gonondo 2021; Starr 2009.

⁶ Lu-Hua 2024: 335.

⁷ Csikó 2024: 95.

⁸ Hungarian university launches country's fifth Confucius Institute 2019. <https://www.globaltimes.cn/content/1170291.shtml> (last accessed: 10.06.2023)

of instruction, and provide opportunities for Hungarian students to obtain university credits. This study's findings have implications for Confucius Institutes both within Hungary and internationally, informing their endeavours to enhance online learning experiences and promote Chinese language education in the digital era.

Focusing on a selection of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) learners in Hungary who have experienced both face-to-face and online learning modalities within Hungarian Confucius Institutes, this study investigates their preferences and satisfaction with online learning. Specifically, this research seeks to address the following questions:

1. What are the most frequently cited challenges and problems encountered by CFL learners in online learning environments in Hungary, and conversely, which aspects of online learning are most positively perceived?
2. Are CFL learners in Hungary satisfied with the online learning system implemented during the pandemic?

Theoretical Framework

The COVID-19 pandemic forced a rapid shift to online learning across educational contexts, prompting increased research interest in language learning and teaching within this modality. While studies on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in lockdown situations have garnered considerable attention,⁹ research on CFL remains limited. In particular, factors influencing CFL teaching and learning in online environments require further investigation. Learning Chinese presents unique challenges due to its orthography, which combines graphic and phonetic elements in one of the world's most phonologically opaque writing systems.¹⁰ Writing Chinese characters online is particularly challenging due to the importance of stroke order.¹¹ Beyond the complexities of the writing system, understanding learner motivation in the online CFL context is crucial, particularly within Confucius Institutes. With China's rising global prominence, interest in learning Chinese language and culture

⁹ Allo 2020; Atmojo–Nugroho 2020; Famularsih 2020; Sepulveda-Escobar–Morrison 2020.

¹⁰ Packard et al. 2006; Ye 2024.

¹¹ Gu 2020.

has surged, leading to the establishment of Confucius Institutes as overseas language promotion agencies.¹² The first Confucius Institute was founded in South Korea in 2004, and as of 2023, there are 498 institutes across 160 countries.¹³ These institutes play a key role in meeting the growing demand for Chinese language education.

Pre-pandemic research on online language learning predominantly focused on computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and computer-mediated communication (CMC). While CALL and CMC offer valuable possibilities for synchronous and asynchronous teaching, their technology primarily serves as an adjunct to traditional classroom instruction. However, the pandemic necessitated a complete shift to online learning,¹⁴ leading to the widespread adoption of video conferencing platforms (e.g., Zoom, Skype, Microsoft Teams) and learning management systems (e.g., Google Classroom, Canvas, Moodle). Despite the availability of these technologies, the abrupt transition to online learning often resulted in unpreparedness and inefficient teaching practices. Factors such as low expectations for technology use in education¹⁵ and inadequate teacher training¹⁶ can hinder effective digital pedagogy. Consequently, a study found that students often prefer text-based communication in online sessions due to instructors' limited technological proficiency.¹⁷ However, online learning also presents opportunities for increased student participation. The virtual environment can afford greater privacy and anonymity, reducing anxiety for some learners.¹⁸ This can lead to less pressure during online interactions. Another study emphasised the importance of participation and interaction for successful language learning, regardless of the learning environment (e.g., face-to-face, blended, or online).¹⁹ Recognising the significance of peer interaction, language teachers strive to cultivate online learning communities and foster real-time synchronous interaction to enhance language acquisition.

¹² Liu 2019: 257.

¹³ Yimeng 2023.

¹⁴ Moorhouse 2020: 609.

¹⁵ Al-bataineh et al. 2008: 382.

¹⁶ Baran 2014.

¹⁷ Peachey 2017: 114.

¹⁸ Bump 1990; Warschauer 1998.

¹⁹ Wang-Chen 2009: 5.

Method

1. Research Design

This study employed a quantitative research design to investigate the factors influencing CFL learners' satisfaction with online learning in Hungarian Confucius Institutes. A questionnaire was utilised as the primary research instrument to gather data from a larger sample of learners. To enrich the contextualisation and interpretation of the quantitative findings, qualitative interviews were conducted with two CFL learners. This mixed-methods approach allowed for a more comprehensive understanding of the research topic. The research procedure commenced with a comprehensive review of relevant literature to establish a theoretical foundation and inform the development of the research instrument. This review encompassed recent empirical studies on online language learning in both EFL and CFL contexts, as well as seminal texts on online education, pedagogical approaches, and potential challenges associated with online learning.²⁰

2. Interview data for the questionnaire

To gain deeper insights into CFL learners' experiences and perspectives, in-depth and semi-structured interviews were conducted with two students, one male and one female (21 and 29 years old, earning a BA in Computer Sciences and a PhD in International Relations, respectively), who had had the experience of learning Chinese in both face-to-face and online situations at the Confucius institute in Szeged. These interviews explored their perceptions of the advantages, disadvantages, and challenges associated with online language learning, providing valuable context for the subsequent quantitative data collection. Both students volunteered and were told at the beginning that they could withdraw from the study at any time. The main interview questions were designed as, but were not limited to, the following:

²⁰ e.g., Allo 2020; Famularsih 2020; Moorhouse 2020.

- How long have you been learning Chinese?
- Why did you choose to learn Chinese?
- Are you satisfied with this current online learning? Were you satisfied with face-to-face learning?
- Are you still motivated to learn Chinese?
- What are your problems and challenges in learning Chinese online?
- What is a difference between learning online and face-to-face?

Both students expressed notable dissatisfaction with the transition to online learning. While the male student initially held a positive view of Chinese language and culture, influenced by personal interactions and observations of athletes, the shift to online learning significantly dampened his motivation. He cited the ‘absence of engaging classroom activities’, such as ‘card and group games’, as a key factor contributing to this decline.

Similarly, the female student, despite being driven by academic incentives, found the online learning environment inadequate. She criticised the lack of audiovisual materials and the over-reliance on typing, which she deemed detrimental to the acquisition of Chinese characters. This perceived deficiency in effective instructional strategies, coupled with technical issues related to the online platform, ultimately led to her disengagement and withdrawal from the course. These findings collectively underscore the importance of replicating, to the extent possible, the interactive and engaging elements of face-to-face language instruction in the online environment. The students’ feedback suggests that a greater emphasis on dynamic activities, visual learning aids, and opportunities for active participation may be crucial to maintaining student motivation and ensuring a satisfying learning experience. Furthermore, the technical limitations of the chosen platform highlight the need for the careful consideration and selection of online learning tools that are both user friendly and conducive to effective language acquisition.

Based on the insights gleaned from the literature review and qualitative interviews, a questionnaire was developed to assess CFL learners’ satisfaction with various aspects of online learning, such as course design, instructor presence, technology use, interaction, and perceived learning outcomes. Regarding the interview data, questionnaire items N2: ‘I think I will get better grades this year’; N16: ‘It is difficult to have concentration in online classes’; N17: ‘compared to face-to-face classes, the teachers rarely use creative teaching methods (such as language cards, character games, and brainstorming) in

online classes’; N18: ‘compared to face-to-face classes, the teachers rarely use Chinese audiovisual products such as films and songs in online classes’; N28: ‘I found the user interface of the online learning’s platform (e.g., Ding-talk) not friendly’; and N30: ‘The home environment for learning online is annoying and I lose concentration’ were added and modified.

3. Pilot Study

A five-point Likert scale was incorporated into the questionnaire to capture participants’ responses, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree); this allowed for a nuanced measurement of attitudes and opinions. To ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted with 12 CFL learners at the University of Szeged. This pilot study aimed to establish face validity and gather feedback on the clarity and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire. Additionally, expert review was sought from specialists in CFL and EFL education to further refine the instrument and ensure content validity. The finalised questionnaire was then distributed to a larger sample of CFL learners across five Confucius Institutes in Hungary. Data were collected from 241 participants (65 males, 153 females, and 23 participants did not indicate their gender), age from 18 to 36, via an online survey platform to maintain anonymity and confidentiality, from 2020 to 2024. The majority of the participants (161) were pursuing Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degrees, while the remaining students were enrolled in higher education programs, such as master’s and doctoral programs.

To conduct a comprehensive statistical analysis of the data, IBM SPSS was used. This included an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a reliability analysis, and descriptive statistics, allowing for a thorough investigation of the research questions.

Results and Discussion

To assess the first research question and ensure the validity and reliability of the newly developed instrument, both an EFA and a scale reliability analysis were employed. The suitability of the collected data for an EFA was evaluated using the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The KMO value of .78 indicated excellent sam-

pling adequacy,²¹ and the significant Bartlett's test ($p < .05$) further confirmed the appropriateness of the data for the EFA. These results supported the use of the EFA to explore underlying constructs and establish construct validity. Several criteria were employed to determine the optimal number of factors to retain. After the application of Kaiser's criterion, which suggests retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than or equal to 1, an initial solution of nine factors was indicated. These nine factors collectively explained approximately 57.45% of the total variance in the dataset. However, as Pallant (2016) notes, Kaiser's criterion can sometimes lead to the retention of an excessive number of factors. Therefore, various factor structures were examined, considering solutions with four, five, and six factors. While acknowledging the absence of a definitive objective method for determining the precise number of factors to retain in exploratory factor analysis, Hair et al. (2006) suggest examining multiple factor solutions and selecting the structure that offers the most compelling conceptual justification. This approach recognises the inherent subjectivity in factor extraction and emphasises the importance of theoretical grounding and interpretability in making decisions about the final factor structure. A five-factor solution ultimately emerged as the most conceptually meaningful and interpretable option. To achieve this final solution, certain variables that did not load significantly on any factor or exhibited cross-loading on multiple factors were removed from the analysis. Specifically, items N06, N01, and N27 were excluded, resulting in a refined dataset of 27 variables categorised into five distinct factors.

Following the identification of the latent constructs, or factors, within the dataset, a scale reliability analysis was performed to evaluate the internal consistency of each factor. Cronbach's alpha, a widely used measure of internal consistency, was calculated for each factor. As shown in Table 1, the Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .61 to .81, indicating satisfactory to excellent internal consistency for all factors. While a Cronbach's alpha of .70 is generally considered acceptable, values as low as .61 can be adequate in exploratory research within the humanities, where constructs tend to be more abstract and less precisely defined (Field, 2024). This is particularly true for factors with fewer items, where alpha values may be naturally lower. The obtained alpha values suggest that the scales used in this study are reliable and exhibit good internal consistency.

