欧洲中文教育

JOURNAL OF CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN EUROPE

01/2026

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Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe 欧洲中文教育 is
an international, peer-reviewed academic journal published twice a year
by the Institute of East Asian Studies, Faculty of Humanities
of Eötvös Loránd University.

Responsible Editor 责任编辑: Dr. Imre HAMAR 郝清新博士

Technical Editing: Edina TERJÉK
Cover illustration by Katalin VILIMI

ISSN 3004-2291 (Print)
ISSN 3004-1198 (Online)

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Foreword by the Editor-in-Chief of Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe

Language is the carrier of civilisation. As one of the most widely spoken languages in the world, Chinese attracts learners across the globe with its profound cultural heritage and vibrant modern presence. In this context, the *Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe* was established to serve as an open, diverse, and innovative academic platform—one that brings together cutting-edge research in Chinese language education and fosters academic exchange and practical exploration in the field of international Chinese education.

Since its inception, the journal has adhered to the principle of 'based in Europe, facing the world'. Although 'Europe' is part of our name, our perspective is by no means limited by geographic boundaries. Instead, we aim to reflect global trends, theoretical innovations, and practical advancements in Chinese language education. We welcome submissions from researchers and practitioners of all nationalities and cultural backgrounds to jointly explore the opportunities and challenges in Chinese language teaching.

The journal focuses on core topics including but not limited to

- **Teaching Theory and Methods**: Second language acquisition, curriculum design, and innovative teaching models;
- **Technology and Chinese Education**: Applications of AI, virtual reality, and big data in Chinese language teaching;
- **Intercultural Communication**: Cultural factors in language instruction and learners' cross-cultural adaptation;
- **Policy and Development**: Comparative studies of national Chinese language education policies, teacher training, and discipline development; and
- **Learner Studies**: Motivation analysis, cognitive characteristics, and learning strategies.

We encourage interdisciplinary and multi-perspective research, valuing both theoretical rigor and practical relevance. Whether empirical research, case studies, literature reviews, or reflective teaching reports, any work that offers insights into the development of Chinese language education is welcome in our journal.

As editor-in-chief, I extend my heartfelt thanks to our authors, peer reviewers, and readers. It is your wisdom and passion that allow the *Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe* to continually grow. Looking ahead, we will remain committed to academic excellence and innovation and to promoting the flourishing of global Chinese language education.

Let us move forward together, exploring a broader educational landscape at the intersection of language and culture.

Dr Ye Qiuyue

《欧洲中文教育》主编前言

语言是文明的载体，中文作为世界上使用最广泛的语言之一，正以其深厚的文化底蕴和蓬勃的现代活力吸引着全球学习者。在此背景下，《欧洲中文教育》应运而生，旨在搭建一个开放、多元、创新的学术平台，汇聚全球中文教育研究的前沿成果，促进国际中文教育领域的学术交流与实践探索。

自创刊以来，我们始终秉持“立足欧洲，面向世界”的办刊理念。尽管以“欧洲”为名，但本刊的视野绝不局限于地域边界，而是致力于反映全球中文教育的发展动态、理论创新与教学实践。我们欢迎来自不同国家、不同文化背景的研究者与实践者投稿，共同探讨中文教育的机遇与挑战。

本刊关注的核心议题包括但不限于：
教学理论与方法：二语习得研究、课程设计、教学模式创新；
技术与中文教育：人工智能、虚拟现实、大数据在中文教学中的应用；
跨文化交际：语言教学中的文化因素、学习者的跨文化适应；
政策与发展：各国中文教育政策比较、师资培养、学科建设；
学习者研究：动机分析、认知特点、学习策略等。

我们鼓励跨学科、多视角的研究，既重视理论深度，也关注实践价值。无论是实证研究、案例分析，还是文献综述、教学反思，只要对中文 教育的发展有所启迪，本刊均予以重视。

作为主编，我衷心感谢各位作者、审稿专家和读者的支持。正是你们的智慧与热情，使《欧洲中文教育》得以不断成长。未来，我们将继续坚守学术品质，推动创新，促进全球中文教育事业的繁荣发展。让我们携手同行，在语言与文化的交汇中，探索更广阔的教育图景。

叶秋月博士

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The vocabulary compatibility of the reading comprehension component of the intermediate-level written Chinese school leaving exam in Hungary with the Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education

Abstract

In recent decades, Chinese language education has gained increasing significance both globally and within Hungary's language education system. In Hungary, Chinese has been included among the optional foreign languages for the secondary school leaving examination since 2011. From 2015 onward, it has been possible to take the Chinese language exam at both intermediate and advanced levels. This study presents the characteristics of the intermediate-level Chinese school leaving exam based on publicly available official documents and exam descriptions found online. It then analyzes the vocabulary of the reading comprehension component of the intermediate-level written exam in terms of its compatibility with the Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education, published in 2021. The vocabulary of the tasks from the reading comprehension sections of the exams between 2011 and 2024 was analyzed using the Chinese Text Analyser software. The study presents the proportion of words corresponding to different language proficiency levels in percentage terms, thereby indicating the linguistic difficulty of the exam tasks. The practical value of the study lies in its potential to support not only students preparing for the exam but also future efforts in designing Chinese school leaving exam materials.

Keywords: Chinese language education, Chinese school leaving exam, vocabulary analysis

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如意

匈牙利中学毕业中文考试阅读理解试题的词汇与《国际中文教育中文水平等级标准》的匹配度研究

摘要

近年来，汉语教育在全球范围内以及匈牙利本国的语言教育中变得愈发重要。自2011年起，汉语被列为匈牙利中学毕业考试中可自由选择的现代外语科目之一。自2015年起，考生可以选择在中级和高级两个不同等级的汉语毕业考试。本研究基于公开获取的官方文件和考试说明，介绍匈牙利中级汉语毕业考试的主要特点，并重点分析了笔试中阅读理解部分的词汇，考察其与2021年发布的《国际中文教育中文水平等级标准》所设定各语言等级之间的匹配度。本研究借助 Chinese Text Analyser 软件，对2011年至2024年间的中级毕业考试阅读理解试题的词汇进行了分析。研究通过百分比的形式呈现了各语言等级词汇在文本中所占的比例，从而反映出考试材料的语言难度。本研究具有一定的实践意义，不仅能为备考汉语毕业考试的学生提供参考，同时也可为未来汉语毕业考试命题工作的改进与发展提供借鉴。

关键词：关键词：汉语教学，中学汉语毕业考试，词汇分析

Introduction

Chinese language learning is gaining increasing ground in Hungary. Initially, Chinese language education appeared in higher education, then gradually made its way into public education,[1] becoming one of the modern foreign languages taught in both primary and secondary schools—not only in Budapest, but also in several other cities across the country. The integration of Chinese language learning into public education can be attributed to the work of Confucius Institutes. It has been realized through the efforts of teachers working in both Confucius Institutes and Confucius Classrooms. Currently, there are seven Confucius Institutes operating in six Hungarian cities: Budapest, Szeged, Miskolc, Pécs,

[1] Ye 2021: 135-136.

Debrecen and Győr. Moreover, Chinese language education is also present in public education institutions of nearby towns, either as a second or third foreign language, or in the form of extracurricular classes.[2] In several secondary schools, students now also have the opportunity to take the Chinese school leaving exam.

According to data from the Hungarian Educational Authority, in May 2025, the intermediate-level Chinese school leaving exam was administered at four exam locations, while the advanced-level exam was held at two locations. In this examination period, 18 students took the intermediate-level Chinese exam, and 46 students participated in the advanced-level exam.[3] These numbers show an increase compared to publicly available data from two years earlier: in 2023, 11 students sat for the intermediate-level exam, and 35 for the advanced-level exam.[4] It is important to note that in Hungary, students whose native language is Chinese are also allowed to take the Chinese as a foreign language school leaving exam. This may explain the higher participation rate in the advanced-level exam.

Hungarian native speaker students learning Chinese often ask how they can effectively prepare for the Chinese school leaving exam, as there are currently no publications available on the Hungarian book market specifically designed for this purpose. Although it is commonly understood that the intermediate-level foreign language school leaving exam corresponds to Level B1 of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), the question still frequently arises as to which level of the HSK (*Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* – Chinese Proficiency Test) best matches the vocabulary used in the exam. This question forms the basis for the relevance of the present study.

Purpose and Methodology of the Study

The aim of this study is to present the intermediate-level Chinese language school leaving exam in Hungary—its structure and exam requirements—based on publicly available information and documents accessible online. This may serve as a useful resource for students preparing for the exam. Another goal of the study is to provide an initial overview of where the vocabulary used in the reading comprehension tasks of the intermediate-level written Chinese exam generally falls within the levels defined by the Chinese Proficiency Grading

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2 Karsai 2024: 92–93.

3 https://www.oktatas.hu/kozneveles/erettsegi/2025tavaszi_vizsgaidoszak/erettsegi_info_2025tavasz (last accessed: 17.05.2025)

4 *Ibid.*

Standards for International Chinese Language Education published in 2021, thereby offering an indication of the difficulty level of the exam tasks.

The sample examined in this study consists of every reading comprehension tasks from all intermediate-level written Chinese school leaving exams in Hungary, covering the years 2011 to 2024. These are available on the website of the Hungarian Educational Authority. These tasks include the reading texts and the related comprehension questions. The study focuses specifically on the vocabulary used in these tasks. The vocabulary is analyzed based on the proficiency levels defined in the Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education, published in 2021. The study presents the percentage distribution of the vocabulary according to these levels, aiming to map the compatibility between the vocabulary used in the reading comprehension tasks of the Chinese school leaving exam and the aforementioned Standards.

Although, due to the characteristics of the Chinese language and the difficulties in defining what constitutes a "word", the length of the reading tasks and the writing tasks in the exam is officially measured in number of characters. A character-based analysis would in fact be simpler to carry out, such an approach would not adequately indicate the approximate vocabulary level of the intermediate-level exam. Therefore, this study is an attempt to analyze the vocabulary, using the Chinese Text Analyser software to review and determine the proportional distribution of vocabulary levels.

The practical significance of this study lies in the method used to classify the vocabulary level of the exam tasks, which may contribute to future research—such as exam analyses, textbook development, or the item-writing process for the Chinese school leaving exam. The study also outlines the limitations of the current analysis, and thus the percentage-based data presented should be interpreted as indicative only, taking these limitations into account and ideally in conjunction with a close reading of the actual exam tasks. Due to these limitations, the present research primarily serves as a preliminary study that may support similar future investigations.

The Relationship Between Vocabulary Coverage and Reading Comprehension

Vocabulary coverage is a key factor in foreign language reading comprehension. Numerous studies have shown that the proportion of unknown words in a text significantly affects the success of comprehension. In this area, research has primarily focused on English-language vocabulary.

Laufer (1989) found that a 95% vocabulary coverage is necessary for adequate reading comprehension. In other words, if a learner knows less than this, their understanding of the text is likely to decline. However, it is not necessary to understand every single word when reading a text—some words can be ignored if they are not essential to grasping the overall meaning. Additionally, there are words whose meanings can be inferred from the context.[5] According to Hu and Nation (2000), a 98% vocabulary coverage is required for learners to understand a literary text without assistance. At 90–95% coverage, only some readers are able to achieve adequate comprehension, while the majority are not. When only 80% of the words in the text were familiar to readers, none achieved adequate comprehension, as the density of unknown words made reading very difficult.[6] Schmitt, Grabe, and Jiang (2011) also examined the relationship between the proportion of known vocabulary in a text and the level of comprehension of that same text. Their findings showed a linear relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, but their study did not identify a clear threshold at which a certain level of vocabulary knowledge leads to a sudden improvement in comprehension. According to their results, if 60% reading comprehension is considered sufficient, a 95% vocabulary coverage is required; if 70% comprehension is deemed necessary, then 98–99% vocabulary coverage is needed.[7] In relation to the Chinese language, Chang (2012) also starts from the widely accepted view that at least 95% vocabulary coverage is necessary for interpreting a written text, while 98% coverage is ideal for independent and fluent reading comprehension. Chang further concludes that knowledge of approximately 2300 words may be sufficient to reach the B1 Level.[8]

The required percentage of vocabulary coverage varies across studies, depending on what level of reading comprehension is considered sufficient. This research is merely an attempt to examine the compatibility between the vocabulary used in the reading comprehension section of the intermediate-level written Chinese school leaving exam and the vocabulary levels defined in the Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education published in 2021. It does not aim to make definitive claims about the difficulty level of the exam. To accurately determine the difficulty of an exam task set, several additional factors would need to be considered—such as the exam results of the participants (including their native languages, as native Chinese speakers are also allowed to take the exam[9]), the method of assessment,

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5 Laufer 2013: 867–868.
6 Hu, Nation 2000: 403, 405.
7 Schmitt, Grabe, Jiang 2011: 35.
8 Zhang 2012: 88.
9 However, due to the protection of personal data, exam results are only available in anonymized

and the cut-off scores used in grading. Such an in-depth analysis is beyond the scope of the present study.

Based on the findings of previous research, it can be considered valid for the present study as well that the higher the percentage of words in a text that belong to a specific proficiency level, the more successful reading comprehension is likely to be. As a result, the more accurately an exam can assess whether the examinee has reached the expected language proficiency level required by the exam.

The Chinese Language School Leaving Exam in Hungarian Public Education

In Hungary, after completing the 12th grade of secondary school, students are required to take school leaving exams in five subjects. These include mandatory exams in Hungarian language (for native Hungarian speakers this means Hungarian language and literature; foreign students may take the exam in Hungarian as a foreign language), mathematics, history, one foreign language, and a fifth subject chosen by the student, usually based on their interests or higher education plans. Since 2011, Chinese has been available as an optional subject among the modern foreign languages in the school leaving exam system. Between 2011 and 2014, the Chinese exam was only offered at the intermediate level. From 2015 onwards, it has been available at both intermediate and advanced levels.[10]

In Hungary, school leaving exams are held twice a year: during the autumn exam period (October–November) and the spring exam period (May–June). In addition to the regular school leaving exam, students also have the option to take advanced (early) school leaving exams in individual subjects. This allows them to ease their workload by reducing the number of subjects they need to prepare for at the end of 12th grade. For Chinese language, in order to be eligible for an advanced (early) school leaving exam, students must have final grades for Grades 9 through 12 in the subject. If the student has not yet completed the current school year, they are required to take a preliminary assessment exam covering the material of the ongoing academic year before sitting the school leaving exam.

As with other school leaving exam subjects, the Chinese language exam can be taken at two levels: intermediate and advanced. The school leaving exams in modern foreign languages correspond to levels of the Common European

form on the website of the Hungarian Educational Authority. In cases where the number of candidates is very low, the Authority does not publish the results at all to prevent identification.

[10] https://dari.oktatas.hu/erettsegi.utmutato.index (last accessed: 19.06.2025)

Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). According to the Hungarian Educational Authority, the intermediate-level exam corresponds to CEFR Level B1, while the advanced-level exam corresponds to CEFR Level B2.[11] At both levels, the exam consists of a written and an oral component. The date of the written exam is determined centrally and is held on the same day in all secondary schools. The date of the oral exam is set by the institution administering the exam.

In terms of content, the school leaving exam is organized around the following ten topics: personal matters and family; people and society; our environment; school; the world of work; lifestyle; leisure, culture, and entertainment; travel and tourism; science and technology; and the economy. These topics apply to both the written and the oral components of the exam.[12]

The Intermediate-Level Written Chinese School Leaving Exam

The written school leaving exam, at both intermediate and advanced levels, consists of four components in the following order: reading comprehension, grammar and language use, listening comprehension, and writing. Since the present study focuses on the intermediate-level exam, the following section will provide an overview of the parameters of the intermediate-level written Chinese school leaving exam.

Students have 180 minutes to complete the intermediate-level written Chinese school leaving exam. The reading comprehension section is allocated 60 minutes, the grammar and language use section 30 minutes, the listening comprehension section 30 minutes, and the writing section 60 minutes. The grammar and language use section is worth 18 points, while each of the other three components is worth 33 points, making a total of 117 points available for the written exam tasks.

The reading comprehension section consists of three to four tasks, containing a total of 25 to 30 items. The texts must cover different exam topics not only in terms of content but also in the types of items associated with them. These may include gap-filling, true/false, multiple choice, answering questions, etc. The combined length of the tasks must be between 1,000 and 1,200 words[13]. The

[11] https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/kozoktatas/erettsegi/vizsgakovetelmenyek2024/elo_id_nyelv_2024_e.pdf (lasd accessed: 13.06.2025)

[12] *Ibid.*

[13] The word count requirements apply uniformly to all intermediate-level matriculation exams in modern foreign languages. However, in the case of the Chinese language, determining the number of words is not straightforward. Therefore, for Chinese, the Hungarian Educational Authority specifies text lengths in terms of the number of characters rather than words.

grammar and language use section also consists of three to four tasks, with the most common task types being gap-filling and error recognition exercises. The tasks in the grammar and language use component must also relate to different exam topics and have a total length of 500–600 words[14], with the accompanying tasks consisting of 20–25 items. In the listening comprehension component, each of the two to three audio texts is followed by one task. The listening texts are approximately 6 to 9 minutes in total length. The tasks include 20–25 items, with true/false and multiple choice being the most common task types. In the writing component, students are generally required to produce two texts, typically in the form of a letter, email, or advertisement. The first text must be 120–150 characters long and is usually guided by three prompts that indicate the required content. The second text should be 150–180 characters long and must be written based on four given prompts.[15]

In the Chinese language, determining the exact number of words is not straightforward; therefore, for the entire exam, text lengths are specified in terms of the number of characters rather than the number of words.[16]

Exam component	Length	Time	Task specifications	Point
Reading comprehension	1000-1200 words	60 mins	25-30 items	33 points
Grammar and language use	500-600 words	30 mins	20-25 items	18 points
Listening comprehension	6-9 minutes	30 mins	20-25 items	33 points
Writing	120-150 characters, 150-180 characters	60 mins	3-4 given prompts	33 points

Table 1: Characteristics of the Components of the Intermediate-Level Written Chinese School Leaving Exam[17]

[14] The word count requirements apply uniformly to all intermediate-level matriculation exams in modern foreign languages. However, in the case of the Chinese language, determining the number of words is not straightforward. Therefore, for Chinese, the Hungarian Educational Authority specifies text lengths in terms of the number of characters rather than words.

[15] https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/kozoktatas/erettsegi/vizsgakovetelmenyek2024/elo_id_nyelv_2024_e.pdf (lasd accessed: 13.06.2025)

[16] https://dload-oktatas.educatio.hu/erettsegi/feladatok_2025tavasz_kozep/k_kinai_25maj_ut.pdf (last accessed: 21.06.2025)

[17] https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/kozoktatas/erettsegi/vizsgakovetelmenyek2024/elo_id_nyelv_2024_e.pdf (lasd accessed: 13.06.2025)

The Intermediate-Level Oral Chinese School Leaving Exam

The Chinese oral school leaving exam is not administered on a centrally determined date; the exam date is set independently by the educational institutions organizing the exam. The oral exam lasts 15 minutes, during which examinees are required to demonstrate their skills through the following three components: conversation, role-play between the examinee and the examiner, individual topic presentation, which includes a picture description. A total of 33 points can be earned in the oral exam.

The oral exam is conducted by drawing exam question, which are typically compiled by teachers at the given institution. Each set of exam questions must include both examiner and examinee versions. If there are fewer than 10 examinees, at least 10 questions must be prepared; if there are more than 10 examinees, at least 20 questions are required. Currently, Hungarian educational institutions are not obligated to publish or disclose the exam questions in advance, so examinees may only encounter the actual content of their selected question during the oral exam itself. According to the school leaving exam regulations effective from 2024, at least 10% of the questions in the oral exam set must be revised or replaced each year.[18]

Assessment of the Intermediate-Level Chinese School Leaving Exam

In the school leaving exam, examinees receive points for both the written and oral components. The total percentage score for the exam is calculated by adding the points from both parts. At the intermediate level, assessment is based on the following scale: Excellent (5): 80%–100%; Good (4): 60%–79%; Satisfactory (3): 40%–59%; Pass (2): 25%–39%; Fail (1): 0%–24%.[19]

Selection of the Standard Used for the Compatibility Analysis

Students learning Chinese often ask how they can effectively prepare for the school leaving exam without targeted preparatory materials available. As a starting point, guidance can primarily be gained from past exam papers, which are available on the Hungarian Educational Authority's website. Another use-

[18] https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/kozoktatas/erettsegi/vizsgakovetelmenyek2024/elo_id_nyelv_2024_e.pdf (lasd accessed: 13.06.2025)

[19] https://njt.hu/jogszabaly/1997-100-20-22 (last accessed: 22.06.2025)

ful indicator is that the intermediate-level school leaving exam corresponds to CEFR Level B1.

In Hungary, it is possible to take the Chinese bilingual language exam offered by the ELTE Origó Language Centre in Budapest, and a few sample tasks are available online.[20] However, this only provides limited practice material, with just a few sets of tasks and no accessible glossary. It is also possible to take the HSK exam in Chinese, which is the most popular Chinese language proficiency test in Hungary. The problem is that the task types in both of these language exam systems differ significantly from those of the Chinese school leaving exam. As a result, neither of them provides sufficient support for exam preparation on its own. Currently, no practice materials or vocabulary lists specifically designed for the Chinese school leaving exam are available.

Although there is a wealth of preparatory materials, textbooks, and vocabulary lists available for the HSK exam—including in online formats—it is more difficult to find clear information on which HSK level's vocabulary can adequately support preparation for the Chinese school leaving exam. Currently, students can primarily rely on the fact that HSK Level 3 was originally aligned with the CEFR B1 Level, which is the expected proficiency for the intermediate-level school leaving exam. One useful resource for exam preparation is the "Chinese Textbook for Hungarians" series published by the ELTE Confucius Institute, which follows the structure of the 2010 version of the HSK exam. The third volume of this series, published in 2013, was designed for the B1 Level, corresponding to HSK Level 3. However, the vocabulary used in the Chinese school leaving exam goes beyond the current HSK Level 3, which may be misleading for examinees.

The first Chinese-language version of the CEFR was published in Taiwan in 2007, followed by a different version released in mainland China at the end of 2008.[21] In 2009, the former Hanban (Office of Chinese Language Council International) published the correspondences between the 2010 version of the HSK exam and the CEFR levels, as follows:[22]

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[20] https://www.onyc.hu/minta-es-gyakorlofeladatok/ (last accessed: 21.06.2025)

[21] Belassen 2012: 2.

[22] https://web.archive.org/web/20121026095039/http://www.chinesetesting.cn/gonewcontent.do?id=677487 (last accessed: 14.06.2025)

HSK	HSK1	HSK2	HSK3	HSK4	HSK5	HSK6
CEFR	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2

Table 2: Correspondence Between HSK (Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi) Levels and CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) Levels According to the 2010 HSK Exam System[23]

However, this correspondence was widely criticized. For example, the Fachverband Chinesisch in Germany issued a statement in 2010 declaring that they did not accept this alignment. They argued that, while other foreign languages typically require 500 to 2000 words to reach CEFR Levels A1 to B1, the new HSK appeared to suggest that only about one-third of that was sufficient for Chinese. Furthermore, according to the former Hanban, the Chinese B2 Level (HSK Level 4) could be reached in 160–320 hours, whereas professional recommendations suggest that at least 1200 to 1600 hours are necessary to attain that level. The Fachverband Chinesisch proposed the following alternative alignment between the HSK and CEFR levels:[24]

HSK	KER
HSK1	---
HSK2	A1 without character knowledge
HSK3	A1-A2
HSK4	A2
HSK5	B1
HSK6	B2-C1

Table 3: Correspondence Between HSK Levels and CEFR Levels According to the 2010 Recommendation of the Fachverband Chinesisch [25]

According to this table, CEFR Level B1, which is the expected level for the intermediate-level school leaving exam, roughly corresponds to HSK Level 5. Therefore, HSK Level 5 preparatory materials and vocabulary lists may be more helpful for preparing for the intermediate-level Chinese school leaving exam. Due to this mismatch in level alignment, exam candidates may justifiably ques-

[23] *Ibid.*
[24] Fachverband Chinesisch 2010: 1-2.
[25] *Ibid.*

tion why the school leaving exam appears more difficult than HSK Level 3, and which HSK level actually provides effective support in preparing for the exam.

Based on this alignment, it would be worthwhile to use the HSK Level 5 vocabulary list for examining the compatibility of the vocabulary used in the school leaving exam. However, the HSK exam system is currently undergoing changes.[26] On July 1, 2021, the "Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education" (hereinafter referred to as "the Standards") came into effect. This document provides a comprehensive description and evaluation of Chinese language learners' skills and proficiency levels. The Standards divide Chinese language proficiency into three stages and nine levels, and for each level, they define the linguistic elements to be mastered—syllables, characters, vocabulary, and grammar. The Standards serve as an important reference document for institutions involved in Chinese language education. They provide a framework for curriculum development, textbook writing, and language testing across Chinese language education systems worldwide.[27]

Although the current form of the HSK exam has not yet fully aligned with the levels defined in the 2021 Standards, it is expected that the HSK will gradually be restructured according to this framework in the future. Therefore, this study has adopted the levels of the 2021 Standards as the basis for its vocabulary compatibility analysis. In the 2010 HSK system, learners were required to master 2500 words at HSK Level 5. According to the 2021 Standards, this corresponds roughly to a level between Level 3 (2245 words) and Level 4 (3245 words). The new levels outlined in the 2021 Standards are more accurately aligned with the CEFR levels, and as such, Level 3 of the 2021 Standards may serve as a more appropriate reference point in the future for the intermediate-level Chinese school leaving exam.

Selection of the Analysis Software

On the Chinese Test Service Website[28], an online query system linked to the Standards is available. This platform allows users to search for syllables, characters, vocabulary, and grammar to determine which proficiency level a given element belongs to. By clicking on the "Vocabulary" tab, users can access a

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[26] https://www.abnewswire.com/pressreleases/the-first-exam-of-hsk-level-79-to-be-held-globally-soon_624081.html?utm_source=chatgpt.com (last accessed: 21.06.2025)

[27] http://www.moe.gov.cn/jyb_xwfb/gzdt_gzdt/s5987/202103/t20210329_523304.html (last accessed: 14.06.2025)

[28] https://old.chinesetest.cn/standardsAction.do?means=standardInfo (last accessed: 20.06.2025)

search interface where they can paste a text and check which proficiency levels the words in the text correspond to.[29] Each of the levels (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7–9) is represented by a different color, and the system highlights the words in the text using these colors. It then displays a table showing which proficiency levels the words and characters in the text correspond to. However, this interface does not provide percentage data, nor does it indicate the number of words or number of characters in the text. In the table, both characters and words are listed, which often results in duplication of entries. Therefore, while the color-coded text gives a rough visual impression of how much of the vocabulary belongs to a particular level, neither the colored text nor the table provides any percentage-based result.

For this reason, the present study did not use the query interface associated with the Standards to analyze the vocabulary compatibility of the school leaving exam tasks. Instead, it employed a different analysis software capable of providing a more in-depth examination. Numerous online vocabulary analysis tools are available—some even supported by artificial intelligence. In this study, the analysis was conducted using the software Chinese Text Analyser, which is available both online and as a downloadable desktop application, allowing it to be used offline as well. It is a free tool designed for analyzing Chinese texts. An additional advantage of this software for the purposes of the current research is that, even in its free downloadable version, it does not limit the length of the text to be analyzed, is capable of processing texts containing up to 200,000–300,000 characters.[30]

Using the Chinese Text Analyser Software – Procedure

The Chinese Text Analyser software allows users to import custom vocabulary lists for comparison. As a first step, four vocabulary lists were uploaded to the software, since the language level of the school leaving exam cannot be clearly classified under a single specific level of the new Standards. In this study, the four vocabulary lists correspond to the full word lists of Levels 3, 4, 5, and 6 of the Standards (that is the Level 3 list includes words from Levels 1 to 3, the Level 4 list includes words from Levels 1 to 4, the Level 5 list includes words from Levels 1 to 5, the Level 6 list includes words from Levels 1 to 6).

According to the Standards, the total number of words at each level is as follows: Level 3: 2245 words, Level 4: 3245 words, Level 5: 4316 words, Level 6: 5456 words. Some entries in the lists combine both single-character and two-character forms of the same word (e.g., 爸 | 爸爸), and some words appear in

[29] https://hyq.zzchinese.com/play/gjzwdj (last accessed: 20.06.2025)
[30] https://www.chinesetextanalyser.com/ (last accessed: 20.06.2025)

their erhua forms (e.g., 男孩儿). For the purposes of this analysis, the vocabulary lists were uploaded in an expanded form: single-character words also appear in their commonly used two-character versions, and both erhua and non-erhua forms were included (e.g., 聊天 and 聊天儿). As a result, the uploaded word lists contain more entries than the official numbers in the Standards. The total number of imported words was: 2273 words for Level 3, 3278 words for Level 4, 4354 words for Level 5, 5496 words for Level 6.

All reading comprehension tasks from the intermediate-level Chinese language written school-leaving examination papers between 2011 and 2024, were included in the analysis. These are available on the website of the Hungarian Educational Authority. This amounts to a total of 20 examination papers,[31] each containing three or four tasks, depending on the number of characters in the texts. The final sample thus comprised a total of 70 exam tasks, each including both the reading texts and the corresponding comprehension questions. After uploading the vocabulary lists, the reading comprehension texts from the school leaving exam papers were copied along with their related questions—but without numbering or letter labels such as A), B), C), etc. Each text was uploaded individually into the Chinese Text Analyser software, and for each one, the vocabulary lists corresponding to Levels 3, 4, 5, and 6 of the Standards were selected. The software then automatically processed the texts using these word lists.

Once the texts in the sample are opened, the software automatically identifies the boundaries of words and lexical units based on its algorithm—i.e., it segments the text. It then compares the segmented words to the user-uploaded vocabulary list, and highlights in red those words that are not included in the selected list, meaning words that exceed the given proficiency level. In addition, the software counts the number of words and characters, and displays, both in absolute numbers and percentages, how many of the words in the text are known (present in the list) and unknown (not present in the list) according to the selected vocabulary level. The software also has the ability to account for repeated words, and it provides a breakdown of how many of the repeated words are known or unknown within the text.

Manual correction is also possible: by double-clicking on a word in the text, users can manually mark additional words in red as unknown, or remove the red highlight, thereby marking words identified as unknown by the algorithm as known. To minimize possible segmentation errors, a second-round review was conducted. During this step, each word marked as unknown (in red) was individually checked using the query interface linked to the Standards on the

[31] Two shool leaving exams were administered in the following years: 2011 and 2020–2024. One school leaving exam was administered in each of the following years: 2012–2019. This results in a total of 20 exam papers included in the sample.

Chinese Test Service Website, by selecting the "Vocabulary" tab. This step made it possible to correct occasional segmentation mistakes by adjusting the status of certain words as either known or unknown, in order to achieve the most accurate results possible. All 70 tasks were processed using each of the four vocabulary lists (Levels 3, 4, 5, and 6). The data extracted from the Chinese Text Analyser software was then compiled into a summary table. The table includes: the total number of words in the texts (both with and without repetitions), and the number and percentage of words marked as known and unknown for each of the four levels (see Appendix).

Results and Conclusions

The data obtained through the above procedure were compiled into a table (see Appendix). Charts were also created based on the data from Level 3 and Level 4 of the Standards (approximately aligned with CEFR B1), which is considered relevant for the intermediate-level school leaving exam (see Chart 1, 2, 3). The results obtained and the conclusions that can be drawn from them are presented below.

I. The data show that in the first three years of the exam (2011–2014), the total number of words in the samples was often below 1000. From 2015 onward, the word count has consistently remained around 1100–1200, indicating that the length of the reading comprehension tasks (including both texts and related questions) has increased over the years. It is important to note, however, that determining the exact number of words in Chinese is not straightforward. Due to the segmentation settings of the Chinese Text Analyser software and potential errors in identifying word boundaries, the word count represents only an approximate figure.

II. From 2015 onward, not only did the length of the reading comprehension tasks change, but it can also be observed that the proportion of words marked as unknown (after processing the texts with the Level 3 vocabulary list of the Standards) consistently exceeds 10%. This may indicate that the difficulty level of the exam tasks has increased compared to those administered before 2015. Interestingly, it was also in 2015 that the advanced-level school leaving exam became available, which may have contributed to a refinement or adjustment in difficulty in the intermediate-level tasks as well.

III. The data also clearly show that the difficulty level of the exam texts is not uniform. Within a single reading comprehension section of a given exam, the percentage of vocabulary coverage at each level varies across

individual tasks. This suggests that exam papers typically include tasks of varying levels of difficulty. Tasks containing a higher proportion of unknown words are usually accompanied by others with a lower proportion of unfamiliar vocabulary, likely in an effort to balance the overall difficulty of the exam section.

IV. When the exam tasks are processed using the Level 3 vocabulary list of the Standards, the percentage of unknown words averages approximately between 10% and 20%. Using the Level 4 vocabulary list, the percentage of unknown words drops to around 10% on average. It is important to note that, due to the limitations of the study, the percentage values obtained should be interpreted as approximate indicators of text difficulty rather than precise measures of the actual proportion of unknown words. According to Hu and Nation (2000), when learners were familiar with only about 80% of the words in a text (i.e. when approximately 20% of the words were unknown), none of them achieved an adequate level of reading comprehension. Based on this, an unknown word ratio of around 10-20% may influence the difficulty of B1-level reading comprehension tasks and the success of text comprehension. The vocabulary of these exam tasks may be perceived as difficult by students on B1 level; however, the unknown word ratio is not the only factor that determines the level of difficulty of the task.

V. For each exam paper, the average proportion of unknown words was calculated across the tasks. Both the table in the Appendix and Chart 3 reveal a noticeable deviation in the October 2020 exam paper, where the proportion of unknown words is significantly lower, and the ratio of unknown words is closer to the proportions found in the test papers from the years 2011–2014. This difference may have several possible explanations, which could be the subject of future research. One possible explanation is that the vocabulary used in the reading comprehension section of this particular test paper aligns more closely with the vocabulary specified for the levels defined in the Standard. It may also be worthwhile to examine whether the differences in the proportion of unknown words across the test papers are related to the type or topic of the texts. However, such an investigation would require a separate, more detailed analysis and therefore falls beyond the scope of the present study.

It can be concluded that over the years, the length of the texts (within the permitted limits) has increased. The level of difficulty at the intermediate level has also risen following the introduction of the advanced-level school leaving exam. The difficulty of the individual texts within a single exam paper is not consistently homogeneous.