²¹ Kaiser, 1974.

To facilitate interpretation and discussion, each extracted factor was assigned a label that reflects both the highest loading variables and the overarching theme unifying the corresponding items, as detailed in Table 1. This labelling process aids in understanding the underlying constructs represented by each factor and facilitates a more meaningful analysis of the results.²²

Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3		Factor 4		Factor 5	
Engagement and Interaction		Technical Issues		Preferences for Learning Methods		Teaching Methods and Course Design		Assessment and Feedback	
Item	Factor Loading	Item	Factor Loading	Item	Factor Loading	Item	Factor Loading	Item	Factor Loading
N22	.69	N10	.71	N03	.81	N11	.62	N13	.67
N14	.65	N08	.69	N04	.69	N02	.56	N16	.64
N15	.59	N29	.63	N21	.66	N26	.49	N28	.49
N30	.57	N12	.57	N18	.64	N07	.43		
N17	.51	N24	.52	N19	.59	N09	.40		
N05	.49	N23	.48						
N20	.47	N25	.47						
Cronbach's Alpha: .81		Cronbach's Alpha: .76		Cronbach's Alpha: .74		Cronbach's Alpha: .71		Cronbach's Alpha: .61	

Table 1: Resulting Factor Structure and Item Loadings

Accounting for 13.71% of the total variance, the first and foremost factor was labelled 'Engagement and Interaction'. Seven variables were used to identify this category, comprising: N22: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, I am tempted to check my social network activity during online classes which makes me losing the focus'; N14: 'The teachers do not encourage me in participating actively in online classes'; N15: 'The learners do not want to participate actively in online classes'; N16: 'It is difficult to participate in group works in online classes'; N17: 'As I connect to the classes in other places than schools and universities, it is difficult to have concentration in online classes'; N05: 'Online classes were the reason for losing my motivation of learning Chinese'; and N20: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, the amount of homework has been increased for online classes'. The second factor of importance, accounting for a total variance of 12.24%, was described as 'Technical Issues'. Seven variables loaded onto this factor, representing items: N10: 'The teachers rarely are online out of the class time to respond to the

²² Hair et al. 2006.

students' questions and problems'; N08: 'The teachers respond to the students' problems very late'; N29: 'I face so many technical problems in terms of the platform (e.g., DingTalk)'; N12: 'The teachers do not have technical background information for teaching online'; N24: 'I found the user interface of the online learning's platform (e.g., Dingtalk) not friendly'; N23: 'I often experience internet disconnection in online classes'; and N30 'The home environment for learning online is annoying, and I lose concentration'. The third factor, notably defining 8.65% of the total variance, was termed as 'Preferences for Learning Methods'. This factor was characterised by five variables, including N03: 'I prefer to participate face-to-face classes rather than online ones'; N04: 'Compared to face-to-face learning, I cannot learn writing characters by typing in online classes'; N21: 'It is difficult to make summary of the material which I learnt online'; N18: 'Participation in online classes has not highlighted my weak and strong points in learning Chinese'; and N19: 'Participation in online classes made me lazy since I am bored to participate actively in the classes'. Five variables loaded onto the fourth factor, which explained 7.95% of the total variance and was labelled as 'Teaching Methods and Course Design'. This category was represented by N11: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, the online classes are boring'; N02: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, the teachers rarely use creative teaching methods (such as language cards, character games, and brainstorming) in online classes'; N26: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, the teachers rarely use Chinese audiovisual products such as films and songs in online classes'; N07: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, the course syllabus is designed in a way that I cannot be interested in'; and N09: 'Compared to face-to-face classes, the amount of homework has been increased for online classes'. The analysis yielded a fifth and final factor, accounting for 5.12% of the total variance, which was termed 'Assessment and Feedback'. The category was represented by three variables including: N13: 'I have not received planned feedback on my homework from the teachers during online classes'; N16: 'In compared to face-to-face exams, the format of the online exams makes me stressed'; and N28: 'The students can easily cheat on the online exams'. The results of the EFA and scale reliability analysis demonstrated that the data obtained through the developed instrument exhibited strong internal consistency and construct validity. This indicates that the instrument effectively measures the intended constructs and that the findings derived from its use are reliable and meaningful.

As for the problems perceived by the CFL learners in Hungary, Table 2 presents the highest and lowest rated items from the questionnaire on CFL learners' perceptions of online learning. The table is divided into two sections: 'Highest Rated' and 'Lowest Rated'. Each section lists the item number, the number of respondents (N), the mean score (M), and the standard deviation (SD) for each item. The highest-rated items reflect aspects of online learning that learners viewed most favourably, while the lowest-rated items indicate areas of dissatisfaction or concern. By comparing the mean scores, we can identify the relative importance of different aspects of online learning from the learners' perspective.

To answer the second research question, the results presented in Table 2 reveal some seemingly contradictory findings regarding CFL learners' satisfaction of online learning. While several of the highest-rated items express a clear preference for face-to-face instruction and highlight challenges associated with online learning, others indicate satisfaction with specific aspects of the online experience, particularly related to teacher performance. Several of the highest-rated items reflect a strong preference for face-to-face learning and underscore challenges associated with the online modality. For example, item N06: 'I prefer to participate in face-to-face classes rather than online ones' received the highest mean rating (4.63), indicating a widespread desire among learners to return to the traditional classroom setting. This finding aligns with other studies that have reported learners' preference for in-person interaction and the social dynamics of face-to-face learning in the other contexts.²³

Despite the challenges and preferences expressed for face-to-face learning, the results also indicate satisfaction with certain aspects of online learning, particularly teacher performance, which is in line with the previous research.²⁴ Learners disagreed with items suggesting that teachers were unresponsive or lacked technical skills, including N10: 'The teachers rarely are online out of the class time to respond to the students' questions and problems'; N08: 'The teachers respond to the students' problems very late'; and N27: 'The teachers do not have technical background information for teaching online'. These findings suggest that teachers were perceived as accessible, responsive, and technologically proficient, contributing positively to the online learning

²³ Badovinac et al. 2021; Gherheş et al. 2021; Kemp–Grieve 2014.

²⁴ Fatani 2020; Suharyat et al. 2022.

experience. Furthermore, the learners expressed concerns about the effectiveness of group work in online environments (N16: ‘It is difficult to participate in group works in online classes’); the impact of online learning on their motivation (N05 ‘Online classes were the reason for losing my motivation of learning Chinese’); and the challenges of maintaining concentration in a home learning environment (N30: ‘The home environment for learning online is annoying and I lose concentration’). These findings highlight the importance of addressing the social, motivational, and environmental challenges associated with online learning to enhance learner satisfaction and engagement. The low rating for item N24 (‘I found the user interface of the online learning platform [e.g., Dingtalk] not friendly’) points to the significance of user-friendly technology in online learning. Difficulties navigating or utilising the online platform can lead to frustration and hinder effective learning.

Highest Rated				Lowest Rated			
Item	N	M	SD	Item	N	M	SD
N06	241	4.63	1.09	N24	241	1.31	1.07
N14	241	4.59	1.09	N25	241	1.50	1.07
N04	241	4.41	1.09	N26	241	1.51	1.07
N30	241	4.37	1.09	N12	241	1.56	1.08
N07	241	4.21	1.08	N20	241	1.63	1.08
N23	241	4.06	1.08	N13	241	1.75	1.08
				N28	241	1.81	1.08
				N08	241	1.88	1.08
				N05	241	2.00	1.09
				N19	241	2.06	

Note: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= No idea; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree

Table 2: Highest- and lowest-rated perception of the learners toward learning online

Conclusion

This study provides valuable insights into the factors influencing CFL learners’ satisfaction with online learning in the context of Hungarian Confucius Institutes. By employing a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative data from a questionnaire with qualitative insights from interviews, this research explored learners’ perceptions and experiences in the post-pandemic era. The findings reveal a complex interplay of factors contributing to satisfaction, including pedagogical approaches, technological affordances, and individual learner characteristics.

The results highlight the need for educators to adapt their teaching strategies to better address the challenges and preferences of learners in online environments. Specifically, the findings suggest that instructors should focus on enhancing learner engagement and interaction, addressing technical issues and ensuring user-friendly online platforms, accommodating diverse learning styles and preferences, employing creative and engaging teaching methods, and providing timely and effective feedback. By incorporating these recommendations into their practice, educators can create more supportive and engaging online learning experiences that cater to the unique needs of CFL learners. Furthermore, examining Confucius Institute teachers' perceptions of online and face-to-face teaching modalities could provide valuable insights into pedagogical practices and challenges from an instructor's perspective, complementing the student-centred focus of this study. While this study sheds light on the important roles of educational technology and teacher-student interaction in online learning, it is crucial to acknowledge its limitations. The effectiveness of online teaching is a complex phenomenon influenced by a multitude of factors beyond the scope of this research. These include, but are not limited to, the specific teaching content and methods employed, the subject matter being taught, and the individual characteristics and expertise of the teachers involved. Future research should delve into the intricate interplay of these factors to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how to optimise online learning environments.

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The History and Current Status of Chinese Language Teaching in Hungary: A Case Study of the Chinese Department and Confucius Institute at Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE)

Abstract

The field of Chinese studies is very well established in Hungary. With the advances in Chinese language teaching and the rapid development of relations between China and Hungary in recent years, the number of Chinese learners in Hungary has increased, and ‘Chinese fever’ continues to spread. This article reviews the history and the current situation of Chinese language teaching in university Chinese departments and Confucius Institutes in Hungary; conducts an in-depth analysis of Chinese language teaching institutions, focusing especially on the curriculum and teaching methods in Chinese departments; reveals existing problems; and proposes appropriate solutions.