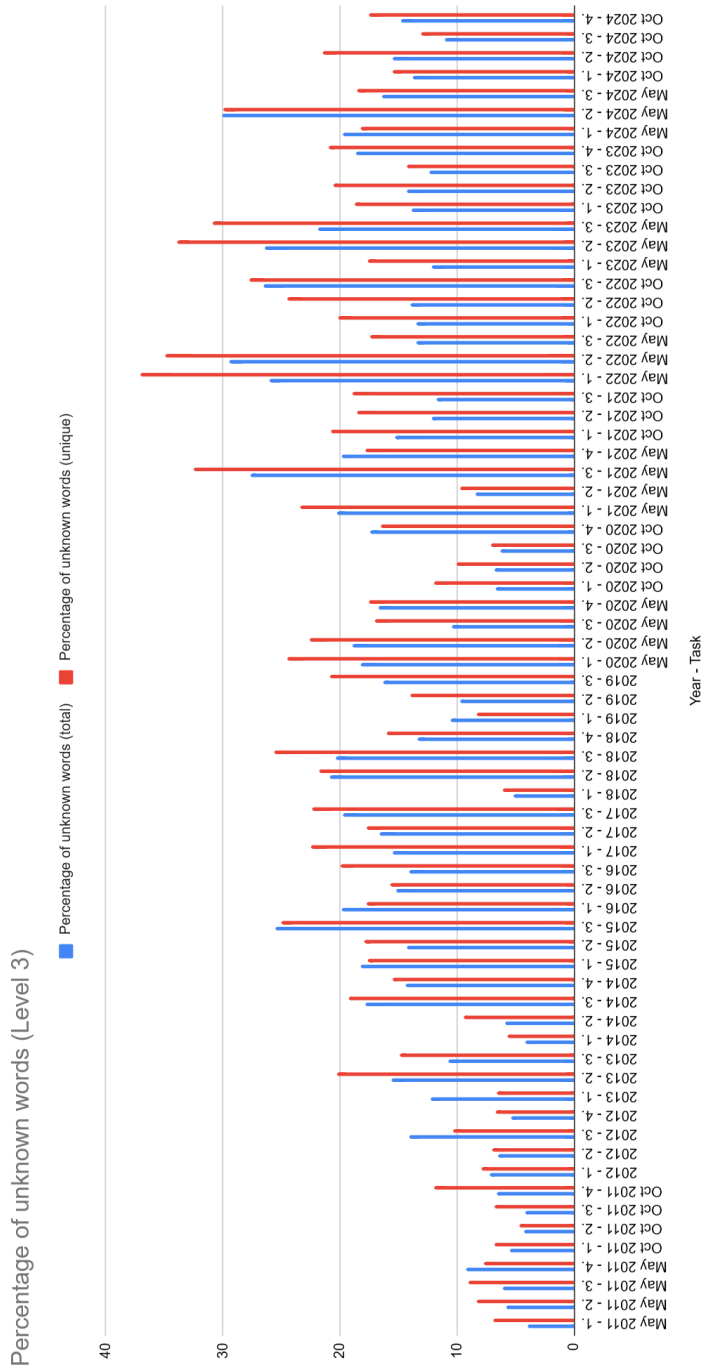

Chart 1. Proportion of Unknown Words in the Reading Comprehension Tasks of the School Leaving Exam at Level 3 of the Standards

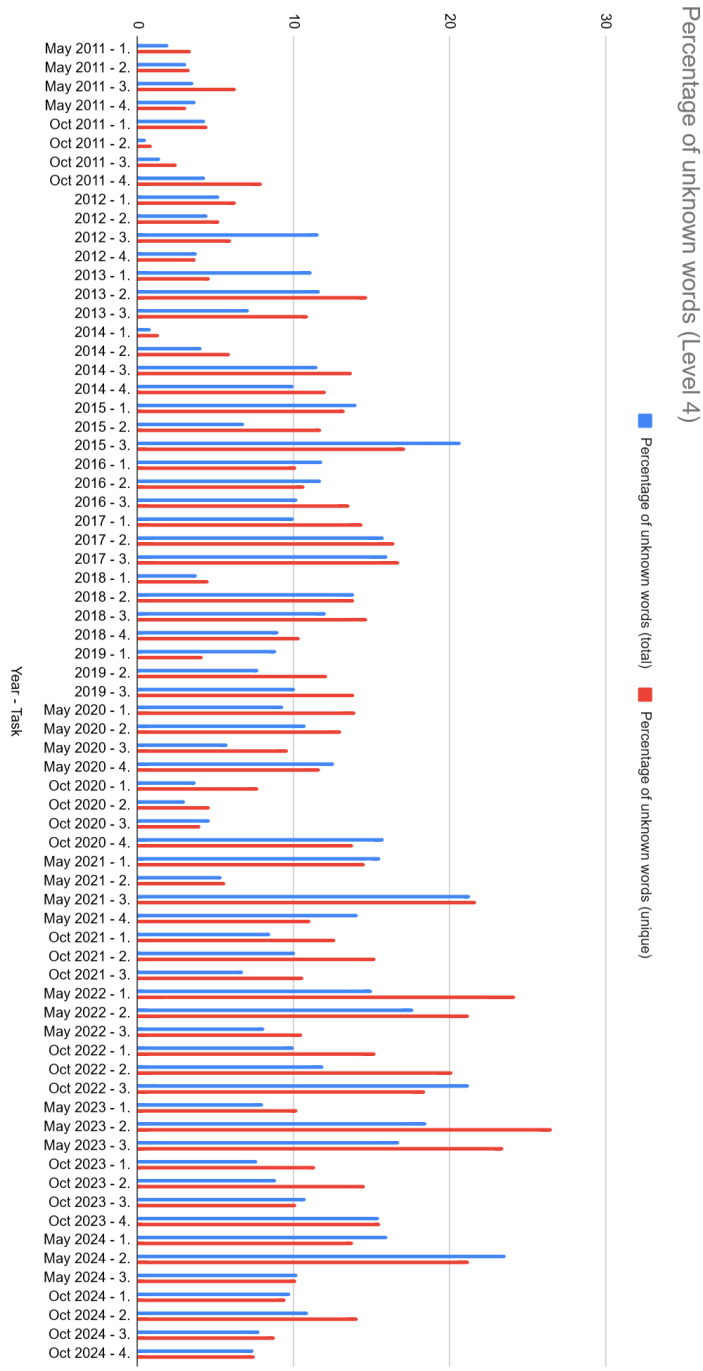

Chart 2. Proportion of Unknown Words in the Reading Comprehension Tasks of the School Leaving Exam at Level 4 of the Standards

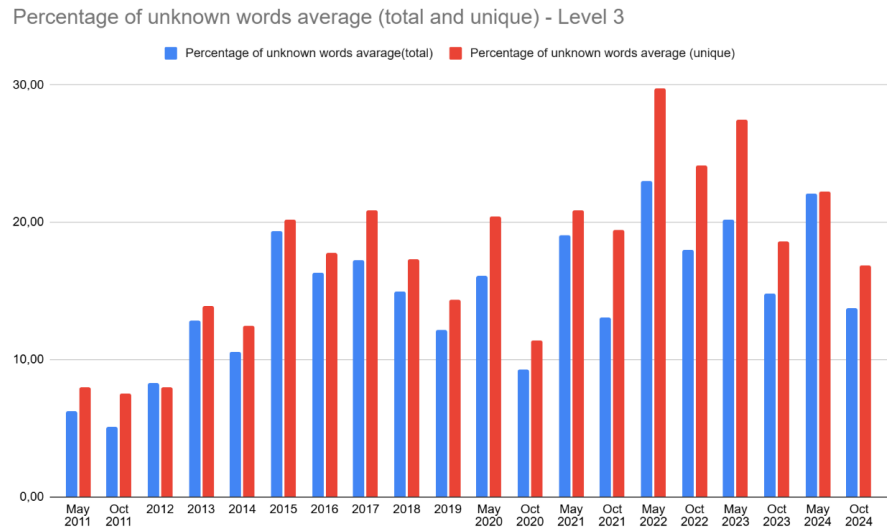

Chart 3. Average Proportion of Unknown Words in the Reading Comprehension Tasks of the School Leaving Exam at Level 3 of the Standards

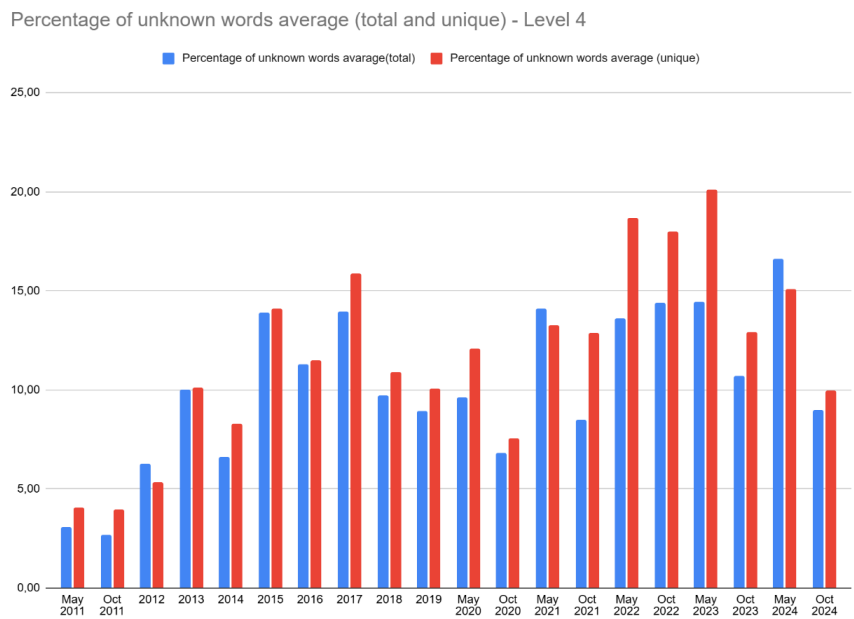

Chart 4. Average Proportion of Unknown Words in the Reading Comprehension Tasks of the School Leaving Exam at Level 4 of the Standards

Limitations of the Study

The present study has several limitations that affect the accuracy of the percentage results.

The vocabulary list of the Standard does not include proper nouns, such as the names of historical figures, nicknames, or geographical names (e.g., country names), whereas such terms do appear in the tasks of the graduation exam. Manually classifying these as known words in some tasks can reduce the percentage of unknown words by as much as 2–5%.

The software also marked certain compound words as unknown in the texts, such as names of Chinese historical periods (e.g., 春秋时期) and expressions related to Chinese culture (e.g., 春联), many of which can be inferred by learners at the B1 language level either from the context or from the composition of the characters. In this study, no character-based analysis of such words was carried out. The ability to infer the meaning of unknown words depends on the individual language skills of the test taker.

The vocabulary of the Standard published in 2021 was not only expanded at each level, but some words were also reassigned from lower to higher levels. For example, certain body parts (e.g., 耳朵 "ear", 鼻子 "nose") were moved up to Level 5, as were certain animals (e.g., 虎 "tiger", 大熊猫 "giant panda"). Some kinship terms only appear at Levels 7–9 (e.g., 外婆 "maternal grandmother", 外公 "maternal grandfather"). However, learners following the 2010 HSK system typically encounter these words relatively early in their studies, meaning they are likely familiar to many test-takers. Nevertheless, under the analysis based on the new 2021 Standard, these words are counted as unknown at Level 3. Therefore, a higher percentage of unknown words does not automatically indicate that the text is significantly more difficult than the expected level. Another example is how color terms are assigned to levels: while most colors (e.g., 红 "red", 红色 "the color red", 黑 "black", 黑色 "the color black") appear at Level 2, the word for "purple" (紫) only appears at Level 5—and only in its single-character form. Thus, when comparing a text with the Level 3 vocabulary list, this word will be marked as unknown, even though in practice, learners typically study color terms together at an early stage, and it would be reasonable to expect that a student at the B1 Level would know the word.

Rare segmentation errors resulting from the software's segmentation settings were manually corrected only in cases where the software marked as unknown certain words that were actually included in the vocabulary list. If the full word appeared in the Standard's vocabulary list at the given level, the word initially marked as unknown was manually reassigned as known after verifying it. However, the accuracy of segmentation for words already recognized by the software

was not reviewed. Such minor inaccuracies may have caused slight deviations in the percentage calculations.

A minor source of inaccuracy in the percentage results may arise from the fact that the software occasionally identifies certain expressions as four-character words that cannot be split. If each pair of characters within the four-character sequence belongs to different levels according to the Standard, it is not possible to label them separately as known or unknown. In this study, any such four-character expression, if partially marked as unknown by the system, was consistently classified as belonging to the higher level. It is important to emphasize that the percentage data obtained from the analysis can only be accurately interpreted in conjunction with reading the actual text.

Summary

This study attempted to review the vocabulary of the reading comprehension tasks (including the texts and corresponding questions) of the written Chinese language school leaving exam in Hungary between 2011 and 2024, and to examine how much the vocabulary overlaps with the levels defined in the Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education. Since the levels of the Standard are more closely aligned with the CEFR levels, Level 3-4 of the Standard can be regarded as corresponding to the B1 Level. In this study, the data obtained for Level 3 are considered the most relevant, though the analysis also includes the proportion of words appearing at Levels 4, 5, and 6. Words marked as "unknown" even at Level 6 either belong to the Level 7–9 category or are not included in the Standard's vocabulary list.

Although vocabulary analysis in Chinese is challenging due to difficulties in word segmentation (which was also evident during the use of the analysis software), examining vocabulary compatibility is of paramount importance for students, teachers preparing them, and exam designers alike. Due to the anticipated changes in the HSK examination system, the present study investigated the vocabulary compatibility of the tasks with the levels defined in the 2021 Chinese Proficiency Grading Standards for International Chinese Language Education. Running the same test materials through the vocabulary list of the 2010 HSK Level 5 (which, according to many experts, is closer to CEFR B1 than HSK Level 3) would yield different results. However, due to the implementation of the new Standard and the expected future revisions of the HSK system, this study chose the levels of the 2021 Standard as the basis for comparison. The comparison was conducted using the Chinese Text Analyser software.

The results show that, on average, the software identifies between 10% and 20% of words as unknown at Level 3 of the Standard, and using the Level 4 vocabulary list, the percentage of unknown words drops to around 10% on average. It is important to emphasize that the resulting percentages should not be interpreted as a direct indicator of how much more difficult a particular exam task is compared to the expected B1 Level, as the study has several limitations that affect the accuracy of the percentage outcomes.

The percentage results must always be interpreted in conjunction with a close reading of the texts and questions. Words marked as unknown at Level 3 should be examined to determine whether their meaning can be inferred by a test taker at the B1 Level—this includes personal names, culturally specific expressions, and other compound words not listed in the Standard vocabulary. It is also necessary to assess whether the presence of unknown words is relevant to task completion. However, percentages significantly exceeding the 10–20% range may indicate increased task difficulty. If a task contains a higher proportion of unknown vocabulary, it may suggest that test takers perceive the task as more difficult. Again, this must be evaluated in the context of the actual text, which can be the subject of future research.

The method applied in this study may be used in the future to fine-tune the difficulty level of exam texts and to help filter out texts that substantially exceed the expected B1 proficiency level. As such, this method could serve as a useful tool for the exam task development committees involved in designing the Chinese language school leaving exam.

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Appendix

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
May 2011	1	3	153	147	96,08	6	3,92	87	81	93,1	6	6,9
		4	153	150	98,04	3	1,96	87	84	96,55	3	3,45
		5	153	152	99,35	1	0,65	87	86	98,85	1	1,15
		6	153	152	99,35	1	0,65	87	86	98,85	1	1,15
	2	3	258	243	94,19	15	5,81	120	110	91,67	10	8,33
		4	258	250	96,9	8	3,1	120	116	96,67	4	3,33
		5	258	251	97,29	7	2,71	120	117	97,5	3	2,5
		6	258	254	98,45	4	1,55	120	118	98,33	2	1,67
	3	3	280	263	93,93	17	6,07	111	101	90,99	10	9,01
		4	280	270	96,43	10	3,57	111	104	93,69	7	6,31
		5	280	270	96,43	10	3,57	111	104	93,69	7	6,31
		6	280	271	96,79	9	3,21	111	105	94,59	6	5,41
	4	3	293	266	90,78	27	9,22	129	119	92,25	10	7,75
		4	293	282	96,25	11	3,75	129	125	96,9	4	3,1
		5	293	286	97,61	7	2,39	129	127	98,45	2	1,55
		6	293	287	97,95	6	2,05	129	128	99,22	1	0,78

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
Oct 2011	1	3	183	173	94,54	10	5,46	89	83	93,26	6	6,74
		4	183	175	95,63	8	4,37	89	85	95,51	4	4,49
		5	183	181	98,91	2	1,09	89	88	98,88	1	1,12
		6	183	183	100	0	0	89	89	100	0	0
	2	3	190	182	95,79	8	4,21	107	102	95,33	5	4,67
		4	190	189	99,47	1	0,53	107	106	99,07	1	0,93
		5	190	189	99,47	1	0,53	107	106	99,07	1	0,93
		6	190	190	100	0	0	107	107	100	0	0
	3	3	405	388	95,8	17	4,2	161	150	93,17	11	6,83
		4	405	399	98,52	6	1,48	161	157	97,52	4	2,48
		5	405	400	98,77	5	1,23	161	158	98,14	3	1,86
		6	405	401	99,01	4	0,99	161	160	99,38	1	0,62
	4	3	349	326	93,41	23	6,59	176	155	88,07	21	11,93
		4	349	334	95,7	15	4,3	176	162	92,05	14	7,95
		5	349	345	98,85	4	1,15	176	172	97,73	4	2,27
		6	349	348	99,71	1	0,29	176	175	99,43	1	0,57

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2012	1	3	209	194	92,82	15	7,18	127	117	92,13	10	7,87
		4	209	198	94,74	11	5,26	127	119	93,7	8	6,3
		5	209	202	96,65	7	3,35	127	122	96,06	5	3,94
		6	209	205	98,09	4	1,91	127	125	98,43	2	1,57
	2	3	245	229	93,47	16	6,53	114	106	92,98	8	7,02
		4	245	234	95,51	11	4,49	114	111	97,37	6	5,26
		5	245	234	95,51	11	4,49	114	111	97,37	6	5,26
		6	245	235	95,92	10	4,08	114	112	98,25	2	1,75
	3	3	249	214	85,94	35	14,06	116	104	89,66	12	10,34
		4	249	220	88,35	29	11,65	116	109	93,97	7	6,03
		5	249	226	90,76	23	9,24	116	114	98,28	2	1,72
		6	249	228	91,57	21	8,43	116	115	99,14	1	0,86
	4	3	318	301	94,65	17	5,35	134	125	93,28	9	6,72
		4	318	306	96,23	12	3,77	134	129	96,27	5	3,73
		5	318	307	96,54	11	3,46	134	130	97,01	4	2,99
		6	318	309	97,17	9	2,83	134	131	97,76	3	2,24