Keywords: Chinese language teaching, curriculum setting, optimisation

叶秋月

匈牙利汉语教学的历史与现状： 以罗兰大学中文系和孔子学院为例

摘要

近年来，随着汉语教学的进步以及中匈关系的快速发展，匈牙利的汉语学习者数量逐渐增加，“汉语热”持续蔓延。本文回顾了匈牙利大学中文系和孔子学院的汉语教学历史与现状；深入分析了汉语教学机

构，特别是中文系的课程设置与教学方法；揭示了现存的问题，并提出了相应的解决方案。

关键词：汉语教学，课程设置，优化

Introduction

Chinese language teaching in Hungary began in the 1950s. By the 1980s and 1990s, with the rise of China's economy and an influx of Chinese immigrants, Hungary experienced a surge of interest in learning Chinese. Entering the 21st century, with deeper trade and cultural exchanges between China and Hungary, and the active promotion of both governments, Chinese language learning in Hungary further developed.¹ In 2013, China proposed the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), and on 6 June 2015, Hungary signed a memorandum of understanding with China on BRI cooperation, becoming the first European country to officially join the initiative. Hungary expressed a strong willingness to participate in areas such as infrastructure, production capacity, and trade under the BRI framework.² While China is accelerating its 'westward opening' under the BRI, Hungary follows an 'eastward opening' policy, positioning itself as a key partner for China. The BRI and the deepening cooperation between China and Hungary triggered yet another wave of interest in learning Chinese in Hungary. Additionally, the Hungarian National Debt Immigration Programme, which ran from 18 April 2013 to 31 March 2017, attracted thousands of Chinese families to settle in Hungary, mainly in its capital, Budapest. The arrival of these new immigrants further fuelled enthusiasm for learning Chinese.

Chinese language education in Hungary started with Sinology programmes in higher education institutions. In the early 1980s, there were only about a dozen people studying Chinese in the entire country.³ Now, Chinese has entered Hungary's national education system at the university, high school, and elementary school levels. In Budapest, a city with a population of nearly 2 million, there are now several thousand registered Chinese language students.

¹ Qian-Wang 2010: 18.

² China's Belt and Road Portal.

³ Mei 1990: 127.

Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE) and Pázmány Péter Catholic University both have Chinese departments, while other institutions, including the Budapest Business University, Dharma Gate Buddhist College, Corvinus University, the Semmelweis University, and the National University of Public Service, offer Chinese language courses. In addition to ELTE's Confucius Institute in Budapest, there are also Confucius Institutes at the University of Szeged, the University of Miskolc, the University of Pécs (i.e., the Traditional Chinese Medicine Confucius Institute), and the newly established Confucius Institute at the University of Debrecen. Moreover, there are two Confucius Classrooms: one at the Hungarian-Chinese Bilingual School in Budapest and another at Bolyai János Secondary School in Kecskemét. The Hungarian-Chinese Bilingual School, established in 2004, is the only primary school in Hungary where Chinese is a compulsory subject, and it is also the only public bilingual school in the European Union that teaches in both Chinese and the national language. The establishment of the Hungarian-Chinese Bilingual School marks the entry of Chinese language into the primary and secondary stages of Hungary's national education system.

Regarding Chinese language teaching in Hungary, several scholars, including Sandor You (1988), Lichong Mei (1990), Qingxin Hao (2009), Yeping Qian and Honglin Wang (2010), and Xi Zeng (2011), have provided valuable overviews. These studies offer an insightful summary of the history and development of Chinese teaching in Hungary. However, there is a gap in the literature concerning the development of Chinese language teaching over the past decade, which is precisely the period during which Chinese education in Hungary has flourished the most. Building on the existing literature, this paper provides an overview and analysis of Chinese language teaching in Hungary, outlining its development trajectory to present a comprehensive picture of its history and current status.

Overview of Chinese Language Teaching in Hungary

Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE) plays a crucial role in the development of Chinese language education in Hungary. The Department of Chinese Studies at ELTE has the longest history, is the most specialised, and has the largest number of Chinese learners, making it the main focus of this study. The Department of Chinese Studies at Pázmány Péter Catholic University

was established in 2012 and offers both undergraduate and master's programmes. In the fall of 2019, the department had 85 students: 15 in the first year of the undergraduate programme, 20 in the second year of the undergraduate programme, 15 in the third year of the undergraduate programme, 15 in the first year of the master's programme, and 20 in the second year of the master's programme. Since its curriculum is similar to that of ELTE's Department of Chinese Studies, it is not discussed separately here.

Currently, Hungary has five Confucius Institutes, each with its own characteristics. However, the Confucius Institute at ELTE was established first and has achieved the most significant results, so it is used as the main example to present an overview of Chinese language teaching in Hungary.

Department of Chinese Studies

1. History of Sinology's Development in Hungary

The development of Sinology in Hungary can be traced back to 1923. 'In 1923, with the establishment of the Far East Institute at Eötvös Loránd University (then named Pázmány Péter University), Chinese language and culture studies also found their place'.⁴ The first director was Professor Vilmos Pröhle, who not only was an expert in Chinese and Japanese but also studied Turkish. In 1942, Lajos Ligeti took over the responsibilities of the Far East Institute and also served as the director of the Central Asian Institute. He was a student of the renowned Sinologist Paul Pelliot and made significant contributions to the development of Sinology in Hungary. Lajos Ligeti is regarded as the true founder of Hungarian Sinology, having introduced the high-quality philosophical research methods he had learned in Paris into Hungarian Sinology studies.

With the establishment of the People's Republic of China, the importance of Sinology increased significantly. To highlight the significance of Sinology, the Department of Far Eastern Languages and Literature was renamed the Department of Chinese and East Asian Studies and was responsible for research in and the teaching of Sinology, Japanese studies, Korean studies, and Vietnamese studies. In the 1950s, the strengthening of political relations between China and Hungary facilitated cultural and educational exchanges

⁴ Hao 2014: 13.

between the two countries. Several young scholars had the opportunity to study Chinese, Chinese history, and literature in China for a few years. Some of them later worked at the Hungarian Embassy in China, becoming the first generation of Hungarians able to communicate in Chinese. Fortunately, many of them chose to continue academic research rather than pursue political careers.

In the 1950s, Chinese language teaching at ELTE was small in scale, with only a few students enrolled. However, in the late 1950s and early 1960s, the scale of Chinese teaching expanded somewhat. In the 1980s, to meet societal needs, ELTE began to emphasise Chinese language teaching, especially the teaching of modern Chinese. Starting in 1984, one or two outstanding students were selected annually to study in China, and Chinese teachers were invited to teach at the university, significantly improving students' Chinese language proficiency. In 1985, Sinology was upgraded from a 'B-level' to an 'A-level' subject,⁵ on par with English, French, Russian, Spanish, and German. 'Sinology became one of the university's most popular majors, with increasing numbers of applicants each year. The ratio of applicants to admissions was 2.5:1 in 1956, 6.8:1 in 1987, and 8.5:1 in 1988'⁶.

In 1995, economic austerity policy impacted higher education in Hungary, leading to a near halt in Chinese language teaching and Sinology research. However, when Professor Imre Hamar became the director of the Department of East Asian Studies in 2002, 'despite difficult conditions and a lack of sufficient full-time professors, [the] department began enrolling doctoral students in 2000, a historic advancement that ensured [it] could train the next generation of Sinologists'⁷.

In recent years, Chinese language education at ELTE has thrived, achieving remarkable results. The initial goal of the Department of Chinese Studies was to train Sinologists, but it has now evolved to integrate both Sinology research and Chinese language teaching. The department offers education at three levels: bachelor's graduates are trained as general Chinese language professionals who can work in fields such as tourism, hospitality, and general communication; master's graduates are trained as versatile Chinese language professionals capable of translating texts and interpreting at high-level meet-

⁵ The programmes offered at ELTE are divided into two categories, A and B, mainly based on the importance of the programmes and societal needs.

⁶ Mei 1990: 128.

⁷ Hao 2014: 13.

ings; and doctoral graduates are trained as advanced Chinese language professionals, able to become Sinologists (China experts). Since its establishment, the Department of Chinese Studies at ELTE has produced many outstanding graduates, including Sinologists, translators, and diplomats. In 2015, the department also introduced a master's programme in Chinese language education to train excellent local Chinese language teachers.

From 2010 to 2019, the department doubled in size. In the fall of 2019, the department had over 140 undergraduate students: 82 in the first year, 35 in the second year, and 23 in the third year. Additionally, there were eight students in the Chinese language education master's programme and seven doctoral students. In the fall of 2020, the number of first-year students reached 104, a historic high. Since 1984, Chinese government-sponsored Chinese language teachers have been teaching in the department.

2. Curriculum Structure

(1) Undergraduate Programme

The undergraduate programme at ELTE lasts three years. First-year students in the Department of Chinese Studies, including both those majoring and those minoring in Chinese Studies, are the most numerous, and they make up about half of the total number of students. By the end of the first academic year, some students voluntarily drop out because they find Chinese too difficult, while others are forced to leave due to their failing of exams. Together, these two groups account for 40–50% of the total number of first-year students, while the remaining students advance to the second year.

In the second year, students are divided into two groups based on their performance: the regular class and the translation class. The translation class offers three additional courses and requires seven more hours of class per week compared to the regular class. After completing their second year, a significant portion of students apply for scholarships to study abroad in China for one or two semesters, before returning to ELTE to complete their studies.

The academic year is divided into two semesters: the fall semester and the spring semester. Each semester lasts three months, and after accounting for holidays and exams, the actual teaching period is approximately 13 weeks. The course structure is shown in Table 1.

Grade	Course	Weekly class hours
First Year	Modern Chinese 1, 2	6
	Chinese Ancient History 1, 2	2
	Chinese Mass Media 1, 2	2
Second Year	Modern Chinese 3, 4	6
	Ancient Chinese 1, 2	2
	Chinese Modern History 1, 2	2
	Chinese Ancient Literature 1, 2	2
	Chinese Audio-visual Speaking 1, 2 (Translation Class)	2
	Chinese Reading 1, 2 (Translation Class)	2
	Chinese Listening 1, 2 (Translation Class)	3
Third Year	Modern Chinese 5, 6	4
	Ancient Chinese 3, 4	2
	Modern Chinese Grammar and Linguistics	2
	Chinese Philosophy and Religion (Confucianism, Daoism, Buddhism)	2
	Chinese Audio-visual Speaking 3, 4 (Translation Class)	2
	Chinese Reading 3, 4 (Translation Class)	2
	Chinese Writing (Translation Class)	3

Table 1: Curriculum of the ELTE Chinese Department's Undergraduate Programmes

In the first year, three courses are offered: Modern Chinese, Ancient Chinese History, and Chinese Mass Media, totalling 10 hours per week. Modern Chinese uses the *New Practical Chinese Reader* as the primary textbook, with 6 hours of instruction per week. One Hungarian teacher and one native Chinese-speaking teacher jointly teach the course, each covering 3 hours. The Hungarian teacher is responsible for explaining Chinese characters and grammar, while the native Chinese teacher focuses on pronunciation and oral communication. The Ancient Chinese History and Chinese Mass Media courses are taught in Hungarian by Hungarian teachers, with each course scheduled for 2 hours per week. After the first year, students will have mastered basic Chinese grammar and learned over 1,000 characters, enabling them to conduct basic conversations in Chinese. They will also have gained an introductory understanding of ancient Chinese history and modern media. Their overall Chinese proficiency by the end of the first year typically reaches HSK Level 2 or 3.