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2013	1	3	188	165	87,77	23	12,23	107	100	93,46	7	6,54
		4	188	167	88,83	21	11,17	107	102	95,33	5	4,67
		5	188	169	89,89	19	10,11	107	103	96,26	4	3,74
		6	188	170	90,43	18	9,57	107	103	96,26	4	3,74
	2	3	360	304	84,44	56	15,56	163	130	79,75	33	20,25
		4	360	318	88,33	42	11,67	163	139	85,28	24	14,72
		5	360	331	91,94	29	8,06	163	146	89,57	17	10,43
		6	360	338	93,89	22	6,11	163	151	92,64	12	7,36
	3	3	335	299	89,25	36	10,75	155	132	85,16	23	14,84
		4	335	311	92,84	24	7,16	155	138	89,03	17	10,97
		5	335	318	94,93	17	5,07	155	142	91,61	13	8,39
		6	335	319	95,22	16	4,78	155	143	92,26	12	7,74

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2014	1	3	121	116	95,87	5	4,13	71	67	94,37	4	5,63
		4	121	120	99,17	1	0,83	71	70	98,59	1	1,41
		5	121	121	100	0	0	71	71	100	0	0
		6	121	121	100	0	0	71	71	100	0	0
	2	3	343	323	94,17	20	5,83	169	153	90,53	16	9,47
		4	343	329	95,92	14	4,08	169	159	94,08	10	5,92
		5	343	335	97,67	8	2,33	169	164	97,04	5	2,96
		6	343	339	98,83	4	1,17	169	167	98,82	2	1,18
	3	3	208	171	82,21	37	17,79	109	88	80,73	21	19,27
		4	208	184	88,46	24	11,54	109	94	86,24	15	13,76
		5	208	193	92,79	15	7,21	109	100	91,74	9	8,26
		6	208	194	93,27	14	6,73	109	101	92,66	8	7,34
	4	3	160	137	85,63	23	14,38	58	49	84,48	9	15,52
		4	160	144	90	16	10	58	51	87,93	7	12,07
		5	160	149	93,13	11	6,88	58	52	89,66	6	10,34
		6	160	151	94,38	9	5,63	58	54	93,1	4	6,9

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2015	1	3	504	412	81,75	92	18,25	210	173	82,38	37	17,62
		4	504	433	85,91	71	14,09	210	182	86,67	28	13,33
		5	504	442	87,7	62	12,3	210	190	90,48	20	9,52
		6	504	449	89,09	55	10,91	210	196	93,33	14	6,67
	2	3	468	401	85,68	67	14,32	195	160	82,05	35	17,95
		4	468	436	93,16	32	6,84	195	172	88,21	23	11,79
		5	468	454	97,01	14	2,99	195	183	93,85	12	6,15
		6	468	462	98,72	6	1,28	195	189	96,92	6	3,08
	3	3	251	187	74,5	64	25,5	128	96	75	32	25
		4	251	199	79,28	52	20,72	128	106	82,81	22	17,19
		5	251	206	82,07	45	17,93	128	111	86,72	17	13,28
		6	251	235	93,63	16	6,37	128	117	91,41	11	8,59

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2016	1	3	303	243	80,2	60	19,8	147	121	82,31	26	17,69
		4	303	267	88,12	36	11,88	147	132	89,8	15	10,2
		5	303	280	92,41	23	7,59	147	138	93,88	9	6,12
		6	303	298	98,35	5	1,65	147	143	97,28	4	2,72
	2	3	178	151	84,83	27	15,17	121	102	84,3	19	15,7
		4	178	157	88,2	21	11,8	121	121	100	13	10,74
		5	178	164	92,13	14	7,87	121	111	91,74	10	8,26
		6	178	168	94,38	10	5,62	121	115	95,04	6	4,96
	3	3	575	494	85,91	81	14,09	280	224	80	56	20
		4	575	516	89,74	59	10,26	280	242	86,43	38	13,57
		5	575	526	91,48	49	8,52	280	251	89,64	29	10,36
		6	575	558	97,04	17	2,96	280	265	94,64	15	5,36

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2017	1	3	548	463	84,49	85	15,51	222	172	77,48	50	22,52
		4	548	493	89,96	55	10,04	222	190	85,59	32	14,41
		5	548	508	92,7	40	7,3	222	198	89,19	24	10,81
		6	548	519	94,71	29	5,29	222	204	91,89	18	8,11
	2	3	374	312	83,42	62	16,58	164	135	82,32	29	17,68
		4	374	315	84,22	59	15,78	164	137	83,54	27	16,46
		5	374	324	86,63	50	13,37	164	141	85,98	23	14,02
		6	374	327	87,43	47	12,57	164	144	87,8	20	12,2
	3	3	350	281	80,29	69	19,71	197	153	77,66	44	22,34
		4	350	294	84	56	16	197	164	83,25	33	16,75
		5	350	309	88,29	41	11,71	197	173	87,82	24	12,18
		6	350	314	89,71	36	10,29	197	178	90,36	19	9,64

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2018	1	3	367	348	94,82	19	5,18	198	186	93,94	12	6,06
		4	367	353	96,19	14	3,81	198	189	95,45	9	4,55
		5	367	360	98,09	7	1,91	198	193	97,47	5	2,53
		6	367	361	98,37	6	1,63	198	194	97,98	4	2,02
	2	3	201	159	79,1	42	20,9	115	90	78,26	25	21,74
		4	201	173	86,07	28	13,93	115	99	86,09	16	13,91
		5	201	184	91,54	17	8,46	115	104	90,43	11	9,57
		6	201	189	94,03	12	5,97	115	108	93,91	7	6,09
	3	3	314	250	79,62	64	20,38	156	116	74,36	40	25,64
		4	314	276	87,9	38	12,1	156	133	85,26	23	14,74
		5	314	289	92,04	25	7,96	156	142	91,03	14	8,97
		6	314	293	93,31	21	6,69	156	146	93,59	10	6,41
	4	3	277	240	86,64	37	13,36	144	121	84,03	23	15,97
		4	277	252	90,97	25	9,03	144	129	89,58	15	10,42
		5	277	256	92,42	21	7,58	144	133	92,36	11	7,64
		6	277	258	93,14	19	6,86	144	134	93,06	10	6,94

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
2019	1	3	293	262	89,42	31	10,58	120	110	91,67	10	8,33
		4	293	267	91,13	26	8,87	120	115	95,83	5	4,17
		5	293	267	91,13	26	8,87	120	115	95,83	5	4,17
		6	293	271	92,49	22	7,51	120	116	96,67	4	3,33
	2	3	309	279	90,29	30	9,71	165	142	86,06	23	13,94
		4	309	285	92,23	24	7,77	165	145	87,88	20	12,12
		5	309	290	93,85	19	6,15	165	149	90,3	16	9,7
		6	309	292	94,5	17	5,5	165	151	91,52	14	8,48
	3	3	633	530	83,73	103	16,27	245	194	79,18	51	20,82
		4	633	569	89,89	64	10,11	245	211	86,12	34	13,88
		5	633	590	93,21	43	6,79	245	224	91,43	21	8,57
		6	633	596	94,15	37	5,85	245	227	92,65	18	7,35

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
May 2020	1	3	494	404	81,78	90	18,22	208	157	75,48	51	24,52
		4	494	448	90,69	46	9,31	208	179	86,06	29	13,94
		5	494	455	92,11	39	7,89	208	185	88,94	23	11,06
		6	494	473	95,75	21	4,25	208	195	93,75	13	6,25
	2	3	296	240	81,08	56	18,92	168	130	77,38	38	22,62
		4	296	264	89,19	32	10,81	168	146	86,9	22	13,1
		5	296	273	92,23	23	7,77	168	153	91,07	15	8,93
		6	296	278	93,92	18	6,08	168	156	92,86	12	7,14
	3	3	258	231	89,53	27	10,47	135	112	82,96	23	17,04
		4	258	243	94,19	15	5,81	135	122	90,37	13	9,63
		5	258	248	96,12	10	3,88	135	126	93,33	9	6,67
		6	258	253	98,06	5	1,94	135	130	96,3	5	3,7
	4	3	318	265	83,33	53	16,67	171	141	82,46	30	17,54
		4	318	278	87,42	40	12,58	171	151	88,3	20	11,7
		5	318	284	89,31	34	10,69	171	155	90,64	16	9,36
		6	318	287	90,25	31	9,75	171	157	91,81	14	8,19

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
Oct 2020	1	3	403	376	93,3	27	6,7	142	125	88,03	17	11,97
		4	403	388	96,28	15	3,72	142	131	92,25	11	7,75
		5	403	396	98,26	7	1,74	142	137	96,48	5	3,52
		6	403	399	99,01	4	0,99	142	140	98,59	2	1,41
	2	3	264	246	93,18	18	6,82	130	117	90	13	10
		4	264	256	96,97	8	3,03	130	124	95,38	6	4,62
		5	264	257	97,35	7	2,65	130	125	96,15	5	3,85
		6	264	261	98,86	3	1,14	130	128	98,46	2	1,54
	3	3	174	163	93,68	11	6,32	99	92	92,93	7	7,07
		4	174	166	95,4	8	4,6	99	95	95,96	4	4,04
		5	174	167	95,98	7	4,02	99	96	96,97	3	3,03
		6	174	167	95,98	7	4,02	99	96	96,97	3	3,03
	4	3	259	214	82,63	45	17,37	145	121	83,45	24	16,55
		4	259	218	84,17	41	15,83	145	125	86,21	20	13,79
		5	259	228	88,03	31	11,97	145	133	91,72	12	8,28
		6	259	233	89,96	26	10,04	145	135	93,1	10	6,9

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
May 2021	1	3	296	236	79,73	60	20,27	158	121	76,58	37	23,42
		4	296	250	84,46	46	15,54	158	135	85,44	23	14,56
		5	296	253	85,47	43	14,53	158	138	87,34	20	12,66
		6	296	261	88,18	35	11,82	158	146	92,41	12	7,59
	2	3	392	359	91,58	33	8,42	195	176	90,26	19	9,74
		4	392	371	94,64	21	5,36	195	184	94,36	11	5,64
		5	392	373	95,15	19	4,85	195	186	95,38	9	4,62
		6	392	385	98,21	7	1,79	195	190	97,44	5	2,56
	3	3	300	217	72,33	83	27,67	166	112	67,47	54	32,53
		4	300	236	78,67	64	21,33	166	130	78,31	36	21,69
		5	300	249	83	51	17	166	139	83,73	27	16,27
		6	300	264	88	36	12	166	147	88,55	19	11,45
	4	3	227	182	80,18	45	19,82	135	111	82,22	24	17,78
		4	227	195	85,9	32	14,1	135	120	88,89	15	11,11
		5	227	197	86,78	30	13,22	135	122	90,37	13	9,63
		6	227	202	88,99	25	11,01	135	126	93,33	9	6,67

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
Oct 2021	1	3	588	498	84,69	90	15,31	236	187	79,24	49	20,76
		4	588	538	91,5	50	8,5	236	208	88,14	30	12,71
		5	588	553	94,05	35	5,95	236	216	91,53	20	8,47
		6	588	565	96,09	23	3,91	236	223	94,49	13	5,51
	2	3	247	217	87,85	30	12,15	151	123	81,46	28	18,54
		4	247	222	89,88	25	10,12	151	128	84,77	23	15,23
		5	247	230	93,12	17	6,88	151	135	89,4	16	10,6
		6	247	232	93,93	15	6,07	151	138	91,39	13	8,61
	3	3	486	429	88,27	57	11,73	216	175	81,02	41	18,98
		4	486	453	93,21	33	6,79	216	193	89,35	23	10,65
		5	486	465	95,68	21	4,32	216	202	93,52	14	6,48
		6	486	476	97,94	10	2,06	216	209	96,76	7	3,24

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
May 2022	1	3	399	295	73,93	104	26,07	186	117	62,9	69	37,1
		4	399	339	84,96	60	15,04	186	141	75,81	45	24,19
		5	399	357	89,47	42	10,53	186	153	82,26	33	17,74
		6	399	369	92,48	30	7,52	186	162	87,1	24	12,9
	2	3	435	307	70,57	128	29,43	235	153	65,11	82	34,89
		4	435	358	82,3	77	17,7	235	185	78,72	50	21,28
		5	435	384	88,28	51	11,72	235	199	84,68	36	15,32
		6	435	402	92,41	33	7,59	235	213	90,64	22	9,36
	3	3	393	340	86,51	53	13,49	190	157	82,63	33	17,37
		4	393	361	91,86	32	8,14	190	170	89,47	20	10,53
		5	393	367	93,38	26	6,62	190	175	92,11	15	7,89
		6	393	376	95,67	17	4,33	190	181	95,26	9	4,74

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
Oct 2022	1	3	318	275	86,48	43	13,52	203	162	79,8	41	20,2
		4	318	286	89,94	32	10,06	203	172	84,73	31	15,27
		5	318	293	92,14	25	7,86	203	178	87,68	25	12,32
		6	318	302	94,97	16	5,03	203	186	91,63	17	8,37
	2	3	530	456	86,04	74	13,96	257	194	75,49	63	24,51
		4	530	467	88,11	63	11,89	257	205	79,77	52	20,23
		5	530	485	91,51	45	8,49	257	221	85,99	36	14,01
		6	530	496	93,58	34	6,42	257	229	89,11	28	10,89
	3	3	404	297	73,51	107	26,49	184	133	72,28	51	27,72
		4	404	318	78,71	86	21,29	184	150	81,52	34	18,48
		5	404	341	84,41	63	15,59	184	164	89,13	20	10,87
		6	404	358	88,61	46	11,39	184	170	92,39	14	7,61

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			Known words		Unknown words	
Year	Task number	Levels of the Standard	Total words (100%)	Number (pcs)	Ratio (%)	Number (pcs)	Ratio (%)	Total words (100%)	Number (pcs)	Ratio (%)	Number (pcs)	Ratio (%)
May 2023	1	3	411	361	87,83	50	12,17	215	177	82,33	38	17,67
		4	411	378	91,97	33	8,03	215	193	89,77	22	10,23
		5	411	390	94,89	21	5,11	215	200	93,02	15	6,98
		6	411	394	95,86	17	4,14	215	204	94,88	11	5,12
	2	3	291	214	73,54	77	26,46	177	117	66,1	60	33,9
		4	291	237	81,44	54	18,56	177	130	73,45	47	26,55
		5	291	243	83,51	48	16,49	177	136	76,84	41	23,16
		6	291	264	90,72	27	9,28	177	153	86,44	24	13,56
	3	3	429	335	78,09	94	21,91	230	159	69,13	71	30,87
		4	429	357	83,22	72	16,78	230	176	76,52	54	23,48
		5	429	383	89,28	46	10,72	230	193	83,91	37	16,09
		6	429	393	91,61	36	8,39	230	201	87,39	29	12,61

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
Oct 2023	1	3	353	304	86,12	49	13,88	176	143	81,25	33	18,75
		4	353	326	92,35	27	7,65	176	156	88,64	20	11,36
		5	353	335	94,9	18	5,1	176	161	91,48	15	8,52
		6	353	343	97,17	10	2,83	176	166	94,32	10	5,68
	2	3	337	289	85,76	48	14,24	185	147	79,46	38	20,54
		4	337	307	91,1	30	8,9	185	158	85,41	27	14,59
		5	337	317	94,07	20	5,93	185	168	90,81	17	9,19
		6	337	326	96,74	11	3,26	185	176	95,14	9	4,86
	3	3	194	170	87,63	24	12,37	98	84	85,71	14	14,29
		4	194	173	89,18	21	10,82	98	88	89,8	10	10,2
		5	194	181	93,3	13	6,7	98	94	95,92	4	4,08
		6	194	182	93,81	12	6,19	98	95	96,94	3	3,06
	4	3	284	231	81,34	53	18,66	148	117	79,05	31	20,95
		4	284	240	84,51	44	15,49	148	125	84,46	23	15,54
		5	284	248	87,32	36	12,68	148	132	89,19	16	10,81
		6	284	252	88,73	32	11,27	148	135	91,22	13	8,78

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			Known words		Unknown words	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
May 2024	1	3	344	276	80,23	68	19,77	159	130	81,76	29	18,24
		4	344	289	84,01	55	15,99	159	137	86,16	22	13,84
		5	344	299	86,92	45	13,08	159	142	89,31	17	10,69
		6	344	309	89,83	35	10,17	159	147	92,45	12	7,55
	2	3	339	237	69,91	102	30,09	207	145	70,05	62	29,95
		4	339	259	76,4	80	23,6	207	163	78,74	44	21,26
		5	339	276	81,42	63	18,58	207	176	85,02	31	14,98
		6	339	281	82,89	58	17,11	207	179	86,47	28	13,53
	3	3	391	327	83,63	64	16,37	167	136	81,44	31	18,56
		4	391	351	89,77	40	10,23	167	150	89,82	17	10,18
		5	391	357	91,3	34	8,7	167	156	93,41	11	6,59
		6	391	380	97,19	11	2,81	167	160	95,81	7	4,19

			Total					Unique				
				Known words		Unknown words			**Known words**		**Unknown words**	
Year	**Task number**	**Levels of the Standard**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Total words (100%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**	**Number (pcs)**	**Ratio (%)**
Oct 2024	1	3	306	264	86,27	42	13,73	148	125	84,46	23	15,54
		4	306	276	90,2	30	9,8	148	134	90,54	14	9,46
		5	306	282	92,16	24	7,84	148	138	93,24	10	6,76
		6	306	292	95,42	14	4,58	148	140	94,59	8	5,41
	2	3	310	262	84,52	48	15,48	177	139	78,53	38	21,47
		4	310	276	89,03	34	10,97	177	152	85,88	25	14,12
		5	310	285	91,94	25	8,06	177	161	90,96	16	9,04
		6	310	293	94,52	17	5,48	177	166	93,79	11	6,21
	3	3	487	433	88,91	54	11,09	192	167	86,98	25	13,02
		4	487	449	92,2	38	7,8	192	175	91,15	17	8,85
		5	487	457	93,84	30	6,16	192	181	94,27	11	5,73
		6	487	458	94,05	29	5,95	192	182	94,79	10	5,21
	4	3	54	46	85,19	8	14,81	40	33	82,5	7	17,5
		4	54	50	92,59	4	7,41	40	37	92,5	3	7,5
		5	54	51	94,44	3	5,56	40	38	95	2	5
		6	54	52	96,3	2	3,7	40	39	97,5	1	2,5

Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe 欧洲中文教育 2025/2, pp. 45–69

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A Design Theory of Engagement for Flipped CFL: Constructs, Mechanisms, and Principles

Abstract

This design-based research (DBR) study investigates how learner engagement can be operationalized as a set of design decisions within flipped instruction for beginning learners of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). Flipped formats can expand learning time by shifting initial exposure to content outside class while reserving class time for guided practice and interaction; however, empirical accounts of how to design flipped instruction for novice CFL learners, given the linguistic and orthographic demands of Chinese, remain limited. To address this gap, the study conducts iterative DBR cycles to (a) translate engagement principles into concrete features of out-of-class learning tasks and in-class activity structures, (b) examine how these features shape learners' participation and persistence across the course, and (c) revise the design based on multi-source evidence collected during each iteration. The study documents the evolving instructional design, the data sources used to inform revisions, and the rationale for changes across cycles. Outcomes include a set of engagement-centered design principles and implementation guidance to support the future design of flipped CFL courses for beginning-level learners.

Keywords: flipped instruction, task engagement, design-based research, CFL teaching

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王婷婷

面向翻转式对外汉语教学的参与度设计理论：构念、机制与原则

摘要

本研究采用设计型研究（DBR）方法，探讨如何将学习者参与度具体化为一系列可操作的设计决策，并将其融入初级对外汉语（CFL）学习者的翻转课堂教学之中。翻转式教学通过将初始内容学习转移至课外，从而拓展学习时间，并将课堂时间用于引导性练习与互动活动；然而，鉴于汉语在语言结构与文字书写方面的特殊要求，针对初学者如何进行翻转式教学设计的实证研究仍较为有限。为弥补这一研究空白，本研究通过多轮迭代的设计型研究循环：（a）将参与度相关原则转化为具体的课外学习任务特征与课堂活动结构设计；（b）考察这些设计特征如何影响学习者在课程中的参与表现与持续投入；（c）基于每一轮收集的多源数据对教学设计进行修订与优化。研究系统记录了教学设计的演进过程、支持修订所依据的数据来源，以及各轮调整的理论依据。研究成果包括一套以参与度为核心的教学设计原则及实施建议，为未来初级对外汉语翻转课堂课程的设计提供指导。

关键词： 翻转教学，任务投入，设计型研究，对外汉语教学

Introduction

Flipped instructional strategies have been widely implemented across educational contexts, in which lectures and other forms of direct instruction are delivered asynchronously via technology, while classroom time is repurposed for guided, hands-on activities such as small-group collaboration and jigsaw learning (Hamdan et al., 2013; Zou et al., 2020). Over recent decades, flipped learning has emerged as a prominent manifestation of student-centered pedagogy (van Alten et al., 2019), with notable applications in language education (Mehring and Leis, 2018). Nonetheless, the mere separation of online learning and in-class practice does not inherently ensure student engagement with tasks, which remains a central objective in language pedagogy (Egbert et al., 2021).

This underscores the necessity of systematically embedding engagement principles within the instructional design of Chinese language courses to strengthen learners' cognitive, behavioral, and emotional involvement (Wang, 2023). Furthermore, a theoretically grounded examination of curriculum design and implementation can elucidate how design processes unfold, what pedagogical and theoretical considerations educators should prioritize, and how collaborative design teams can function most effectively (Zou et al., 2020).

Traditional research methods that privilege hypothesis testing or the analysis of learner perceptions are limited in their capacity to capture the iterative, contextually situated, and design-oriented nature of theory-based instructional innovations. In contrast, the design-based research (DBR) approach offers a methodological framework capable of documenting both the evolution of the design process and the theoretical insights derived from iterative enactment. Within DBR, theory and instructional design are inextricably intertwined, each informing and refining the other through cycles of implementation and reflection (Dede et al., 2004). To cultivate this reciprocal relationship, Pardo-Ballester and Rodriguez (2009) advocate for the establishment of theoretically grounded design criteria that foster a dynamic interplay between conceptual frameworks and pedagogical realization.

Literature Review

Flipped Language Instruction

Although many researchers have asserted that flipped learning can enhance student engagement, studies indicate that it does not always function as effectively as anticipated. For example, research has shown that in flipped college courses, students often report lower satisfaction with instructional delivery because they are unfamiliar with the new learning format and the associated technologies (Chen et al., 2017; Strayer, 2012). Moreover, several studies have found no significant differences in students' knowledge acquisition, anxiety levels, or test performance between flipped and traditional instruction in language learning (Zou et al., 2020; Johnson and Renner, 2012). Researchers have also observed varying levels of student satisfaction regarding web-based and in-class components (Crouch and Mazur, 2001; Fredrickson et al., 2005; Hao, 2016; Zou et al., 2018). The fact that some flipped language learning contexts yield greater effectiveness than others suggest that merely requiring students to study online and practice in class does not necessarily foster enhanced engagement or learning. Drawing on broader educational research, it can be inferred that

each flipped classroom possesses unique characteristics, and thus, a universal instructional model cannot accommodate all learners. Ash (2012) outlined multiple approaches to flipping a foreign language classroom, emphasizing that to support learning, instructors should offer diverse resources and allow students to select materials that best facilitate their acquisition of required content. Furthermore, to address students' diverse learning needs across disciplines and topics, teachers should thoughtfully consider which types of content are most effective for independent study outside of class. As Zhang et al. (2012) reported, in some cases, students can learn autonomously, whereas in others, teachers must provide direct instruction to the entire class. In addition, Zou et al. (2020) emphasized that language instructors should focus on cultivating deep learner interest in content rather than solely assigning video materials, and they recommended structuring tasks carefully to minimize frustration. Likewise, Chinese language teachers must make strategic decisions about how to utilize class time and how best to support students (Wang and Qi, 2018; Zhang et al., 2011).

In the research literature, flipped instruction is defined as a student-centered pedagogical approach grounded in task engagement (Bergmann and Sams, 2012). When effectively designed, flipped instruction can facilitate students' engagement in learning Chinese language and culture. A substantial body of research has examined student engagement within flipped learning environments. Using the tripartite framework of affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement, Steen-Utheim and Foldnes (2018) explored students' perceptions of their learning experiences in flipped and lecture-based mathematics courses over two semesters, interviewing 12 first-year undergraduates at a Norwegian business school. Their findings revealed higher perceived engagement in the flipped classroom, with seven contributing categories: commitment to peers, recognition, psychological safety, instructor relationship, physical learning environment, collaboration with peers, and use of videos for new content acquisition. Similarly, Lo and Hew (2021) developed empirically and theoretically grounded design principles to promote engagement in flipped mathematics learning, also employing the three-dimensional engagement framework. Studies within the language learning domain have yielded similar insights. For instance, Lian and Jia (2021) examined flipped language classrooms using a quasi-experimental mixed-methods design at a Chinese university, analyzing engagement across four dimensions—behavioral, cognitive, emotional, and social. Their results demonstrated that engagement was enhanced by the quality of out-of-class materials and the effective integration of pre-class and in-class activities. Nonetheless, these studies offer a limited understanding of what specifically facilitates student engagement in flipped language environments and how

engagement principles can be systematically integrated into Chinese flipped instructional design.

Task Engagement in Language Learning

The literature has defined student task engagement in various ways. Broadly, it refers to students' active involvement in task performance (Lutz et al., 2006; Meltzer and Hamann, 2005). In the context of language learning, Mohammadi (2017) described task engagement as the extent to which learners are immersed in completing a language activity, even when it presents cognitive or linguistic challenges. In this study, task engagement is defined as the deep, sustained involvement that face-to-face or online tasks can elicit in a flipped learning environment.

Facilitators of Task Engagement

Several factors have been identified as influential in shaping student task engagement in Chinese language learning. Egbert et al. (2021) proposed six facilitators of engagement in their *Language Task Engagement Model*: authenticity, social interaction, learning support, interest, autonomy, and challenge. Building upon this framework, Wang (2015) developed five engagement principles to guide the design of online foreign language and culture curricula for Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) instruction. These principles include:

- Meeting students' needs
- Offering opportunities for students to set learning goals
- Matching task challenges with students' abilities and skills
- Providing clear instructions and directions for task completion
- Creating opportunities for practice and immediate feedback

Wang's (2015) engagement principles overlap with three of Egbert et al.'s (2021) facilitators—authenticity, challenge, and learning support—highlighting their relevance to engagement-oriented instructional design. The present study adopts these three facilitators as guiding principles for integrating engagement into the design of flipped CFL instruction. Each facilitator is discussed in detail below.

Authenticity

The first facilitator, *authenticity*, refers to learners' perceptions that a task is meaningful, valuable, and enjoyable (Egbert, 2020). In language learning, authentic tasks connect with learners' personal experiences (Davis and McPartland, 2012) and align with their goals, interests, and values. McTighe et al.

(2020) emphasized that authentic learning tasks must be relevant to both practical purposes and learning outcomes. To foster authenticity, instructors must first understand students' real-world needs and design tasks that address their cognitive, emotional, and social development (Wang, 2015; Wang and Li, 2022).

Optimal Challenge

Challenge serves as another crucial facilitator of task engagement. When appropriately aligned with learners' language proficiency, challenge can stimulate engagement rather than frustration (Crick, 2012; Czimmermann and Piniel, 2016). Research suggests that optimal challenge motivates learners to extend their abilities and persist in achieving task goals (Aubrey et al., 2022). Instructors can promote this balance by creating a psychologically safe and supportive learning environment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Egbert, 2004) and designing tasks that are slightly beyond students' current skill levels (Lee, 2007).

Learning Support

The third facilitator, *learning support*, emphasizes the instructor's role in scaffolding engagement through guidance, structure, and responsiveness to individual needs (Shernoff et al., 2017). Instructional supports such as clear directions, visual materials, rubrics, and explicit expectations have been shown to enhance students' comprehension and confidence in language learning (Curry and Lillis, 2004; Wang and Li, 2022). Kim (2018) found that when students acquire foundational knowledge and conceptual understanding prior to in-person sessions, they demonstrate higher engagement during subsequent interactive activities. Similarly, El Miedany and El Miedany (2019) observed that explicit instruction improves communication and efficiency in group tasks. Feedback represents a vital component of learning support. Sustained engagement depends on timely, relevant, and constructive feedback that affirms students' progress and clarifies areas for improvement (CAST, 2018; Meyer et al., 2014). When learners receive opportunities to apply their knowledge and obtain immediate, meaningful feedback, their sense of competence and mastery is strengthened—fostering deeper engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Niemiec and Ryan, 2009; Sailer et al., 2017).

Research questions

Flipped language learning remains at an early stage of development (Zou et al., 2020). Although prior research indicates that flipped instruction can incorporate principles of task engagement, there is limited empirical work examining how these principles can systematically guide the iterative design, implementation,

and refinement of a flipped Chinese language course using a Design-Based Research (DBR) framework. DBR emphasizes the cyclical relationship between theory, design, and practice, providing a structured lens for exploring how engagement principles can inform authentic instructional materials while generating practical and theoretical insights. This study adopts the three engagement facilitators—authenticity, challenge, and learning support—as a theoretical framework to guide the exploration of the following research questions within the DBR cycles of design, enactment, and reflection:

1. Integration of Engagement Principles (Design Phase). How can student engagement principles be systematically embedded into the DBR-based flipped instructional design for Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL)? This question addresses the design phase of DBR, examining how authenticity, challenge, and learning support are operationalized in pre-class and in-class tasks. It explores how these engagement principles guide the development of prototypes, inform instructional choices, and shape the sequencing and structure of activities to optimize learner involvement.

2. Emergent Design Principles (Reflection Phase). What design principles emerge as essential for developing an effective Chinese language flipped instructional design? This question relates to the reflection phase, aiming to identify patterns, strategies, and actionable principles derived from iterative cycles of DBR. It examines how the integration of engagement facilitators informs instructional effectiveness, contributes to the broader understanding of flipped CFL pedagogy, and provides a framework for replicable design practices in similar educational contexts.

By explicitly aligning these research questions with the DBR cycles, this study highlights the dynamic interplay between theory and practice: engagement principles guide design, implementation informs iterative refinements, and reflection generates both practical recommendations and theoretical insights. In doing so, the study bridges the gap between engagement theory and the practical realities of designing and enacting a flipped Chinese language curriculum, offering guidance for instructors and contributing to the scholarly literature on DBR and language learning.

Research Methodology

This study employs Design-Based Research (DBR) as its methodological framework, integrating research and design to develop an engaging learning environment for Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL). DBR, as defined by Barab and Squire (2004), emphasizes actively fostering interactions and itera-

tive improvement rather than solely observing phenomena. In this study, course designers assumed dual roles as researchers and designers, collaboratively shaping instructional materials and teaching strategies through a deliberate process of negotiating content and contextual considerations.

The flipped course design was guided by principles of task engagement, including addressing students' learning needs, aligning task challenges with their abilities and skills, setting clear learning objectives, and providing explicit instruction and guidance. The design process employed an iterative approach consistent with Reeves' (2000) definition of DBR, encompassing four interrelated steps:

- Identification and significance assessment of real-world practice problems
- Solution development through the creation of a design
- Design evaluation
- Reflection on research and design principles

This study adhered closely to Reeves' (2000) four-step framework throughout the CFL course's design, implementation, and iterative refinement, ensuring that both practical innovations and theoretical insights were generated in the process.

Design Context

Design-based research emerges from the enthusiasm and dedication of researchers and practitioners who seek to address practical challenges in real-world contexts (Ma et al., 2009). The development of an interactive flipped Chinese course originated from a systematic effort to identify and resolve instructional challenges through iterative design. Initially, the targeted flipped Chinese language class was adapted from an online course designed for beginner-level students at a rural university in the southeastern United States. The objective of the online course was to equip students with foundational Chinese linguistic knowledge and develop their reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills for basic communication. The course consisted of 15 units delivered through Canvas, the online learning platform. The first unit served as a general introduction, providing an overview of the entire module, while the final unit focused on review. The 13 units in between integrated three key learning components: textbook dialogues, vocabulary, and grammar.

Refinement of the course became necessary after one year of implementation across two iterations. Based on students' evaluations and anecdotal data, it became evident that the original design presented challenges related to content organization and instructional clarity, which could impede learning outcomes and reduce student engagement. Instructors and researchers, as well as independent course reviews, highlighted a lack of cohesion among various language

learning tasks. Additionally, student feedback indicated that the difficulty level of some tasks imposed an unnecessary cognitive burden, while unclear instructions hindered effective task completion.

Guided by the DBR framework, the research team engaged in iterative cycles of design, enactment, and reflection to address these issues. During the design phase, course materials were revised to enhance cohesion among language tasks, align challenges with students' abilities (challenge), and provide meaningful, relevant learning experiences connected to students' interests and goals (authenticity). Explicit instructions, structured guidance, and opportunities for practice with timely feedback were embedded to provide learning support. During the enactment phase, 45 minutes to one hour of the weekly three-hour class session was dedicated to practicing the language content learned online, creating opportunities for instructors to observe students' interactions with the materials and collect ongoing feedback. Reflection cycles involved evaluating the effectiveness of task sequences, content clarity, and instructional scaffolds, leading to further refinements of both online and face-to-face components. The redesigned flipped course, therefore, consisted of an integrated blend of online self-learning and in-class practice, ensuring that engagement principles guided each iterative improvement.

Despite the need for redesign, the research team recognized the value of the previous online course as a foundational prototype for online Chinese language instruction. The content remained significant for supporting students' overall language development, and its organization into 15 units provided a clear structure that enabled students to focus on and manage their weekly learning tasks effectively. Through this DBR-informed approach, the iterative design process not only enhanced the practical effectiveness of the course but also generated insights into the application of task engagement principles in flipped CFL instruction.

Participants

Four designers participated in this study. Three were from the United States, and one was from mainland China. Two of the designers were Chinese language professors, while the other two were instructional design experts from the university's technology center. Three of the designers had prior experience traveling to and teaching in mainland China and Taiwan, which was anticipated to facilitate a more informed and culturally grounded understanding of Chinese language and culture. Additionally, all course designers had experience learning at least one foreign language (e.g., English, Spanish, Russian, or Chinese) and had previously designed and/or participated in online or flipped courses.

The roles of the designers varied throughout the process of redesigning the Chinese course, reflecting the collaborative and iterative nature of DBR. While any designer could suggest revisions or participate in any aspect of the project, general responsibilities were negotiated at the outset. During course development, the professors worked closely with the instructional design experts to establish overarching design requirements, course outlines, and unit objectives. Weekly team meetings provided a structured forum for negotiation, reflection, and iterative refinement of the course topics and instructional components.

Based on these discussions, the designers generated instructional materials and uploaded them to the Canvas platform, after which the instructional design experts reviewed the materials and proposed additional revisions. This iterative process allowed the team to continuously evaluate the effectiveness of the materials and make refinements grounded in both theory and practical considerations.

The design team emphasized the value of multiple perspectives throughout the DBR process. To resolve potential conflicts, all members collaboratively discussed the best solutions to ensure that course topics and examples were comprehensible to American students and clearly delineated within the course. Through this negotiated, reflective, and iterative collaboration, the redesign process exemplified the DBR principles of cyclical design, enactment, and reflection, resulting in a Chinese course that was pedagogically sound, culturally authentic, and aligned with engagement principles.

Data Collection

In this study, data were collected from three major sources: course documents, design notes, and conversation notes. Each data source is described in more detail below.

Course Documents

Documents from the previously used Canvas online course served as the primary source for identifying problems and potential solutions in relation to the task engagement literature and current courses for design evaluation and description. These documents included students' feedback, instructors' comments within the course, course tasks and assessments for each unit, and teaching materials, including video and audio files. Students' feedback and instructors' comments provided the evaluation criteria for this analysis. By examining the course tasks, assessments, and teaching materials, the research team identified necessary modifications to refine the current course materials.