In the second year, four courses are offered: Modern Chinese, Classical Chinese, Modern Chinese History, and Ancient Chinese Literature, totalling 12 hours per week. Modern Chinese continues with the *New Practical Chinese Reader* for 6 hours per week, again co-taught by a Hungarian teacher and a native Chinese-speaking teacher with the same division of labour as in the first year. The Classical Chinese, Modern Chinese History, and Ancient Chinese Literature courses are taught in Hungarian by Hungarian teachers, each with 2 hours per week.

Additionally, the translation class offers three extra courses: Chinese Listening and Speaking, Chinese Reading, and Chinese Listening, adding 7 hours per week. Chinese Listening and Speaking is taught by a native Chinese-speaking teacher for 2 hours per week, while Chinese Listening is 3 hours per week. Chinese Reading is taught by a Hungarian teacher for 2 hours per week. In total, the regular second-year students attend 12 hours per week, while students in the translation class have 19 hours per week.

By the end of the second year, students expand their vocabulary and grasp more complex grammatical structures. They are introduced to Classical Chinese, learning basic sentence structures and the differences between ancient and modern meanings. They also gain an overall understanding of modern Chinese history and ancient Chinese literature. By this point, regular students typically reach HSK Level 3, while translation class students, receiving more specialised training in reading, listening, and speaking, generally reach HSK Level 4.

In the third year, students study Modern Chinese, Classical Chinese, Modern Chinese Grammar and Linguistics, and Chinese Philosophy and Religion, totalling 10 hours per week. Modern Chinese continues with the *New Practical Chinese Reader* for 4 hours per week, taught by a native Chinese-speaking teacher. Classical Chinese and Modern Chinese Grammar and Linguistics are taught by Hungarian teachers, each for 2 hours per week.

In addition, the translation class offers three additional courses: Chinese Listening and Speaking, Chinese Reading, and Chinese Writing, totalling 7 hours per week. Listening and Speaking and Chinese Writing are taught by native Chinese-speaking teachers for 2 and 3 hours per week, respectively, while Chinese Reading is taught by a Hungarian teacher for 2 hours per week. In total, regular third-year students have 10 hours of class per week, while translation class students attend 17 hours per week.

By the end of the third year, students significantly progress in both Modern and Classical Chinese, gaining a deeper understanding of Chinese grammar, including linguistic knowledge. Regular students typically reach HSK Level 4 or 5, while translation class students receive professional training in reading, writing, and speaking, with most achieving HSK Level 5 or 6. Some students returning from a year of study in China join the third year, standing out not only in their language skills but also in their knowledge of Chinese culture and economy.

Key Features of the Curriculum:

- a. **Focus on Communication Skills:** The curriculum divides Chinese language courses into grammar and practice components. Grammar is emphasised through intensive reading, while practice sessions include pronunciation, speaking, listening, reading, and translation, with increasing focus on practice as students advance.
- b. **Emphasis on Cultural Knowledge:** A substantial portion of the curriculum is dedicated to Chinese history, literature, and cultural studies, taught in Hungarian, to provide students with a broader context for learning the language. Language learning is more effective when complemented with cultural understanding.
- c. **Importance of Classical Chinese:** Classical Chinese is a mandatory course for four semesters in the second and third years. This equips students with the basic skills to read ancient Chinese texts, deepening their understanding of traditional Chinese thought and culture, as well as modern Chinese, which is closely linked to its ancient roots.
- d. **Comprehensive Skill Development:** From the beginning, the curriculum covers various aspects of the language, including media studies. From the second year, especially for translation class students, courses in listening, speaking, and reading are added, with writing introduced in the third year, ensuring a well-rounded skill set.
- e. **Native Chinese Teachers and Balanced Faculty:** The department has a strong faculty, including nine teachers, three of whom are native Chinese speakers. This combination of Hungarian and Chinese teachers significantly enhances teaching quality and provides students with ample opportunities to directly engage with Chinese culture.

(2) Master's Programme in Chinese Language Teaching

The master's programme has two tracks: the Chinese Studies MA, which is a two-year programme, and the Chinese Language Education MA, which is a three-year programme. In September 2006, with support from the former Chinese National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (Han-ban), the Chinese Language Education MA programme was officially launched. After completing the two-year Chinese Studies MA programme, students spend an additional year studying pedagogy and psychology. In the first cohort, seven students were admitted, with two students receiving scholarships to study for a semester or a full year at East China Normal University. The curriculum structure for the master's programme is shown in the table below.

Grade	Course	Weekly Class Hours
First Year	Modern Chinese	2
	Ancient Chinese	2
	Advanced Chinese Exam Preparation	2
	Chinese Linguistics	2
Second Year	Modern Chinese	2
	Ancient Chinese	2
	Advanced Chinese Exam Preparation	2
	Contemporary Chinese Society and Culture	2
	Advanced Chinese Reading	2
	History of Chinese Philosophy and Religion	2
Elective Courses for First and Second Year	Chinese Buddhism	2
	Chinese Linguistics	2

Table 2: Curriculum of the ELTE Chinese Department's MA Programme

In the two-year master's programme, the focus is on Sinology research. While continuing to improve their proficiency in Modern and Classical Chinese, students are also required to delve deeper into various aspects of the Chinese language and culture, including Chinese linguistics and contemporary Chinese society and culture. The number of admissions varies each year, typically ranging from 5 to 10 students.

There is no designated textbook for the master's programme. For Modern Chinese, *Boya Chinese Advanced* is commonly used, aiming to expose students to various reading materials and styles to help them express themselves accurately and flexibly. Classical Chinese classes build on the knowledge gain during undergraduate studies, continuing vocabulary and grammar development through the reading of classical texts and enhancing reading and translation skills.

The Contemporary Chinese Society and Culture course offers students a broader understanding of modern China's political, economic, and cultural background. The Advanced Chinese Reading class aims to improve students' reading proficiency in specific research fields. Like other courses, there is no designated textbook; teachers gather articles from newspapers, the internet, and other media sources, covering diverse topics in Chinese society, with both intensive and extensive reading exercises.

The history of Chinese philosophy and religion remains a critical component of Sinology studies throughout the programme.

(3) Existing Issues

After years of accumulation and practice, the curriculum design of the Chinese Department at Eötvös Loránd University is generally logical, but there is still room for optimisation. In the undergraduate programme, the coordination and support between different courses can be further strengthened. Aside from Modern Chinese, which has a fixed textbook, other courses do not have designated materials, leaving teachers to organise and select teaching resources themselves. This freedom to choose materials does not imply randomness; it requires that materials across different courses be supportive and complementary both horizontally and vertically.

Horizontally, all courses in the same year – such as those focused on listening, reading, and integrated skills – should align with the themes and language points of the Modern Chinese course. This coordination not only helps to reinforce vocabulary and grammar but also deepens students' understanding of relevant content, thereby improving learning efficiency. However, given the limited availability of teaching resources abroad, it is challenging to fully coordinate different textbooks.

Vertically, courses across different levels should be structured progressively. For example, reading and integrated skills courses in the second and

third years need to be planned jointly by the instructors of both levels to ensure that the content is progressively challenging and interconnected.

In the master's programme, the interdependency between courses is relatively less prevalent, and each course's instructor can independently select appropriate teaching materials. The structure of the master's curriculum is also generally logical, balancing language with culture, history with religion, and Classical Chinese with Modern Chinese. However, the necessity of continuously having an advanced HSK exam preparation course throughout the master's programme is debatable. Replacing it with advanced listening and speaking or advanced writing courses would likely be more beneficial.

An advanced listening and speaking course could use audio-visual materials from formal settings, such as news broadcasts, speeches, etc., covering contemporary Chinese economic and political topics. The course could include teacher guidance, group discussions, and oral presentations, improving students' ability to understand and use Chinese correctly in formal situations. An advanced writing course would help students master various writing styles and genres, allowing them to write about relevant topics or phenomena with a focus on using advanced vocabulary and grammar. Both listening and speaking and writing courses would build on related undergraduate courses, ensuring that students' skills develop steadily and comprehensively.

(4) Confucius Institutes in Hungary

Since 2006, Hungary has established five Confucius Institutes, two Confucius Classrooms, and 53 teaching sites. As of 2016, the Confucius Institutes (and Confucius Classrooms) in Hungary have enrolled over 23,000 students, hosted cultural events with 266,000 participants, and administered Chinese proficiency exams to 2,661 test-takers. The five Confucius Institutes are: the ELTE Confucius Institute (partnered with Beijing Foreign Studies University; established in 2006); the University of Szeged Confucius Institute (partnered with Shanghai International Studies University; established in 2013); the University of Miskolc Confucius Institute (partnered with Beijing University of Chemical Technology; established in 2013); the University of Pécs Traditional Chinese Medicine Confucius Institute (partnered with Hebei United University; established in 2015); and the University of Debrecen Confucius Institute (partnered with Tianjin Foreign Studies University; established in 2019).

The ELTE Confucius Institute, located in the capital city of Budapest, was the first to be established and has the largest student body, making it the most successful. It has received multiple awards from China's Hanban (now the Centre for Language Education and Cooperation) and was among the first 16 Model Confucius Institutes worldwide. The other four Confucius Institutes are located in cities outside of Budapest, each with its own specialisation. For instance, the University of Pécs Traditional Chinese Medicine Confucius Institute focuses on collaboration and exchanges in the field of traditional Chinese medicine.

In addition to the institutes, there are two Confucius Classrooms: one at the Chinese-Hungarian Bilingual School in Budapest and another at Bolyai János Secondary School in Kecskemét. The Chinese-Hungarian Bilingual School, as a government-operated bilingual school, has evolved from a platform initially designed for Chinese children to learn Chinese into one where Hungarian students are professionally taught Chinese. When the school first opened on 1 September 2004, there were only five Hungarian students out of more than 80 enrolled, making up just 6% of the student population. By 2009, the number of Hungarian students increased to 66 out of 212, or 31%. In 2016, the school added a high school division, forming a complete education system from primary through secondary education.