Design Notes

Design notes consisted of two components. The first component included the general course outline, course content, and resources developed by the Chinese course designer and instructors. The second component comprised the revised course outlines and content lists, which were collaboratively created by all course designers through joint negotiation of problems and solutions.

Conversation Notes

Conversation notes documented the collaboration and interactions among all course designers. These notes included online cooperation records created and maintained on Box, an online document management system, as well as meeting notes taken during weekly team meetings. These records captured discussions, decision-making processes, and iterative refinements made throughout the course design process.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis followed a six-step process adapted from established qualitative research procedures (Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña, 2019; Saldaña, 2016; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; McKenney and Reeves, 2019) as shown in Figure 1.

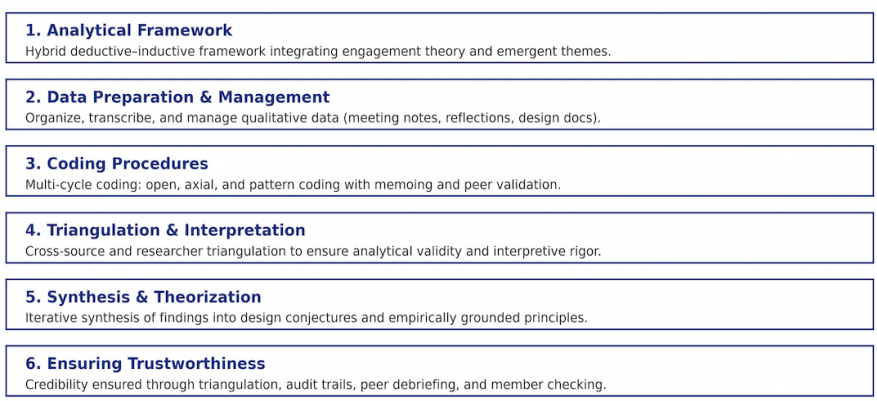

Figure 1: Six-step process for qualitative research procedures

In the initial coding, all materials—including design notes, meeting transcripts, instructor reflections, and course documents (including inner-course student feedback and evaluation) —were transcribed, anonymized, and systematically organized in NVivo for data management. Context-specific themes emerged

inductively from the data, guided by task engagement principles (Egbert, 2021; Wang, 2015). Multiple coding cycles (Saldaña, 2016) were conducted. In the first circle, the open and descriptive coding was conducted, followed by axial and pattern coding in the second cycle, supported by analytic memos and inter-coder discussions to ensure interpretive consistency. Triangulation across data sources and researchers was employed to ensure analytical rigor.

For trustworthiness purposes, the study contains audit trails, peer debriefing, and member checking in alignment with Lincoln and Guba's (1985) credibility and dependability criteria. In addition, both member checking and peer debriefing were employed. Peer debriefing was conducted with two independent colleagues who were not directly involved in the course design. In the analysis process, the lead researcher discussed coding decisions, emerging themes, and interpretive choices with them to provide an external check on assumptions, identified potential biases, and ensured interpretations. Inter-coder reliability was assessed by having multiple researchers independently code a subset of the data; the agreement rate was 0.92, confirming the consistency and dependability of the coding scheme.

Following the methodological conventions of design-based research (Barab and Squire, 2004; McKenney and Reeves, 2019), the analysis was iterative, interpretive, and integrative. The overall goal of the analysis is to examine how task engagement principles—authenticity, optimal challenge, and learning support—were interpreted, implemented, and refined throughout the design cycles of the flipped Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) course, as shown in Figure 2.

Engagement Facilitator	Operational Definition in This Study	Example Data Excerpt	Analytic Code	Emergent Design Implication
Authenticity	Learners perceive tasks as meaningful, culturally relevant, and connected to real-world contexts.	"Students said cultural videos helped them see how grammar worked in daily life."	Cultural context use	Design grammar tasks around authentic communication scenarios.
Optimal Challenge	Task difficulty balances cognitive demand and learner ability.	"We found students disengaged when the quiz was too easy."	Task difficulty mismatch	Add adaptive challenge levels or optional extension tasks.

Learning Support	Guidance and resources facilitate success without reducing autonomy.	"Adding guided examples helped students apply grammar rules."	Scaffolded guidance	Provide step-by-step video modeling and feedback templates.

Figure 2: Data analysis framework illustrating how the three engagement facilitators guided the coding and interpretation of qualitative data

Limitations

Replicxfdability

Context plays an essential role in the design-based research process. However, because the researchers' interventions are usually culturally embodied, the research context might not always be described appropriately by the researchers (Hoadley et al., 2000). Therefore, it may cause inaccuracy for others to repeat the same study in a different cultural context. In this study, the context of this course task design may differ from typical foreign language courses at the college level that lack a specific educational purpose. However, the general design principles and reflections generated in this study can still offer guidance for designing engaging learning tasks for CFL learning.

Time

Reeves (2000) claims that DBR focuses on the designing process in which problems, solutions, and methods are refined over time; sound design is iterative, which means that the process of creating something that addresses a goal should be repeated many times to test and refine the designed artifact or process (Hoadley, 2002). In this design process, the initial course served as the first iteration. To overcome this limitation, student documents, such as their online discussions and their in-class feedback, were used to find out how users perceived the task engagement of the redesigned course.

Design Narrative

The design narrative illustrates how the research team—acting as researchers, designers, and teachers—engaged in iterative refinement of a flipped CFL course. Following Reeves's (2000) four phases of design-based research (DBR), the project identified authentic classroom problems, implemented theory-informed solutions, and reflected systematically to enhance both practice and theory.

Operating across these three roles was essential. As researchers, the team analyzed engagement data, feedback, and performance to identify persistent challenges. As designers, they translated these insights into prototypes and learning tasks. As teachers, the design team tested the interventions in real classrooms, interpreting learners' affective and behavioral engagement firsthand. This integration aligns with the Design-Based Research Collective (2003) and reflects the notion that design should occur "in the messy reality of practice," balancing theoretical rigor and pedagogical sensitivity.

The analysis of the original course, student evaluations, and classroom observations revealed four recurring issues: lack of authenticity, inappropriate challenge, insufficient learning support, and poor integration between online and in-person learning see Table 1.

Problem Category	Description of Issues	Example Evidence from Students / Observations	Pedagogical Impact
Lack of authenticity	Instruction relied on textbook dialogues and rote drills, which were disconnected from learners' experiences or goals.	"We memorize dialogues that we never use in real life."	Low motivation and limited communicative competence occur because inauthentic tasks reduce perceived relevance and meaningful language use (Egbert, 2021; Herrington, Reeves, and Oliver, 2010; Gilmore, 2007; Li, 2020).

Excessive cognitive challenge	Vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation were introduced simultaneously through dense charts and teacher-centered explanations.	"Too much information at once—I get confused between similar words."	Overload of working memory led to frustration and disengagement, consistent with cognitive-load research and engagement theory (Sweller, 2010; Chandler and Sweller, 1991; Crick, 2012; Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2014).
Insufficient learning support and unclear navigation	Online materials were scattered across multiple folders with vague task instructions and no precise sequencing.	"I don't know where to start or what's most important."	Lack of scaffolding led to confusion and diminished self-efficacy, underscoring the need for guided support (Merrill, 2002; Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976; Van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen, 2010; Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick, 2006).
Weak integration between online and in-person sessions	Online quizzes repeat classroom material rather than preparing students for communicative use.	"Online work doesn't connect to what we do in class."	Fragmented learning limited knowledge transfer, supporting research on integrated flipped and constructivist design (Bishop and Verleger, 2013; Jonassen, 1999; Reeve, 2013; Zhang and Hyland, 2022).

Table 1: Identified issues in the original course design

Authenticity

Researchers provide a comprehensive definition of authenticity as learners' perception of a task's relevance and value, expressed through its components. In our instructional design, we emphasize three key aspects of authenticity: connections, self-efficacy, and meeting learning needs and goals (Egbert et al., 2021; Wang, 2023). Firstly, learners tend to find a task authentic when it resonates with their experiences. This includes relating the task to their background, culture, interests, previous learning, future learning, and the topics and tools used in the task. If students cannot see the purpose of a task, their engagement and learning will be hindered.

Challenges Identified in the Initial Course Design

Two experienced instructors who had taught the course for multiple semesters noted that while students could recall grammar rules, they struggled to use them spontaneously in speaking or writing. The findings from course evaluation revealed a lack of authenticity and communicative relevance in the online materials, confirming the need to redesign the course to support more meaningful, real-world language use. For instance, the online learning materials closely followed the textbook structure and relied heavily on PowerPoint slides, PDF grammar explanations, and short multiple-choice quizzes. These activities emphasized form recognition rather than meaningful communication. For example, a common online exercise asked students to "fill in the blanks" with measure words or verb forms—e.g., "她____李友。" "她____美国人。" While such drills reinforced accuracy, they lacked real-world context or interaction, preventing students from understanding how these structures functioned in authentic communication. Further, according to the instructors, students frequently reported that these activities felt repetitive and disconnected from their daily experiences. Analytics data from the learning management system (LMS) confirmed this pattern—completion rates were high, but time spent on each activity was minimal, suggesting superficial engagement.

Design responses

The course was redesigned to balance online and in-person components, strengthening authenticity through meaningful connections, enhancing self-efficacy, and aligning activities with students' learning needs and goals. This transformation shifted the course from a textbook-centered, form-focused structure to a communicative learning environment. During the redesign process, the design team consulted with two experienced instructors who had taught the course for several years, gaining insight into the course's general characteristics and stu-

dents' learning needs. Based on this analysis, the team created instructions to help students set clear learning goals at the very beginning of the instructional page. To achieve authenticity in the online section, grammar and vocabulary were embedded in meaningful, real-world contexts. Instructor-created videos modeled everyday dialogues such as making an appointment or introducing friends, allowing students to observe how linguistic structures function in authentic communication. The design team developed multiple approaches to facilitate vocabulary learning and produced cartoon videos that enabled students to acquire and practice language expressions within authentic communicative contexts.

One designer and instructor noted that students are more likely to be engaged when they feel valued for their individuality, progress, and contributions to peers and teachers, and real-world tasks can promote communicative learning; therefore, authentic materials such as social media posts help further link course content to students' personal experiences and interests. Online collaborative tools such as Padlet (a digital post board platform) and Flipgrid (an online discussion platform) were em v ployed to encourage students to share personalized responses and exchange ideas in Chinese, fostering a sense of community and relevance. Platforms such as Padlet facilitated interaction and collaboration among learners (see Figure 3), while Book Creator enabled teachers to provide personalized reading materials and students to publish and share their written work (see Figure 4).

Figure 3: An example of student post advertisement finding a language partner

Figure 4: Book creator as a tool for personalized reading and student publication.

In the redesigned course, face-to-face sessions were intentionally structured to extend online learning into interactive, communicative practice. The design emphasized authenticity and collaboration, providing students with opportunities to apply newly learned grammar and vocabulary in real-world contexts. Class meetings centered on task-based activities such as group skits, role-plays, and situational dialogues that mirrored everyday interactions introduced in the online modules. For example, students worked in pairs to reenact conversations in a friend's home or describe their school lives in a family gathering, personalizing dialogues to reflect their own experiences. To further enhance authenticity, native speakers and upper-level learners were invited as conversation partners, engaging students in spontaneous exchanges and offering natural linguistic feedback. Instructors also prompted students to respond to questions in Chinese during discussions, reinforcing active language use. Additionally, reading-focused collaborative tasks were incorporated to strengthen character recognition, as students grouped vocabulary sharing the same characters and practiced reading short passages together. Through these integrated design features, in-class learning became a space for creative language application, peer interaction, and authentic communicative engagement.

Optimal Challenge

Researchers have observed that challenge can serve as a facilitator of engagement when it aligns with students' language learning abilities (Crick, 2012; Czimmermann and Piniel, 2016). To achieve this alignment, scholars recommend designing language tasks that provide an optimal level of difficulty—enough to motivate learners to complete the task without causing frustration or disengagement (Aubrey et al., 2022).

Challenges Identified in the Initial Course Design

The initial course had several pedagogical and design challenges that hindered effective learning and student engagement. An analysis of course evaluations, instructor reflections, and student feedback identified the difficulties, including cognitive load and insufficient scaffolding for student learning. For example, the simultaneous introduction of vocabulary and grammar through a chart-based instructional approach, though intended to foster pattern recognition, led to cognitive overload by overwhelming students' working memory. Learners described lessons as "too much at once" and "hard to connect the new grammar with the words we just learned," reflecting surface-level understanding and difficulty applying grammar in communicative contexts due to divided attention. Furthermore, minimal explicit modeling of pronunciation and the logographic writing system assumed students could master these independently without considering the complexity of Chinese phonology and orthography for beginners. The analysis that shows students struggled to distinguish tones, remember pinyin, and connect writing with classroom activities aligns with the need for structured scaffolding and guided support (Vygotsky, 1978; Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976). Furthermore, the design team noticed that limited opportunities for active practice and real-time feedback. Class activities leave students with few chances to personalize language use or build confidence, and the lack of authentic interaction and formative feedback diminishes motivation and engagement, running counter to principles of multimedia learning theory (Mayer, 2014), which emphasize active processing and feedback for deep learning.

Design responses

In response to the challenges identified in the initial course iteration, the design team implemented a series of targeted interventions to improve instructional alignment, cognitive manageability, and learner engagement. The redesign sought to transform the course from a cognitively demanding, instructor-centered format into a learner-centered, scaffolded experience that emphasizes incremental progression, multimodal practice, and continuous feedback.

To address cognitive overload, vocabulary and grammar instruction were separated into discrete, sequential stages. Instead of presenting large information sets through dense charts, each lesson began with vocabulary instruction contextualized through examples and multimedia aids, followed by a focused stage for grammar practice. This design aligned with Cognitive Load Theory, which emphasizes the importance of segmenting complex content to enhance schema construction (Sweller, 2011). Each grammar concept was supported by simplified visual explanations and short formative exercises to promote gradual

conceptualization. The scaffolded sequence enabled learners to process new input efficiently, lowering frustration while promoting accuracy and fluency.

Students first identify vocabulary in meaningful contexts and then apply it within controlled grammar patterns. Recognizing the difficulties students faced with tones and characters, the redesigned course introduced explicit modeling, repetition, and multimodal reinforcement. In the online session, digital playback tools and required pronunciation recordings for formative feedback were added. For writing, stroke order animations, character tracing, and mnemonic visualizations were integrated into the LMS to help students internalize form–sound–meaning connections. In addition, recycling mechanisms—such as weekly review quizzes, mini-dialogues, and self-paced review modules—were added to consolidate prior learning before introducing new material. Regular "spiral reviews" began each class session, revisiting key structures in new communicative contexts. This iterative cycle of presentation, practice, and review reflected principles of spiral curriculum design (Bruner, 1960) and distributed practice (Cepeda et al., 2006), enhancing long-term retention and confidence.

To address uneven pacing and limited reinforcement, lessons were redesigned around a tiered progression model, with "core tasks" required of all learners and "extension tasks" offered for enrichment. For instance, after completing the fixed-course tasks, students can engage in self-paced learning. For instance, students created self-introduction presentations using Panopto and digital storytelling projects using Book Creator, integrating text, images, and audio. Further, formative assessment was embedded at every stage through pronunciation recordings, self-check quizzes, and reflection journals. Feedback was immediate and personalized, allowing students to identify errors and track progress.

In addition to online learning, pronunciation instruction was reinforced in class through instructor demonstrations, such as modeling tone pairs and having students repeat with visual tone graphs displayed on slides. Instructors also employed color-coded task menus to organize and differentiate communicative group activities. For example, green tasks focused on simple exchanges, such as greeting a classmate or asking for someone's name. In contrast, blue tasks required more extended dialogues, such as describing one's family or daily routine. This system allowed students to select activities that matched their proficiency level while still pursuing shared learning goals. Furthermore, after completing the online self-paced modules on vocabulary and sentence patterns for self-introduction, students were challenged to deliver short presentations introducing themselves in Chinese—stating their names, nationalities, and hobbies—thereby integrating the pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentence structure learned through both online and in-class instruction.

Learning Support

Learning support emphasizes the instructor's role in scaffolding engagement through guidance, structure, and responsiveness to student needs (Shernoff et al., 2017). Clear directions, visual aids, rubrics, and explicit expectations enhance comprehension and confidence (Curry and Lillis, 2004; Wang and Li, 2022). Foundational knowledge acquired before in-person sessions boosts engagement in interactive activities (Kim, 2018), while explicit instruction improves communication and task efficiency (El Miedany and El Miedany, 2019). Timely, constructive feedback reinforces progress, clarifies areas for improvement, and fosters competence and deeper engagement (CAST, 2018; Fredricks et al., 2004; Niemiec and Ryan, 2009; Sailer et al., 2017).

Challenges Identified in the Initial Course Design

The design team's observations highlighted the shortcomings of the original course's instructional design in providing sufficient learning support for students to acquire information effectively. The design team recognized that improvements could be made to the comprehensive instruction and navigation of the online course to offer students more explicit guidance and more efficient learning support. One particular area of concern was the navigation, which needed a comprehensive overview. Short descriptions under each title and subtitle on the main page resulted in students spending extra time trying to understand the course structure and determining where to go and how to set their learning goals.

Design responses

To address these issues in the redesign, the design team reorganized the learning content into weekly modules, as exemplified in Figure 7. This design approach recognizes that clear instructions are crucial in engaging students with their learning tasks, as explicit guidelines and explanations help them focus and concentrate on their objectives. In addition, there is an inclusion of detailed descriptions of the learning tasks, providing students with a clear view of the course's overall structure, which facilitates effective task planning. Moreover, the redesigned learning module emphasized a student-centered approach, granting students autonomy in deciding what, how, and when to study during their learning process. Students could plan their learning tasks in any order, enabling them to create personalized learning schedules.

Implications of the Design Principles

The redesign of the Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) course illustrates how a structured, iterative design process can bridge theory and practice within a design-based research (DBR) framework. The process began with evidence-informed problem identification, using inner-course student feedback, LMS engagement data, and assessment results to pinpoint challenges such as decontextualized materials and difficulty applying grammar in communicative contexts. For example, analysis revealed that students struggled to use sentence structures for describing personal spaces or ordering food in realistic scenarios.

Researchers, instructors, and instructional designers, sometimes with two individuals sharing multiple roles, such as both designing and instructing—collaborated to define objectives and integrate perspectives from theory and practice. Instructors identified grammar points and language functions most relevant to students' real communicative needs (e.g., expressing preferences, conversations in different communicative contexts), researchers provided guidance on scaffolding tasks and aligning them with task engagement theory, and designers developed interactive modules using videos, cultural visuals, and tools like Padlet and Flipgrid to support peer interaction and reflection. These overlapping roles enabled a more dynamic, integrated design process: insights from classroom practice could immediately inform theoretical decisions, tasks could be adapted responsively to student needs, and team members gained a richer understanding of multiple perspectives. At the same time, careful coordination ensured that responsibilities remained clear and balanced, preventing overextension while fostering creative, collaborative solutions that strengthened both instruction and design.

A key feature of the process was iteration and prototyping. Initial conceptual models were translated into content prototypes, such as a module where students practiced introducing themselves through multimedia assignments (e.g., making instructional videos, posting on digital boards to find a language partner). These prototypes were tested, observed, and refined based on student engagement and performance data in the course. For instance, when students struggled with voice-recorded dialogues, the team added step-by-step guides and sample recordings, improving task completion rates and confidence. This iterative approach had several implications: it allowed the design team to respond quickly to learner needs, ensured alignment between instructional goals and actual student performance, and fostered a continuous feedback loop between theory and practice. Additionally, prototyping encouraged experimentation and innovation, helping the team identify effective strategies for scaffolding, engagement, and multimodal learning before full-scale implementation.

Collaboration and reflection were embedded throughout. Designers from American and Chinese backgrounds contributed unique insights, ensuring cultural authenticity in materials such as restaurant role-play scenarios and festival-themed dialogues. Regular reflective meetings allowed the team to discuss challenges, refine instructional strategies, and negotiate trade-offs in content presentation. This process reinforced DBR principles, showing how iterative cycles, collaborative problem-solving, and reflective practice can generate both practical innovations and theoretical insights. The implications of this approach are multifaceted. Since it highlights the importance of diverse perspectives in creating culturally authentic and pedagogically effective materials; second, it demonstrates that structured reflection within collaborative design teams can accelerate the identification of design challenges and inform evidence-based adjustments; finally, it underscores how the dual roles of instructor and researcher can be leveraged to bridge theory and practice, ultimately contributing to both improved learning experiences for students and the advancement of instructional design knowledge.

Overall, emphasizing the design process highlights DBR's value in producing learner-centered, adaptable, and contextually grounded courses. Future iterations will continue this cycle to expand task variety, provide additional scaffolding for challenging activities like voice recordings, and enhance opportunities for student autonomy and authentic language use.

Conclusion

This research examined how task engagement principles can be systematically integrated into flipped Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) instructional design for teacher education students. Through an iterative, DBR-informed curriculum development process, the design team was able to identify and address challenges within the teaching context, while effectively responding to the research questions. The study highlighted how collaboration and interaction among researchers and designers formed the foundation for the design's enactment, negotiation, and reflective refinement.

The DBR cycles of design, enactment, and reflection guided the integration of the three task engagement facilitators—authenticity, challenge, and learning support—into both online self-learning and face-to-face classroom practice. By aligning course tasks with students' needs, providing meaningful and relevant learning experiences, structuring challenges appropriately, and embedding clear instructions with timely feedback, the course design promoted sustained student

engagement while simultaneously informing the ongoing refinement of instructional materials.

Ultimately, this design-based research study provided a deeper understanding of CFL teaching and student learning in authentic educational contexts. It generated practical design principles that can guide the development of future Chinese flipped course curricula and illustrated how engagement principles can be operationalized in real-world instructional settings. In summary, this research demonstrates how task engagement principles can be embedded within flipped foreign language and culture learning, while also reflecting on the iterative processes through which these principles inform and enhance flipped instructional design.

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Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe 欧洲中文教育 2025/2, pp. 71–84

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区域国别视角下本土中文教师数智化教学现状与培训需求研究

摘要

本研究从区域国别视角出发，探讨本土中文教师在数智化教学背景下的实践现状与培训需求。通过对来自匈牙利、俄罗斯等9个国家的10位本土中文教师进行深度访谈，研究发现其数智化教学实践呈现出“基础应用—互动探索—AI整合”的三级分化态势。教师普遍面临资源匮乏、AI伦理困境、时间精力透支及专业身份焦虑等共性挑战，促使教师角色从“知识传授者”向“学习体验设计者”转型。基于此，研究提出构建一个集教学法融合、区域资源共享与跨国协作为一体的多维度支持体系，以推动本土中文教师队伍在数智化的可持续发展。

关键词：区域国别研究，本土中文教师，数智化教学，教师专业发展，培训需求，质性研究

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A Regional Perspective on the Digital Teaching Practices and Training Needs of Local Chinese Language Teachers

Abstract

This study explores the current state and training needs of local Chinese language teachers in digital and intelligent teaching contexts from a regional and country-specific perspective. Based on in-depth interviews with 10 local teachers from nine countries, including Hungary and Russia, the research identifies a three-tiered spectrum of digital teaching practices: basic tool usage, interactive platform exploration, and AI integration. Teachers commonly face challenges such as limited resources, AI ethical dilemmas, time constraints, and professional identity anxiety. These factors are driving a shift in teacher roles from knowledge transmitters to learning experience designers. The study proposes a multidimensional support system that integrates pedagogical innovation, regional resource sharing, and cross-national collaboration to foster sustainable professional development for local Chinese teachers.

Keywords: regional studies, local Chinese teachers, digital teaching, teacher professional development, training needs, qualitative research

一、引言

在全球中文热持续升温的背景下，国际中文教育正面临“谁来教”与“如何教”的双重挑战。随着孔子学院及各类中文项目走出国门，真正决定课堂生命力的，往往是那些生于斯、长于斯的本土中文教师。他们不仅具备语言在地化的天然优势，也肩负着文化适应与教学本土化的重要责任。然而，身份认同模糊、教学资源匮乏与职业发展通道狭窄，依然是制约其专业成长的主要结构性障碍。

与此同时，移动互联网、大数据与生成式人工智能的迅猛发展，正在重塑语言教学的时间、空间与互动方式。课堂从“黑板+粉笔”跃迁至“平台+算法”，教材从静态文本转向动态推送，教师角色也在知识传递者与学习设计者之间不断重构。然而，当技术的光环照进不同国家的真实校园，本土教师究竟能否、又如何将数智工具转化为教学效能？区域之间的网络基础设施、教育政策与文化接受度差异，使得任何单一模式的经验输出都显得捉襟见肘。

更令人忧虑的是，关于本土教师数智化教学现状与培训需求的研究，仍停留在碎片化描述与宏观倡议层面，缺乏跨区域比较视角。若无法精准勾勒其能力图谱与痛点分布，再先进的技术也可能因水土不服而沦为摆设。基于此，本文尝试以区域国别作为方法论透镜，深入不同国家的课堂现场与教师生活世界，倾听本土中文教师在数智时代的困惑、创新与渴望，以期为国际中文教育的可持续发展提供扎根于真实情境的实证参照与策略启示。

二、文献综述

2.1本土教师在国际中文教育中的角色与发展困境

国际中文教育要实现在地生根，关键在于培育一支稳定、专业、认同度高的本土教师队伍。吴勇毅认为培养合格的本土教师是保障海外汉语教学可持续发展的关键途径，也是从根本上缓解师资短缺问题的有效方式（2007）。李宝贵和陈如芳基于实证调查指出，本土汉语教师的数量存在明显不足，同时其承担的教学与行政事务负荷较为沉重（2017）。高玛琍（1995）与李宝贵、李博文（2019）的跨国调查进一步证实，待遇低、任务重，导致本土教师流失率高，进而影响教学连续性与学习者信任度。

近年来，身份认同逐渐成为理解本土教师职业轨迹的核心变量。刘晶对吉尔吉斯斯坦本土教师的质性研究显示，教师的“合法性身份”并非一蹴而就，而是在学校制度、社会文化与个人专业反思的互动中逐步

建构而成（2019）。这一发现提示我们，任何外部培训或技术介入，若忽视教师的身份感知与文化处境，皆难以产生持续影响。

2.2数智化转型背景下的语言教学变革

数智技术正在重塑语言教学的生态结构。吕军伟与闵悦雯指出，国际中文教学已呈现“平台多元化、资源碎片化、教学行为个体化”的新趋势，但缺乏顶层设计与技术标准，导致教学成效难以评估（2025）。研究归纳出三大痛点：其一，宏观理论滞后，难以指导实践创新；其二，教学资源及平台建设不完善，智能技术尚未与中文教学深度耦合；其三，政策与资金激励缺位，教师自发探索难以持续。

这一判断与欧洲《教师语言教育能力指南》所强调的“数字素养维度”相呼应，即教师的数字能力不仅是技术操作，更涉及教学设计、数据伦理与学习评估等多重维度（2019）。然而，现有研究多基于中国本土或线上平台语境，缺乏对区域差异、文化接受度与政策可行性的深入考量。

2.3本土中文教师数智素养与培训研究

教师数智素养被视为决定教育数字化转型成败的关键变量。陈明鹏指出，国际中文教师队伍的能力提升已成为教育现代化进程中的核心要求（2023）。然而，由于各国经济发展与科技水平存在差异，不同国家和地区在信息技术发展上的不均衡，易造成教师能力发展的失衡。同时，中文教师信息素养能力标准尚未建立，其培养路径与实际市场需求之间亦存在脱节。现有研究显示，本土中文教师的数字能力普遍处于“自发—碎片化”水平，虽能使用微信、短视频等平台发布内容，却缺乏系统的教学设计、数据分析与反馈评估能力。培训方面，目前呈现三缺困境：缺统一标准、缺系统课程、缺认证机制。

北京语言大学2024高峰论坛提出，应引入“AI磨课系统”，通过数据驱动的教学反思提升教师数字教学能力。王添淼建议将教师专业发展与社会需求接轨，提出反向设计、正向思维、持续改进机制，不断完善教师能力建设（2022）。然而，上述方案多聚焦外派型教师，面向本土教师的针对性培训模式尚属空白，尤其缺乏对区域语言背景、教学情境与身份认同的深层回应。

综上所述，国际中文教育领域已形成“本土教师重要性—身份认同—专业发展”与“数智化转型—技术瓶颈—教师素养”两大研究脉络，但二者交叉研究明显不足：1. 区域国别视角缺位：现有数智化研究多基于中国场景或线上平台，缺乏对不同国家本土教师在政策、文化、技术可及性

等维度差异的深入比较。2. 本土教师数智化能力模型空白：尚未构建契合本土教师语言背景、教学情境与身份认同特征的数智素养框架。3. 培训需求实证数据匮乏：缺少基于田野调查、量化测评与长期追踪的“需求—干预—成效”闭环研究，难以为政府与机构设计精准培训方案提供依据。因此，本文拟在区域国别视角下，系统考察本土中文教师数智化教学现状与培训需求，并为构建差异化、可持续的教师支持体系提供实证基础与策略建议。

三、研究设计与方法

3.1 研究范式：质性研究

本研究采用质性研究范式，旨在深入理解本土中文教师在数智化教学背景下的真实教学经验、实践现实困境与专业发展需求。质性研究范式以解释主义为核心，强调研究的情境性、社会现象的意义建构与研究对象的主体表达，能够精准适配本研究对数字技术在不同国家中文教育生态中落地过程与实践逻辑的探究需求，相较于量化研究对统计普适性结论的追求，更利于从微观视角挖掘现象背后的深层动因。本研究围绕“教师如何认知与理解数智化教学技术”“数智化技术如何重塑中文课堂教学实践”“本土中文教师数智化教学实践中需要何种专业支持”三大核心问题展开，力图从一线教师的实践视角出发，构建贴合海外中文教学实际的理论解释与具有针对性的政策建议。

3.2 研究方法：半结构式深度访谈

本研究以半结构式深度访谈为核心数据收集方法，同时辅以研究者长期田野观察所形成的研究背景档案，实现数据的相互补充与验证。访谈均采用线上一对一的形式开展，全程以中文进行交流；访谈提纲围绕本土中文教师数智化教学实践的核心维度设计，涵盖教学环境、资源获取、技术适应、创新实践与培训需求五大主轴。访谈过程中，研究者严格遵循半结构式访谈的灵活性原则，根据受访者的叙述内容与表达节奏进行针对性追问，鼓励受访者结合自身经历讲述数智化教学相关的个人故事、技术使用实操经验与真实情感体验，以此捕捉研究细节、澄清表述矛盾、挖掘深层情感与认知，保障访谈数据的丰富性与深度。

本研究的受访者均为研究者在多年海外中文教学与教师培训工作中建立起信任关系的研究对象，双方具备良好的沟通与互动基础，能够有效降低访谈防御性。研究开展前，研究者已向所有受访

者完整告知研究目的、研究用途及数据处理与使用方式，所有受访者均自愿接受访谈，研究全程严格遵循学术研究的伦理规范。为保护受访者隐私，研究中对所有受访者的真实姓名均以其自选化名替代；访谈录音在经受访者确认无异议后进行逐字转录，转录文本亦返回受访者进行事实核查与确认，确保研究数据的真实性与可信度，保障研究过程的伦理合规性。

3.3 研究对象：跨区域教师样本

本研究共访谈10位本土中文教师，来自匈牙利、俄罗斯、保加利亚、乌克兰、拉脱维亚、罗马尼亚、波黑、阿尔巴尼亚与立陶宛等9个国家，任教机构涵盖综合性大学、孔子学院与语言机构，教龄介于4至22年之间，学历从学士到博士不等，职称横跨助教、讲师与副教授（详见表1）。所有受访者均曾在中国长期或短期进修，具备中文教学、汉学研究或翻译实践经验，可视为跨区域本土中文教师的代表性样本。

研究参与者	中国留学进修（年）	学历	职称	教龄（年）	地理区域	机构类型	数字工具使用频率/熟练度
洲若	0.5	博士	助理副教授	5	匈牙利	综合性大学	高频/熟练
江练	1	博士	副教授	22	保加利亚	综合性大学	中频/中等熟练
莲镜	1	博士	副教授		保加利亚	综合性大学	低频/低熟练
舒窈	2	博士	副教授	18	俄罗斯	综合性大学	高频/高熟练
松渌	7	博士	副教授	10	乌克兰	综合性大学	高频/高熟练

月皎	6	博士在读	讲师	12	拉脱维亚	综合性大学	高频/高熟练
疏影	3	博士	讲师	14	罗马尼亚	综合性大学	低频/低熟练
望舒	2	博士在读	高级助教	5	波斯尼亚和黑塞哥维那	综合性大学	中频/中等熟练
清扬	0.5	学士	助教	4	立陶宛	孔子学院与语言机构	低频/低熟练
莲舟	5	硕士	助教	5	阿尔巴尼亚	孔子学院与语言机构	低频/低熟练

表1：被采访者背景信息

3.4数据收集与分析

正式访谈于2025年3月至2025年7月间完成，每人时长40-100分钟，交流语言为中文，共累计12小时36分钟录音。经受访者同意全程录音后，由研究者转写为约13.7万字的原始文本，并返给受访者进行事实核查，以确保成员检验的可信度。

为确保研究分析的系统性与透明度，本文使用NVivo 11软件进行质性编码与主题分析。研究遵循Braun和Clarke的六步主题分析法（2006）及及其后续扩展框架（2019），在NVivo 11中完成开放编码—聚类—审查。研究者通过反复阅读原始材料识别关联、细化并整合编码，最终形成选择性编码。

选择性编码识别出六个一级节点（A1-A6），分别为数字教学资源与可得性、AI工具的教学应用、教学模式与教材开发、技术挑战与角色转型、工作负担与时间管理、合作交流、培训需求与支持期待（详见表2），并进一步细分为二十个二级节点（B1-B20）。全数据集中累计生成数百条参考点，系统反映了教师在数智化教学中的表现。

核心范畴	主范畴	提及人数	提及次数	范畴内涵
A1 数字教学资源与可得性	B1 常用平台、工具	8	40	AI软件与数字工具在科研及教学辅助中的惯常使用方式
	B2 教学材料、资源	8	35	课堂准备与实施过程中使用的多元化材料类型
	B3 资源获取难点	7	19	资源不可得及缺乏文化适配性的困境
A2 AI工具的教学应用	B4 教学用途的AI使用	7	21	利用AI生成课件、设计互动任务等
	B5 数字工具使用习惯	8	38	在教学过程中与线上授课中使用数字平台与软件的惯常使用方式
	B6 对学生使用AI的评价	8	29	对学生使用AI的公平性、能力培养与使用规范的评价
	B7 基于AI的授课方式	3	6	在课堂中引导学生比较和反思AI与人工产出的内容，及引导学生正确使用AI的课堂建议
A3 教学模式与教材开发	B8 创新教学模式	2	2	基于数字平台的新的课堂组织与互动形式
	B9 资源开发实践	8	39	自制课堂资料与互动游戏
	B10 教材开发	4	19	编写/设计整套教材
A4 技术挑战与角色转型	B11 数字工具使用困难	8	23	在AI与数字平台使用中遇到的操作问题与准确性问题
	B12 教师能力缺口	8	15	AI时代教师自觉亟需提升的专业能力
	B13 教师对于AI的看法	10	57	对AI的积极价值、潜在风险与职业威胁的多元认知

A5 工作负担与时间管理	B14 教学-科研-资源开发之间的冲突感	10	91	多重任务叠加下的时间与精力分配情况及压力
	B15 学校政策要求	7	11	机构在非教学任务与管理方面的额外要求
A6 合作交流、培训需求与支持期待	B16 培训偏好	6	14	对培训主题与形式的具体期望
	B17 区域协作需求	5	6	跨国教师间的资源与经验共享诉求
	B18 政策与资金支持	6	12	对制度保障、经费与资源供给的需求
	B19 教材与教师支持	7	16	本土化教材与师资供给的不足
	B20 教师发展建议	1	2	AI时代本土汉语教师的自我应对与发展路径