As the teaching of Chinese continues to thrive, the importance of Chinese as a foreign language in Hungary's education system has become increasingly prominent. In 2010, Chinese was officially recognised as a second foreign language in Hungarian high schools, and in the same year, it became one of the eight foreign language subjects for Hungary's national university entrance examination (Matura). In 2013, the ELTE Confucius Institute also established the Central and Eastern European Local Chinese Teacher Training Centre, which annually provides teacher training for Chinese language teachers from 16 Central and Eastern European countries. The Central and Eastern European Chinese Language Teachers Association was founded at the 8th Central and Eastern European Chinese Teacher Training Event.

The rapid development of Chinese language education in Hungary has contributed to the growth of related fields, such as Chinese teaching and cultural promotion. Although the number of academic papers on Hungarian Chinese language education is still limited, efforts are underway. The ELTE Confucius Institute has compiled the first locally developed Chinese textbooks in Hungary, titled *Hungarian Chinese Textbooks* (four volumes in total)

and has also contributed to the compilation of a large Chinese-Hungarian and Hungarian-Chinese dictionary with over 80,000 entries. The Chinese-Hungarian dictionary has been completed, while the Hungarian-Chinese dictionary is still under development. This dictionary set will be available in both online and app formats. Notably, at the 2017 ‘16+1’ China-Central and Eastern European Summit, Hungarian Prime Minister Viktor Orbán presented the Chinese-Hungarian Dictionary to Chinese Premier Li Keqiang as a national gift.

In October 2016, ELTE also established the world’s first overseas research centre dedicated to the Belt and Road Initiative – the Eötvös Loránd University Belt and Road Research Centre. The centre collaborates with China Publishing Group to establish an International Editorial Office, translating outstanding Chinese works into Hungarian. Nanjing Phoenix Publishing and Media Group has also set up a ‘Chinese Bookshelf’ at the Belt and Road Research Centre, regularly sending Chinese books each year. Additionally, textbooks for Chinese language learners in 16 Central and Eastern European countries are being developed.

Conclusion

There is no doubt that Chinese language education in Hungary has flourished in recent years, achieving remarkable results. The continued friendly relations between China and Hungary have contributed to the sustained popularity of Chinese, and the ‘Chinese fever’ is expected to continue growing. The record number of new students enrolled in the Chinese department at ELTE in the fall of 2020 is a testament to this trend. Moving forward, optimising the curriculum of university Chinese departments and continuing to leverage the role of Confucius Institutes in teaching Chinese and promoting Chinese culture are key issues that deserve attention.

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An Overview of the Milestones and Achievements in Chinese Language Education of the 20-Year-Old Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School

Abstract

The Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School celebrates its 20th anniversary in 2024. The aim of this study is to provide an overview of the changes that the institution has undergone over this period and the major milestones it has reached. The study briefly summarises the organisational structure of Chinese language education at the institution and presents quantifiable results achieved in this field. This includes the year-end assessments of students' performance in Chinese language classes, data from target language tests conducted by the Hungarian Educational Authority in Grades 6 and 8, and the results of the students' leaving examinations. Finally, the study presents the further education paths of the school's graduates, summarised by their chosen higher educational institutions.

Keywords: Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School, Chinese language education

如意

匈中双语学校20周年汉语教育里程碑与成就概览

摘要

匈中双语学校在2024年庆祝其成立20周年。本研究的目的是提供一个概述，介绍该机构在此期间所经历的变化和达到的主要里程碑。该研

究简要总结了该机构的汉语教学组织方式，并展示在这一领域取得的可量化成果。这包括学生在汉语课堂上的年终评估、匈牙利教育局在6年级和8年级进行的目标语言测试数据，以及毕业考试的结果。最后，该研究总结了毕业生升学后的专业方向，并按其报考院校进行了数据的分组归纳。

关键词：匈中双语学校，汉语教学

A Brief Overview of Chinese Language Education in Hungary

Before introducing the milestones and achievements of Chinese language education at the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School, it is necessary to briefly review the state of Chinese language education in Hungary and the position of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School within it.

The history of Chinese language education in Hungary can be traced back to over 100 years ago, to the year 1923, when the East Asian Institute was established at the predecessor institution of Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE), the University of Pázmány Péter.¹ The first Chinese Department established at ELTE trained numerous sinologists with advanced Chinese language skills, thus enabling the possibility of Chinese language education spreading to other higher educational institutions. Currently, in Hungary ELTE, Pázmány Péter Catholic University, and Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church have Chinese departments, and Budapest Business University, Dharma Gate Buddhist College, Corvinus University of Budapest, the National University of Public Service, and several other higher education institutions offer Chinese language courses.² It was until the 2000s that higher education served as the primary domain for Chinese language education in Hungary, with its main target audience primarily being the adult population, and this was also the case at language schools that had emerged at that time.

In addition to Chinese language courses offered to university students, the emergence of Confucius Institutes and Confucius Classrooms in Hungary

¹ Editors, T [Szerkesztőség, A] 2024: 209.

² Ye 2020: 136.

has made it possible for a wider audience to become acquainted with Chinese language and culture. Currently, there are five Confucius Institutes in Hungary. Among them, the ELTE Confucius Institute was the first to open its doors in 2006, followed by the establishment of the University of Szeged Confucius Institute in 2012, the University of Miskolc Confucius Institute in 2013, the Confucius Institute of Traditional Chinese Medicine at the University of Pécs in 2015, and the Debrecen University Confucius Institute in 2018.³ The opening of Confucius Institutes has provided the opportunity to offer Chinese language courses to adult learners outside of higher education, while also enabling children to become acquainted with Chinese language and culture through their programmes.

Children under 18 years of age primarily have two main options to learn Chinese language: (1) through the Confucius Classroom at their own school or (2) through a Chinese language extracurricular activity offered at their own school without a Confucius Classroom. In both cases, the children are taught by native language teachers delegated by Confucius Institutes from China. This creates an opportunity for interested pupils to become acquainted with the Chinese language and culture. Currently, there are four public educational institutions in Hungary with Confucius Classrooms: Bolyai János Gymnasium in Kecskemét (opened in 2009), the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary School (under its former name; opened in 2011), the Eötvös József High School in Szeged (opened in 2019),⁴ and the Bánki Donát Street Primary School of Pécs (opened in 2022)⁵. The opportunity for learning Chinese language is already available in several public educational institutions, through extracurricular activities, and/or as part of the Chinese as a second/foreign language subject.

A significant turning point in Chinese language education in Hungary was marked by the establishment of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School, founded in 2004 and expanded with a high school in 2016. It was the first institution in Hungary where Chinese language became part of the mandatory curriculum, and it set the teaching of Chinese language as a first foreign language from Grade 1 of primary school as an

³ Simay, Fan 2020: 10–11.

⁴ Simay, Fan 2020: 11.

⁵ https://pte.hu/sites/pte.hu/files/share/Sajtokozlomenyek/2023/Sajt%C3%B3anyag_%20ETK_Konfuciusz_230619.doc (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

aim.⁶ Chinese language education is slowly but steadily gaining more ground in Hungarian public education, with Chinese language learning opportunities appearing in an increasing number of institutions.

The Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School celebrates its 20th anniversary in 2024. As there is currently no comprehensive English language study available yet on the overview of the school’s 20 years of development, its organisational structure, and results in Chinese language education, this article attempts to fill this gap. Over the past 20 years, the institution has undergone significant changes, and it may serve as inspiration for other educational institutions in the future. In Hungary, it can be considered a pioneer in this regard, as it may provide guidance to other public educational institutions to develop similarly well-established Chinese language education systems thereby further expanding Chinese language education in Hungary’s public education institutions.

The Foundation of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary School

The Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School plays a unique role in Chinese language education in the Central and Eastern European region. This institution is the only publicly funded full-time educational institution in the region where Chinese language education has been part of the local curriculum for 12 years and where instruction is conducted in both Chinese and the local language—in this case, Hungarian. The establishment of the school was significant, firstly because it integrated Chinese language education into the primary education system in Hungary⁷ and secondly because educating Hungarian youth who understand and speak Chinese, and are familiar with Chinese culture and the Chinese mindset, contributes to the continuous nurturing of talent and ensures the ongoing development of economic, cultural, and social relations between Hungary and the People’s Republic of China. With the establishment of the school, in Hungary this school became the first to make it possible for elementary school children

⁶ Ye 2020: 136.

⁷ *Ibid.*

to receive Chinese language education within the school framework through the study of Chinese as a first foreign language from Grade 1 onwards.

The idea of establishing the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary School arose in 2003. During an official visit to China between 27 and 29 August, 2003, former Prime Minister of Hungary Péter Medgyessy mentioned the establishment of a Hungarian–Chinese school to the Chinese party. The goal was to establish the school in cooperation with the Chinese party, considering the mutual interests of Hungary and China. Both the Hungarian and Chinese parties were interested in the establishment of a Hungarian–Chinese school. The large Chinese community living in Hungary expressed the need for establishing a school not only where Chinese children can participate in high-quality education, but also where they have the opportunity to learn the Chinese language and script, preserve their mother tongue and culture, and maintain their identity. The original goal of the school was to facilitate the integration of Chinese children into Hungarian society. However, a significant portion of Hungarian educational institutions were not prepared to teach Hungarian as a foreign language to foreign students, so Chinese children often naturally acquired the Hungarian language with varying degrees of success.⁸ Based on multicultural educational principles, they considered a school type where Chinese, Hungarian, and students from other countries could learn together according to their specific needs to be the most suitable. The Hungarian party was also interested in establishing a Hungarian–Chinese educational institution, because China’s rapid economic growth makes it increasingly necessary for more Hungarian people to understand and speak the Chinese language and to be familiar with Chinese culture and the Chinese mindset. Therefore, as a publicly funded educational institution, the school offers tuition-free education, allowing Hungarian students to learn the Chinese language and cultural knowledge within the school framework.⁹

The institution was initially located at 2–4 Kavicsos köz in the 15th District of Budapest in the building of the Printing Industry Vocational School, which is owned by the Municipality of Budapest. The city provided the building to the school’s operator for 50 years free of charge based on an agreement. The school commenced its operation in September 2004 as a tuition-free pri-

⁸ https://www.magyar-kinai.hu/iskolai_dokumentumok/intezmenyvezetoi_palyazat_2017.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

⁹ <http://www.nefmi.gov.hu/nemzetkozi-kapcsolatok/2004/osszefoglalo-magyar> (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

mary school, initially accommodating Grades 1–8, under the Institution Maintenance Service of the Ministry of Education (OMSZI) Nonprofit Ltd.¹⁰ The school operated in this building until the end of the 2015/2016 school year.

Major Milestones in the Development of the Institution

Since its establishment in 2004, the institution has been under the leadership of four directors: Péter Vigh,¹¹ János Farkas, Gusztávné Lindner,¹² and Zsuzsanna Erdélyi. The institution's current leader, Zsuzsanna Erdélyi had been serving as the deputy director of the institution since 2006, and from the school year 2009/2010, she continued her work as the director appointed by the then operator of the institution, OMSZI Nonprofit Ltd. Subsequently, she received multiple consecutive appointments for five-year terms as the leader of the institution by the operator (even after the change in operator).¹³ Her current appointment lasts until 2027.

A milestone can be marked by the 2008 Beijing Olympics, after which the number of Hungarian students applying to the institution significantly increased. Until then, most of the students had been Chinese. Today, approximately three-quarters of the institution's students are Hungarian, with only about one-quarter being Chinese. Due to the reversal in the ratio of Hungarian and Chinese students, the institution underwent a shift in focus, with Hungarian students also receiving an increased concentration on Chinese language and culture education,¹⁴ which involves both native Chinese language teachers and Hungarian native-speaking Chinese teachers. Despite the presence of many Hungarian students, it remains a goal to provide Chinese students with the opportunity to prepare for the Hungarian leaving examinations. Furthermore, alongside obtaining their leaving exam certificate, Chinese students in the institution continue to have the opportunity to nurture their

¹⁰ <http://www.nefmi.gov.hu/nemzetkozi-kapcsolatok/2004/osszefoglalo-magyar> (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

¹¹ Vámos 2006: 79.

¹² I would like to express my gratitude to Zsuzsanna Erdélyi, the current head of the institution, for providing the names of the institute's former leaders.

¹³ https://www.magyar-kinai.hu/iskolai_dokumentumok/intezmenyvezetoi_palyazat_2017.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

¹⁴ Kecsmár 2018: 11.

native language and acquire cultural knowledge about their homeland through native Chinese language classes.

On 16 June 2011, in collaboration of the ELTE Confucius Institute, a Confucius Classroom was established at the school. In 2014, the school received a Chinese–Hungarian Friendship Award from the Great Wall Hungarian–Chinese Friendship Association.¹⁵ This also demonstrates that through education, the school significantly contributes to the development of bilateral relations between the two countries.

Since 2015, the opportunity has arisen to organise student exchange programmes between the two countries, and starting from 2016, children have had the opportunity to participate in camps in China,¹⁶ including a kung fu camp that takes place in Guangzhou, Guangdong Province, China, which is organised by the International Chan Wu Federation. Participating in the camp allows the children to experience traditional Chinese kung fu and to visit cultural landmarks in Guangdong Province, China.¹⁷

The year 2016 marked several significant milestones in the school's history. Firstly, the school started phasing in high school year groups, leading to the change of the school's name to the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School. Additionally, in 2016 the school came under the supervision of the Klebelsberg Institution Maintenance Centre's 15th District Office, which has operated under the name North Pest District Educational Centre from 1 January 2017. In the same year, the school moved to a new building located at 57 Neptun Street in the 15th District, which provided sufficient space for the new secondary school.

The Chinese Ambassador Scholarship, also established in 2016, was first awarded to outstanding students in 2017. Initially eight students each year received the scholarship, but now generally 10–15 students are recipients. Each school year, usually during the Chinese New Year celebration, the Ambassador (Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary) of the People's Republic of China in Hungary visits the school and awards students with certificates and scholarships.

¹⁵ https://www.magyar-kinai.hu/iskolai_dokumentumok/intezmenyvezetoi_palyazat_2017.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

¹⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁷ <https://www.chinaqw.com/hwjy/2016/06-21/92552.shtml> (last accessed: 27.07.2024)

In 2017, the independent Confucius Classroom of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School was inaugurated.¹⁸

In spring 2020, the first graduating secondary school class took their school leaving examinations. Since then, students from the school, including both Hungarian and Chinese students, have taken the Chinese language school leaving examination every fall and spring. There are students every year who take their Chinese language school leaving exam at the intermediate level, and there are students who take the exam at the advanced level.

Changes in the Number of Students Attending the School

In the 2004/2005 school year, the school opened its doors with 87 pupils. According to data from January 2005, 73% of the school's pupils were native Chinese speakers, 24% were native Hungarian speakers, and 2% were native Arabic speakers. Most of the Chinese students were citizens of China who had been born in Hungary.¹⁹ The school started the 2023/2024 school year with a total of 526 students across its 12 grades. It can be said that over the past 20 years, the number of students in the school has roughly increased sixfold, indicating an increasing demand for learning Chinese among younger generations in Hungary. Generally, at the lower primary level (Grades 1–4), there are approximately 25–30 students per class, while at the upper primary level (Grades 5–8), there are around 24–28 students per class. The ratio of Hungarian native-speaking students is higher in the lower grades, accounting for more than 70%.²⁰

The diagram below (Diagram 1) shows the change in the number of students at the school over the past 20 years. From the school year 2012/2013 onwards, the enrolment data has been summarised based on the annual reports of the principal of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School, broken down into numbers at the beginning and end of the

¹⁸ Since the submission of the manuscript, the school reached another milestone on 3 July 2024: the Confucius Institute of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School was inaugurated.

¹⁹ Vámos 2006: 79; 85–86.

²⁰ Kecsmár 2018: 10.

school year. The data indicates that the number of students fluctuates even within one school year, showing relatively high turnover, which exhibits migratory characteristics.²¹

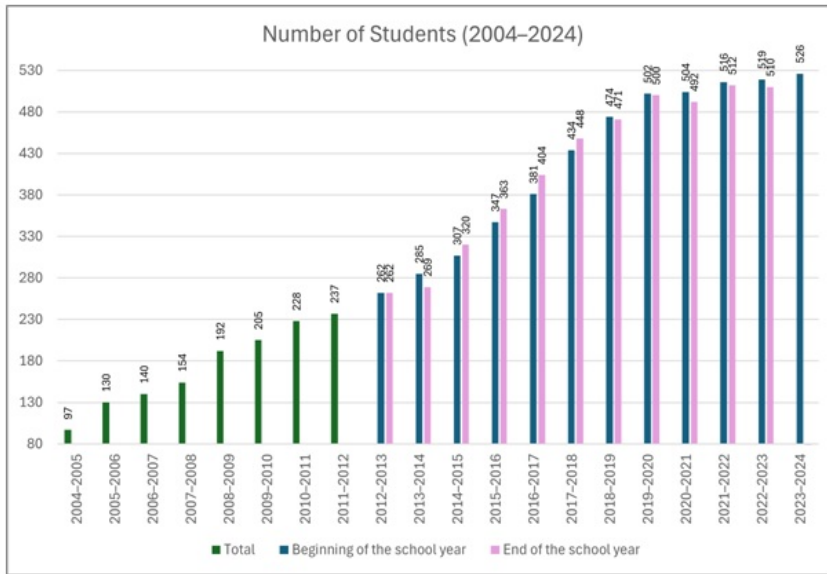


Diagram 1: Change in the Number of Students at the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School²²

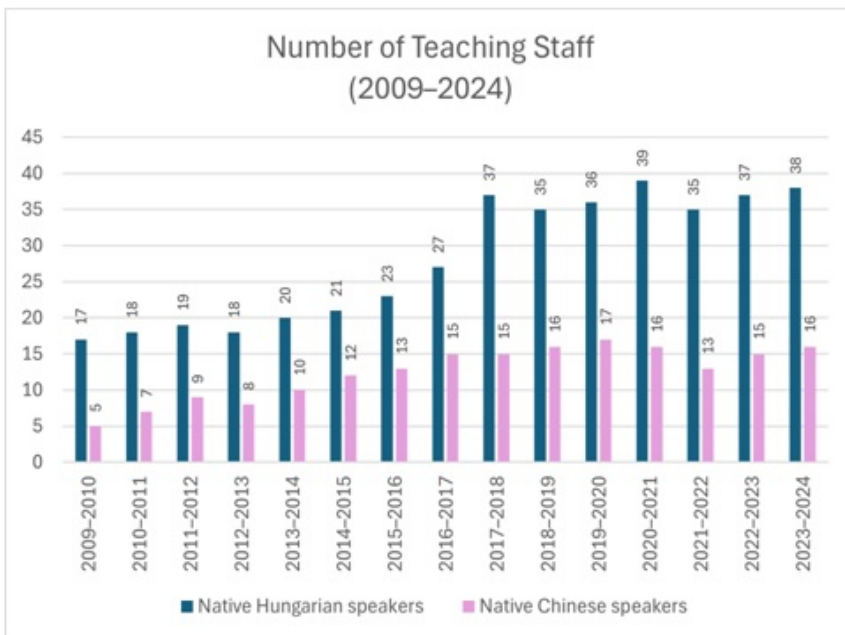
Change in the Number of Teaching Staff at the School

There has been a high level of interest in the school over the past eight years, ensuring the opening of two classes (Class A and Class B) at each primary school level, and since the 2016/2017 school year, the introduction of new high school classes has also increased the number of students in the institution. With the opening of more classes, the increased number of students, and the larger number of study hours, a larger teaching staff became necessary. Since its establishment, both Hungarian- and Chinese-speaking teachers have been working at the school. Among the Chinese teachers working at the

²¹ Vámos 2006: 87.

²² Special thanks to Zsuzsanna Erdélyi, the principal, for providing the enrolment data between the school years 2004/2005 and 2011/2012.

institution, there are few Chinese teachers who permanently reside in Hungary. Rather, most of them are native Chinese language teachers delegated to Hungary from the People's Republic of China. In September of the 2004/2005 school year, the teaching staff consisted of 20 people (12 Hungarian and eight Chinese speakers). Over the past 20 years, the number of teaching staff has significantly increased. The diagram below (Diagram 2) shows the change in the number of teaching staff broken down by school year from the 2009/2010 school year onwards. These data are also based on the annual reports of the principal of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School, summarised from the annual work plan for the 2023/2024 school year.



*Diagram 2: Change in the Number of Teaching Staff
(Including All the Teachers Teaching Every Subject)
at the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School²³*

²³ Special thanks to Zsuzsanna Erdélyi, the principal, for providing the data.

The Development and Current State of the Chinese Language Education in the School

The Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School provides the education of Chinese as a foreign language to non-native Chinese-speaking students starting from Grade 1 and Chinese language and literature classes for native Chinese-speaking students as taught in China. At the school, Chinese is the first foreign language, and from Grade 4, students start learning English as their second foreign language.

Chinese language education at the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School is detailed in the school’s educational programme. Currently, a total of 526 students are enrolled in 20 classes across 12 grades. In the primary school, there are two classes per grade (Class A and Class B), and in the high school, there is one class per grade (Class A).

Chinese language education is conducted in multiple groups at each level. At the lower primary level (Grades 1–4), children learn Chinese in four groups per grade. Non-native Chinese-speaking students are divided into three groups per grade: one group consists only of Class A students, another of Class B students, and a third group combines students from both Class A and Class B. Additionally, there is a group for native Chinese-speaking students, which is also a mixed group from both classes per grade. At the upper primary level (Grades 5–8), students learn Chinese in three different proficiency levels (I, II, and native). In high school, due to students coming from other primary schools without prior Chinese language education, Chinese is taught in three groups (beginner, advanced, and native).

Before 2019, the timetable included five mandatory Chinese lessons per week for all classes, with an additional optional Chinese lesson as part of an afternoon study group, which operated with high enrolment for years before the 2019/2020 school year. Due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, fewer native Chinese language teachers worked at the school in the following school year, making it necessary to hire more Hungarian native Chinese language teachers. Thus, from the 2020/2021 school year to the 2021/2022 school year, the schedule for Chinese language education changed: the compulsory five weekly Chinese lessons were maintained, but a Chinese native-speaking teacher and a Hungarian native-speaking Chinese teacher together taught the children in the compulsory Chinese lessons, forming teaching pairs. In the lower primary grades, this meant five lessons per week, with three

lessons taught by the native Chinese teacher and two by the Hungarian teacher. In the upper primary grades, the division was four lessons taught by the native Chinese teacher and one by the Hungarian teacher. This effectively integrated the previously optional study group into the compulsory Chinese lessons from 2020 onward. From the 2022/2023 school year, due to a decrease in the number of Hungarian native Chinese teachers and their teaching hours, the four-to-one ratio was discontinued in the upper primary grades, and students now meet the native Chinese teacher five times a week, while in the lower primary grades, the four-to-one ratio continues.

In addition to the weekly five Chinese language lessons, as a bilingual school, the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School also offers other subjects taught in Chinese for primary school students at all grades. In high school, this is not possible, as it is not a bilingual programme, but rather an increased number of Chinese language lessons are offered. The subjects taught in Chinese at the primary school, along with the weekly lesson numbers, are shown in the following table by grade level (Table 1).

Grade	Subjects Taught in Chinese (Hours per Week)
Grade 1	Music (1), Visual Culture (1)
Grade 2	Music (1), Visual Culture (1)
Grade 3	Music (1), Visual Culture (1)
Grade 4	Music (1), Visual Culture (1)
Grade 5	Visual Culture (1), Digital Culture (1), Target Language Civilisation (1)
Grade 6	Visual Culture (1), Digital Culture (1), Target Language Civilisation (1)
Grade 7	Visual Culture (1), Digital Culture (1), Target Language Civilisation (1)
Grade 8	Visual Culture (1), Digital Culture (1), Target Language Civilisation (1)

Table 1: Subjects Taught in Chinese (Hours per Week) in Primary School

The School Curriculum

In the Chinese language classes, the following textbooks are used: in Year 1, students learn from the *Chinese Paradise* (Hanyu leyuan 汉语乐园) textbook and workbook. From Year 2 onwards, up to the advanced high school groups, students use the *Easy Steps to Chinese* (Qingsong xue zhongwen 轻松学中文) textbook series, although the English edition is used. Students who started

learning Chinese in Year 1 of primary school and continue their studies through high school use volumes 1–7 of the *Easy Steps to Chinese* series from Year 2 to Year 12. By the end of Year 8, students typically reach volume 4 of the *Easy Steps to Chinese* series, while faster groups can reach volume 5. Newly enrolled students in Year 9 join the high school beginners' Chinese group and start with the *New Practical Chinese Reader* (Xin shiyong hanyu keben 新实用汉语课本) series. Students in native Chinese-speaking groups study from the *Yuwen* (Yuwen 语文) series, which is also used in China. Since most students at the school learn from the *Easy Steps to Chinese* series, most of the vocabulary and grammatical structures that must be mastered in Chinese as a foreign language classes are encompassed by this series, making the usage of this schoolbook family the focal point of the school's Chinese language education.

Among the subjects taught in Chinese, the curriculum (which includes teacher-made materials) for the Chinese Target Language Civilisation subject is currently awaiting publication and is being revised and finalised by the Hungarian native Chinese language teacher who teaches the subject in Grade 5 to Grade 8 and who is the author of this study. In Visual Culture classes, occasionally, though not on a weekly basis, art-related publications in Chinese, donated from China and designed for native speakers, are used. Currently, there are no Chinese-language textbooks available for the Digital Culture subject.

School Averages in Chinese Language Studies

Students' proficiency in Chinese can be measured in numerous ways. Interesting data on their Chinese language levels can be obtained from their results on the YCT and HSK exams. Every year, many students participate in the YCT and HSK exams; however, the school does not currently require the children to take these exams or pass them. Therefore, it is not possible to summarise these exam results within the scope of this study.

In this study, students' Chinese language proficiency is assessed through school grades, target language assessments organised by the Educational Authority in Grade 6 and Grade 8, and the results of the leaving examination at the end of Grade 12.

School grades also reflect the effectiveness of students' Chinese language learning. In the Hungarian education system, grades range from 1 to 5: the lowest grade is 1 (insufficient), followed by 2 (sufficient), 3 (average), 4 (good), and 5 (excellent), which is the highest grade. Grades are determined based on percentage categories. The educational programme of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School defines the grades for comprehensive tests in primary school according to the following percentage categories (Table 2).²⁴

Percentage ranges	Grade
90–100%	5 (excellent)
80–89%	4 (good)
65–79%	3 (average)
50–64%	2 (sufficient)
0–49%	1 (insufficient)

Table 2: Percentage Ranges for Chinese Language Comprehensive Tests in Primary School Defined by the Educational Programme of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School²⁵

The educational programme defines the grades for comprehensive tests in high school according to the following percentage ranges (Table 3).

Percentage ranges	Grade
85–100%	5 (excellent)
70–84%	4 (good)
60–69%	3 (average)
45–59%	2 (sufficient)
0–44%	1 (insufficient)

Table 3: Percentage Ranges for Chinese Language Comprehensive Tests in High School Defined by the Educational Programme of the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School²⁶

²⁴ Since the submission of the manuscript, the school's educational program has been revised, and new percentage categories have been established.

²⁵ https://magyar-kinai.hu/iskolai_dokumentumok/MA_KI_pp_2020.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

At the school, the testing and assessment of students' knowledge take various forms. Grades can be given for quizzes, comprehensive tests, oral examinations, homework, etc. For subjects with more than three hours of class time per week, student work must be evaluated with at least two grades per month.²⁷ According to the educational programme, at mid-year and at the end of the school year, the semester and year-end grades are determined based on the following principles²⁸ when calculating the average of these grades: a student receives a grade of 2 (sufficient) if their average is above 1.8 and a grade of 1 (insufficient) if their average is below 1.6, and grades are decided by the teacher for averages between 1.6 and 1.8. For the other grades, students' grades are rounded down if their average ends in 0 to .4 and rounded up if it ends in .7 or higher; in between, the teacher decides based on the student's performance.²⁹ This grading system applies equally to groups learning Chinese as a native language and to those learning it as a foreign language.

The table below (Table 4) summarises the year-end school averages in Chinese language and a subject taught in Chinese (i.e., Target Language Civilisation), considering the grading categories mentioned above. According to the table's data, it is noteworthy that the annual school average has shown an increase in recent years. Comparing the school average in Chinese language with that in Target Language Civilisation, a significant difference in the school average has been observed since the 2020/2021 school year. One reason for this could be that by this school year, the students of all four grades of high school had been enrolled not primarily at the initiative of their parents but out of their own interest and greater motivation. Currently, the Target Language Civilisation subject is only taught in Grades 5–8 of primary school, not in high school, which may also contribute to the difference in averages. The table shows (Table 4) the averages based on data available from the institution head's year-end reports starting from the 2010/2011 school year:

²⁶ https://magyar-kinai.hu/iskolai_dokumentumok/MA_KI_pp_2020.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

²⁷ Since the submission of the manuscript, the school's educational program has been revised, and the frequency of the evaluation of the students' work has been changed.

²⁸ Since the submission of the manuscript, the school's educational program has been revised, and the method for calculating the average of these grades has been modified.

²⁹ https://magyar-kinai.hu/iskolai_dokumentumok/MA_KI_pp_2020.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

School year	School average grade in Chinese Language, end of school year	School average grade in Chinese as a Foreign Language, end of school year	School average grade in Target Language Civilisation, end of school year
2010/2011	4.26		-
2011/2012	3.83	4.16	-
2012/2013	4.04	4.08	-
2013/2014	4.22	4.37	4.04
2014/2015	4.40	4.36	4.11
2015/2016	4.48	4.46	4.51
2016/2017	4.19		4.18
2017/2018	4.36		4.20
2018/2019	4.41		4.43
2019/2020	4.47		4.35
2020/2021	4.43		4.12
2021/2022	4.45		4.14
2022/2023	4.51		4.09

Table 4: School Average Grade in Chinese Language, Chinese as a Foreign Language, and Target Language Civilisation, Respectively, End of School Year, Between 2010 and 2023³⁰

The year-end school results show that over the past 10 years, students have consistently achieved an average grade above 4 (good) in their studies.

Measurement of Students' Language Proficiency: Target Language Assessment

Beyond school grades, starting from the 2013/2014 school year, the Educational Authority has implemented a national-level target language assessment in bilingual primary schools. This assessment is conducted in Grades 6 and 8 towards the end of the second semester of each school year. The goal for Grade 6 students is to reach the A2 level and for Grade 8 students the B1 level. At the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School, the target language assessment is conducted in Chinese, while in other educational institutions, it is conducted in English or German. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the target language assessment was cancelled in the 2019/2020 school year, so no data is available for that year. Results of the target language as-

³⁰ Special thanks to Zsuzsanna Erdélyi, the principal, for providing the data.

assessments from the 2013/2014 to 2020/2021 academic years are publicly available on the Educational Authority's portal. From the 2021/2022 academic year onwards, the results of the target language assessments are no longer published by the Educational Authority and thus are not included in the table below (Table 5). However, the available data show that between 2014 and 2021, most of the students passed the national target language assessment. The table below (Table 5) summarises the percentage of students who achieved a passing grade, as compiled by the Educational Authority. Since there is only one Chinese bilingual primary school in Hungary, these data represent the results of the students at the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School.

Language	Grade	Year	Average score ³¹	Percentage of the students reaching the passing grade (%)
Chinese	Grade 6	2014		100
		2015		100
		2016		92.0
		2017	52.7	97.6
		2018	48.5	94.1
		2019		89.5
		2021	45.1	78.9
	Grade 8	2014		92.3
		2015		100
		2016		86.4
		2017	51.6	96.7
		2018	51.4	92.3
		2019		89.2
		2021	44.9	60.0

Table 5: The Average Scores Achieved by Students and the Percentage of Students Who Received a Passing Grade, by Language and Grade, from 2014 to 2021³²

³¹ In 2017, 2018, and 2021, the maximum score was 60 points (instead of 100).

³² https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/kozoktatasi/meresek/orszmer2021/Celnyelvi2021_Eredmenyekosszesitese.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

The School Leaving Examination

At the school, the greatest challenge for students in the Chinese language subject is participating in the school leaving exam. In Hungary, it has been possible to take the intermediate-level school leaving exam in Chinese as a foreign language since 2011, and since 2015, it has also been possible to take the advanced-level exam. The intermediate-level exam corresponds to the B1 level, while the advanced-level exam corresponds to the B2 level.³³

The Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School’s first graduating class participated in the Chinese school leaving exam in 2020. Participation in the Chinese school leaving exam is not mandatory; students can choose it as a foreign language exam subject. The following table shows the number of graduating students and their results. It is important to note that in Hungary, both Hungarian- and Chinese-speaking students can take the Chinese as a foreign language leaving examination. Therefore, among the examinees listed in the table below (Table 6), there are varying proportions of Hungarian- and Chinese-speaking students.

The available school leaving exam results also show that at both the intermediate and advanced levels, in most cases, it is possible to achieve an average score of over 90%. The school average in every school leaving exam tends towards a grade of 5 (excellent), indicating that graduating students manage to reach an intermediate level (B1, B2) of Chinese proficiency during their high school years.

³³ https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/kozoktatas/erettségi/vizsgakovetelmenyek2024/elo_id_nyelv_2024_e.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

Year	Semester	Level	Number of Students	School average	
2020 ³⁴	Spring (usual)	Intermediate	10	94.60%	5.00
		Advanced	9	86.44%	5.00
	Autumn (extraordinary)	Intermediate	9	95.22%	5.00
2021 ³⁵	Spring (extraordinary)	Intermediate	3	91.33%	5.00
		Advanced	5	90.00%	5.00
	Spring (usual)	Intermediate	9	89.11%	4.78
		Advanced	4	90.00%	5.00
	Autumn (extraordinary)	Intermediate	10	94.60%	5.00
2022 ³⁶	Spring (extraordinary)	Intermediate	6	87.17%	4.83
		Advanced	7	93.71%	5.00
	Spring (usual)	Intermediate	15	85.04%	4.87
		Advanced	7	82.43%	5.00
	Autumn (extraordinary)	Intermediate	11	96.45%	5.00
		Advanced	5	90.00%	5.00
2023 ³⁷	Spring (extraordinary)	Intermediate	3	N/A	
		Advanced	8	95.50%	5.00
	Spring (usual)	Intermediate	3	N/A ³⁸	
	Autumn (extraordinary) ³⁹	Intermediate	13	98.31%	5.00
		Advanced	2	81.50%	5.00

Table 6: The Results of the Chinese Language Leaving Examinations, from 2020 to 2023

Further Education

Among the graduating classes, there is a high proportion of students continuing their studies in higher education. The following table (Table 7) summarises the higher education institutions where students have been admitted starting from the academic year 2019/2020, (i.e., from the first graduating class onwards).

³⁴ https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/2020_eredmenyek.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

³⁵ https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/2021_eredmenyek.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

³⁶ https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/2022_eredmenyek.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

³⁷ https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/2023_eredmenyek_tavasz.pdf (last accessed: 31.05.2024)

³⁸ The small number of participating students' results in the data is due to privacy protection.

³⁹ Special thanks to Andrea Szénási, the vice-principal, for providing the data.

University	Degree	Number of Students	Academic Year
IMC University of Applied Sciences Krems, Austria	Business Administration	1	2022/2023
Budapest Business University (BGE), Hungary	Business Informatics	1	2022/2023
	Trade and Marketing (in English)	4	2019/2020
	International Business Management	2	2022/2023
	International Business Management (in English)	1	2019/2020
		1	2020/2021
		3	2021/2022
Budapest University of Technology and Economics (BME), Hungary	Tourism and Hospitality Management	2	2019/2020
		1	2020/2021
	Architectural Engineering	1	2020/2021
Capital Normal University, Beijing, China	Business and Management	1	2019/2020
	Automotive Engineering	2	2020/2021
Capital Normal University, Beijing, China	Chinese Language	1	2022/2023
Capital Normal University, Beijing, China	International Chinese Language Teacher	3	2022/2023
Corvinus University of Budapest (BCE), Hungary	Business Informatics	2	2019/2020
	Communication and Media Studies	2	2021/2022
		1	2022/2023
	International Business Management (in English)	2	2021/2022
University College Nordjylland, Denmark	International Studies (in English)	1	2020/2021
	Hospitality, Tourism and Management	1	2020/2021
Delft University of Technology, the Netherlands	Engineering Informatics	1	2022/2023
University of Debrecen (DE), Hungary	Horticultural Engineering	1	2022/2023
Eszterházy Károly Catholic University (EKE), Eger, Hungary	Computer Science	1	2020/2021
Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE), Budapest, Hungary	Faculty of Law and Political Sciences	1	2022/2023
	English Studies	1	2021/2022
	English Language and Culture, Mathematics Teacher	1	2022/2023
	Human Resources	2	2022/2023
	Law	1	2020/2021
	East Asian Languages and Culture	2	2022/2023
	East Asian Languages and Cultures (Japanese)	1	2020/2021
	Eastern Languages and Cultures, Chinese Specialisation	1	2020/2021
	Eastern Languages and Culture, Mathematics Teacher	1	2022/2023
	International Business	2	2021/2022

University	Degree	Number of Students	Academic Year
Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE), Budapest, Hungary	Management (in English)		
	International Studies	2	2021/2022
		2	2022/2023
	Undivided Teaching – Biology and Chinese Language and Culture Teacher	1	2021/2022
	Finance and Accounting	1	2019/2020
	Primary Education	1	2020/2021
N/A, China			
Jinan University, Guangzhou, China	Economics	2	2020/2021
Peking University, Beijing, China	International Studies, Scholarship Programme	1	2019/2020
Tsinghua University, Beijing, China/BME	Electrical Engineering	1	2020/2021
Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary (KRE), Budapest, Hungary	Faculty of Law and Political Sciences	1	2022/2023
	International Studies	1	2020/2021
	Kindergarten Teacher	1	2020/2021
	Psychology	1	2021/2022
	Sociology	2	2022/2023
Hungarian University of Agriculture and Life Sciences (MATE), Hungary	Agricultural Engineering	1	2021/2022
	Equine Husbandry and Equestrian Sport Management	1	2021/2022
Ludovika University of Public Service (NKE), Budapest, Hungary	International Security and Defense Policy	1	2020/2021
		1	2021/2022
	International Administration	1	2022/2023
Pázmány Péter Catholic University (PPKE), Budapest, Hungary	Faculty of Law and Political Sciences	1	2022/2023
	Law	1	2021/2022
	Eastern Languages and Cultures	1	2019/2020
	Eastern Languages and Cultures, Chinese Specialization	1	2019/2020
		1	2019/2020
	International Studies	1	2020/2021
		1	2021/2022
	Hungarian Language, Literature, Drama, Theatre Studies Teacher	1	2021/2022
	Molecular Bionics Engineering	1	2021/2022
	Sociology	2	2019/2020
Semmelweis University (SE), Budapest, Hungary	Nursing and Patient Care (Midwife)	1	2020/2021
	Nursing	1	2021/2022
Széchenyi University of Győr (SZIE), Hungary	Engineering Informatics	1	2022/2023
University of Szeged (SZTE), Hungary	Liberal Arts	1	2021/2022

*Table 7: The Results of Graduated High School Students’
Higher Education Admissions*⁴⁰

⁴⁰ https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/felsooktatasi_felveteli_eredmenyek_2019_20.pdf
(last accessed: 31.05.2024)

https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/felsooktatasi_felveteli_eredmenyek_2020_21.pdf
(last accessed: 31.05.2024)

https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/felsooktatasi_felveteli_eredmenyek_2021_22.pdf
(last accessed: 31.05.2024)

https://magyar-kinai.hu/images/felsooktatasi_felveteli_eredmenyek_2022_23.pdf
(last accessed: 31.05.2024)

Based on the post-secondary education data, it can be seen that in the previous years, the majority of students continued their studies at ELTE and PPKE. It is worth mentioning that several students chose programmes related to Chinese language or Chinese language teaching both in Hungary and China. This is significant because upon completing these programmes, these students can later find employment as teachers of Chinese language in Hungarian educational institutions, which could potentially expand Chinese language education to more schools and enhance the overall quality of Chinese language education in public primary and secondary schools. These students already possessed a high level of proficiency in Chinese language when they applied to these higher educational institutions. Several students also chose programmes such as international studies, law, engineering, and computer science, which, when combined with their knowledge of Chinese language, will enable them to pursue careers that can further strengthen the relations and cooperation between Hungary and China.

Summary

The Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School stands as a unique entity among institutions teaching the Chinese language, being capable of providing its students Chinese language education on a daily basis for all 12 grades. Over its 20 years of existence, not only has the number of students multiplied, but the quality of Chinese language education has also been elevated to a high standard. This is evidenced by the results detailed in the study, which can be substantiated with numbers. Not only the strong grades (as reflected in their GPAs above 4.0) but also the students' successful performance in the proficiency assessments organised by the Educational Authority demonstrate that Chinese language education is effective for most of the students in primary school, with students potentially reaching the A2 and B1 levels by the end of primary school. The excellent graduation results in Chinese language prove that after graduating from high school, students can acquire strong B1- and B2-level Chinese language skills, enabling them to potentially apply to Chinese higher educational institutions for further studies. Thus, the Hungarian–Chinese Bilingual Primary and Secondary School can provide a unique opportunity for its students in Hungary.

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