表2 编码结果与概念范畴

完成基础编码后，研究进一步对编码内容的功能与分析取向进行比较。二级编码在表述功能上呈现出相对稳定的三类取向：第一类侧重对数智化教学实践的描述与分步呈现，反映教师的应用现状；第二类侧重数智化教学中面临的制约与现实困境，体现核心挑战；第三类则以能力提升和资源支持等发展性需求与改进建议为导向，反映教师对培训及其他支持的需求与期待。在此基础上，研究归纳并形成了三大分析主题：应用现状、核心挑战与培训需求。

本研究通过主题和节点交叉分析矩阵图呈现三大主题在六个一级节点中的编码分布特征及其关联强度（见图1、图2），展示教师数智化教学在六个维度上的现状、核心挑战与需求指向之间的内在联系及侧重差异。

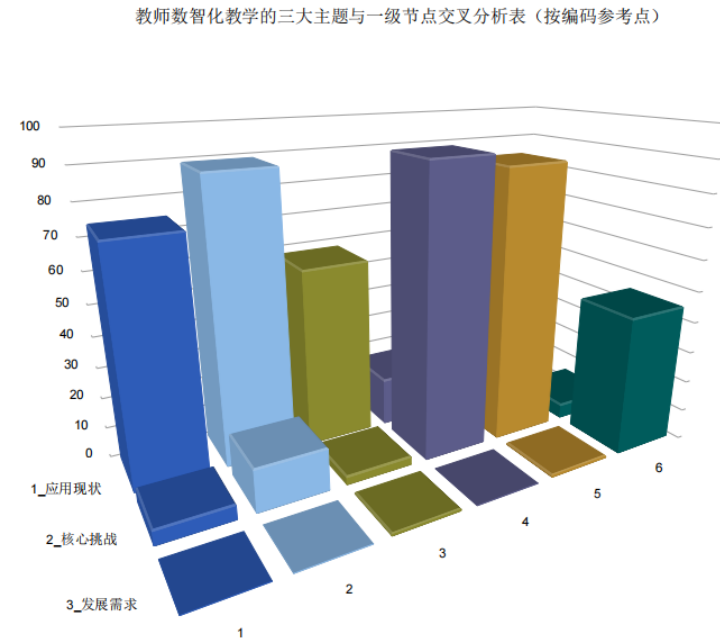

图1：教师数智化教学的三大主题与一级节点交叉分析表（按编码参考点）

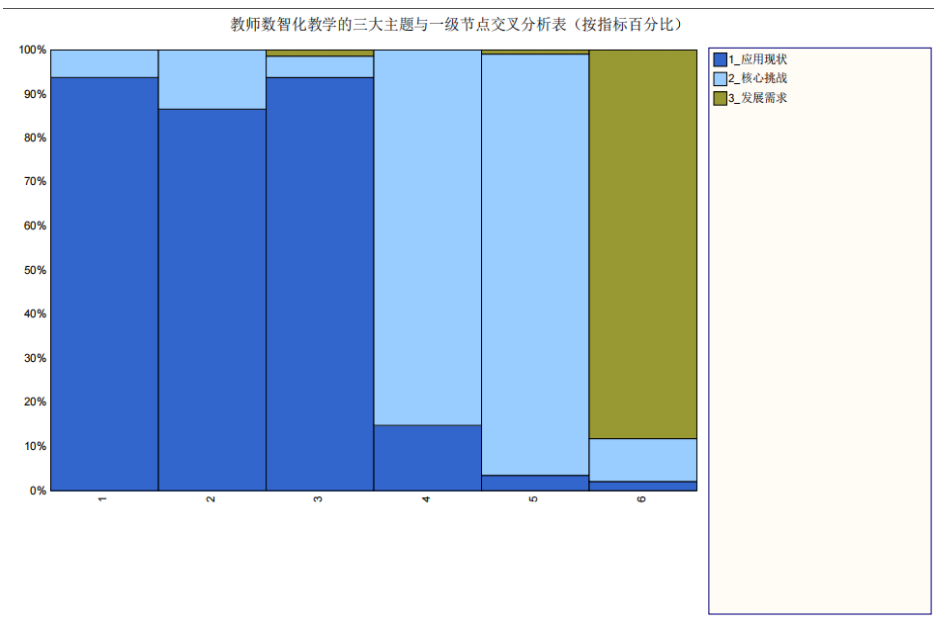

图2：教师数智化教学的三大主题与一级节点交叉分析表（按指标百分比）

基于上述编码结果，本文将依次从应用现状、核心挑战与培训需求三个主题对教师的数智化教学实践进行阐释与分析，并结合受访者原话加以佐证，以增强研究结论的解释力与可信度。

四、研究发现与分析

通过对10份访谈资料的系统分析，本研究提炼出以下三大核心发现：

4.1 数智化教学的应用现状

本土中文教师的数智化教学实践呈现出明显的层次性与多样性，可划分为以下三个梯队：

第一，基础工具应用层。部分教师，特别是来自教学资源相对匮乏或个人偏好传统的教师，其数字化应用仍以基础性、辅助性工具为主。阿尔巴尼亚的莲舟老师和立陶宛的清扬老师主要使用PPT、视频网站（YouTube）和即时通讯软件进行教学与沟通。保加利亚的莲镜老师则依赖Google Classroom来分发材料和管理教学。

第二，互动平台探索层。部分教师已经超越了静态的课件展示，积极探索各类在线互动平台，以提升课堂趣味性和学生参与度。拉脱维亚的月皎老师是其中的佼佼者，她熟练运用Wordwall和Quizlet等平台自制互动游戏，并愿意为此付费。保加利亚的江练老师则充分利用其参与改编的《走遍中国》教材配套的线上平台，该平台提供练习、测试和自习材料，形成了体系化的数字教学支持。波黑的望舒老师也会使用Google Classroom和YouTube等工具与学生互动。

第三，AI技术整合层。走在最前沿的教师已开始将AI深度整合到备课、教学甚至个人工作生活的方方面面。乌克兰的松渌老师是AI的重度用户，她用ChatGPT生成对话、练习、讲解语法，甚至用其规划夏令营活动。匈牙利的洲若老师不仅在翻译课上教授专业的计算机辅助翻译软件memoQ，还引导学生探讨ChatGPT和DeepSeek的应用与局限。俄罗斯的舒窈老师使用DeepSeek生成阅读材料。波黑的望舒老师则用ChatGPT生成练习，并用DeepSeek辅助批改学生作文的逻辑错误。

4.2 数智化教学的核心挑战

在课堂观察与访谈叙事中，获取教学资源渠道、AI伦理困境、时间与精力分配与数智化技术认知四条主线反复交织，构成几乎无法绕开的

共同困境。首先获取教学资源渠道受限与本土化教学内容匮乏的资源困境。多数教师指出，中国主流教学平台在海外无法使用，且缺乏针对非通用语种学习者的汉语对比资源，导致其不得不投入大量时间自制教学材料。其次，生成式AI的即时答案弱化了学生的检索与验证动机，江练等教师指出，AI杜撰文献使论文指导环节变成事实核查战；疏影等坚持板书与纸笔的资深教师则担忧，当写作简化为提示词，语言学习的原创性与思维深度将被稀释。再次，行政工作、科学研究与家庭角色叠加带来的“时间贫困”最为普遍：望舒每周二十节课、博士学分与育儿任务并行，只能把对新技术的学习压缩在“孩子入睡后的两小时”。最后，对技术前景的判断出现代际与学科分化。一部分教师将AI视为人文危机，另一部分则忧虑自身被平台化流程取代，这种未来焦虑削弱了教师对数智工具的情感认同，使培训需求从技能升级为意义。

4.3 数智化教学的培训需求

面对上述挑战，教师们并未选择“躺平”，而是积极表达对系统性支持的强烈需求。对高质量专业培训的需求，教师普遍呼吁不是技术扫盲，而是融合教学法的实战培训。其一，培训内容需与真实课堂任务同频：基础层聚焦“拿来即用”的模板与字幕工具；进阶层对接Wordwall、Quizlet等平台，示范如何设计符合本土背景学习者的互动任务；创新层则引入“AI+中文”跨国教研团，共同产出可引用的语法纠错、文献核查脚本，使前沿技术转化为学科教学知识。其二，资源供给应从个人囤积走向区域共享。多位教师希望建立区域性资源共享机制，如望舒老师建议把所有资源发到群组，与同事共享，并呼吁设立专项经费支持本土化内容开发。其三，情感与专业归属需要常态化交流机制加以维系。教师们高度珍视中东欧本土汉语教师培训项目，认为其提供了回家式的专业归属感。松渌等教师自愿换乘长途巴士也要参加培训，表明面对面同行对话仍是线上无法替代的能量源。因此，建议将现有中东欧本土汉语教师培训升级为季度线上主题教研与年度线下工作坊相结合的教师学习共同体，通过语种匹配、问题众筹与案例共评，形成自我更新的区域知识网络，使培训从项目转为生态，持续为数智化教学提供意义与资源的双重支撑。

五、发展建议

能力分化的现实图景意味着一刀切培训已无法回应多元需求，区域干预须在分层、衔接、共创的原则下重构教师专业成长路径。

5.1建立分层递进的教师培训机制

针对基础工具应用层教师，如罗马尼亚疏影、阿尔巴尼亚莲舟，亟需提供轻量化数字工具培训，重点覆盖教学资源高效检索、多语种课件优化及基础AI辅助功能操作，配套开发塞尔维亚语、阿尔巴尼亚语等非通用语种视频教程以降低技术门槛。对于互动平台探索层教师，如拉脱维亚月皎、保加利亚江练，应深化多模态教学设计能力培养，通过认证课程提升其运用Wordwall、Quizlet等平台开发本土化互动资源的能力。面向AI技术整合层教师，如乌克兰松渌、匈牙利洲若，建议组建跨国教研团队，共同制定符合中东欧教育伦理的AI应用框架，开发应对学术诚信危机、化解学生思维惰性的实证教学策略库。

5.2建设区域性资源共享与协作平台

为解决资源获取受限与本土化内容匮乏的共性难题，需构建中东欧数字教学资源中心，建立多语言资源适配机制，设立种子基金优先开发稀缺资源，如波黑望舒所需的塞尔维亚语和汉语言对照教材。为缓解教师时间精力透支问题，可推行数字助教计划，培训本土研究生协助基础资源开发，并批量生成汉字笔顺动画、语法练习等标准化素材。此外，应升级现有中东欧本土汉语教师培训为常态化协作网络，通过季度线上教研社区和语种匹配的“结对云计划”，如乌克兰-波黑AI教案协作组等，强化教师经验共享与问题解决能力。

5.3实施分阶段政策行动

短期重点建设资源中心试点并培训种子教师；中期着力完善区域性AI伦理规范；长期目标在于形成自我更新的教师数字共同体。该路线图呼应了松渌、江练等教师对持续性支持的迫切期待，通过分阶段资源投入降低改革阻力。

六、结论

本研究以区域国别为视角、以教师声音为中心，首次系统呈现了中东欧与俄罗斯9国本土中文教师数智化教学的三级能力梯队与四重现实障碍。研究发现，技术再先进，若忽视教师的身份认同、时间分配与区域资源差异，亦难逃悬浮命运。未来，国际中文教育的可持续竞争力，不再取决于输出多少资源，而在于激活多少教师。唯有建立分层培训、开放资源与伦理制度三维协同的支持生态，方能帮助本土教师从技术被动者转为变革主导者，真正实现“数智化中文”的区域扎根与全球共生。

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Journal of Chinese Language Teaching in Europe 欧洲中文教育 2025/2, pp. 85–108

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国际中文教育视角下的语言景观研究综述（2006—2025年）

摘要

近20年来，语言景观作为社会语言学与城市规划的分支领域，已逐渐成为学术界关注的焦点。从全球来看，语言景观不仅反映了汉语在海外的使用环境，更成为汉语教学环境构建、跨文化交际能力培养的重要研究对象。对于2006—2025年这一时期的研究，大致可分萌芽探索期、初步繁荣期、快速发展期。学科交叉融合及其在教育、文化、政策等领域的应用推动研究深化，使该领域的重要性与影响力显著提升。国内研究虽在实地考察形成特色、初步建成高校科研队伍且涌现代表研究者，但成果多集中于国际理论引介梳理，本土情境理论创新稍显不足。从国际中文教育的视角来看，未来中国该领域的研究将以理论本土化、跨学科性、研究方法现代化、社会实践整合为核心，既深化价值理解、为政策提供依据，也完善中国特色分析与政策理论，为全球研究献独特视角，同时契合国际中文教育实践需求。

关键词：语言景观，国际中文教育，理论构建，语言政策，综述

https://doi.org/10.61637/cltcee.2026.1.4

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Review of Studies on Language Landscape from the Perspective of International Chinese Language Education (2006—2025)

Abstract

Over the past two decades, the Linguistic Landscape (LL) has evolved from a sociolinguistic niche into a pivotal interdisciplinary field. From 2006 to 2025, research has progressed through three strategic stages: incipient exploration, nascent prosperity, and accelerated expansion. While domestic scholarship has established robust empirical foundations and academic cohorts, it remains characterized by theoretical transplantation, exhibiting a discernible lacuna in indigenous innovation. Within the framework of International Chinese Education (ICE), this paper asserts that the future research paradigm must pivot toward theoretical localization, methodological modernization, and practical integration. By synthesizing Chinese contextual nuances with global academic discourse, this trajectory aims to refine policy frameworks and offer a distinct analytical perspective to the global LL community, ultimately addressing the pragmatic demands of Chinese language pedagogy and intercultural communication.

Keywords: Linguistic Landscape, International Chinese Education, Theoretical Construction, Language Policy, Literature Review

语言景观（Linguistic Landscape，简称LL）作为语言研究的重要维度，近年来在跨文化交际与汉语教学实践中备受关注。资料表明，较早对其进行明确界定的是加拿大学者Richard Y. Bourhis和Rodrigue Landry。他们（1997）指出：“由各种元素构成的，包括路牌、广告牌、街道名、地址、商店招牌和政府办公室的标志等，它们共同定义了一个特定地区的语言环境。”[1]这一表述在语言景观研究中被广泛接受。从国际中文教育视角来看，语言景观不仅反映了汉语在海外的使用环境，更成为汉语教学环境构建与跨文化交际能力培养的重要研究对象。笔者在深度阅读源数据文献，追溯相关论文的参考文献，特别聚焦于语言景观在国际中文教育中应用研究的基础上，综合评述2006—2025年国内外语言景观研究现状如下。

国外研究现状

徐茗（2017）认为，国外语言景观研究始于20世纪70年代，大致可以分为三个阶段：萌芽探索期、初步繁荣期和快速发展期。[2] 本文重点考察近二十年这一快速发展期。此阶段，全球化与技术革的新推动下，语言景观研究理论框架日趋成熟。其在二语习得、文化表征等领域的应用成果，为国际中文教育中的中文教学、文化传播及教材设计提供了重要启示。

1.1 语言景观成为独立的研究领域

2006年可视作语言景观研究的转折点。相关研究取得了实质性进展，其概念得以清晰界定，理论框架逐渐完备，分析视角和研究方法显著多样化和精细化，为后续的快速发展奠定了坚实的基础。在这一年，《国际多语杂志》[3]推出了一期特刊，标志着该领域从经验描述转向理论建构。其分析框架的系统化、研究方法的精细化，为汉语作为第二语言的教学环境研究、文化表征分析提供了可资借鉴的工具。

德国杜伊斯堡-埃森大学东亚研究所的研究员Peter Backhaus（2006）对东京市中心的公共标牌进行了详尽的研究，揭示了语言景观中“权力”与“团结”的张力。这一分析框架对国际中文教育具有双重启示：教材中的语言景观表征需兼顾国家语言形象的权威性（官方维度）与学习者文化认同的灵活性（非官方维度），这为在华汉语学习者的文化适应研究提供了理论工具。

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1 Landry–Bourhis 1997: 26–27.

2 徐茗 2017: 57–64.

3 由英国学术出版机构Taylor & Francis出版社发行。

西班牙巴斯克大学学者Jasone Cenoz,Durk Gorter（2006）聚焦于荷兰弗里斯兰省和西班牙巴斯克自治区这两个多语地区的语言景观，分析了近一千张带有语言标志的照片。[4] 该研究为国际中文教育提供了方法论借鉴：教材中中文景观的表征需区分“政策文本”与“生活实践”，避免将中文景观简化为单一的国家符号。

来自美国圣何塞州立大学教育学院的教授Huebner (2006) 对曼谷语言景观的考察发现，英语正取代中文成为主导外语：中文地位的提升不能仅依赖经济驱动，需强化文化符号的长期建构。其将海姆斯SPEAKING模型引入景观分析，为教材中中文景观的文化语境设计提供了可操作的评估框架。

除此之外，加拿大维多利亚大学学者Noro（2006）对温哥华和多伦多的日裔加拿大社区进行了对比。揭示了社区凝聚力直接影响语言景观活力，进而影响非母语者的学习动机。这对国际中文教育具有重要启示：海外华人社区的语言景观不仅是文化传承载体，更是中文二语教学的社会性资源，教材应纳入社区景观案例以增强学习者的文化归属感。[5]

从国际中文教育视角看，2006年以来语言景观研究在多语环境、语言可见性与社会意义分析方面的理论深化，为理解中文在全球城市公共空间中的呈现方式及其对二语学习者真实语言环境的影响提供了重要理论基础。

自2006年后，语言景观逐渐成为独立的学术研究领域。

1.2 语言景观进入加速发展新阶段

从2008年起，国际关于语言景观研究迈入了加速发展新阶段。更多学术论著相继发表。这些研究成果不仅体现了该领域的高度活跃，更彰显了其学术价值与发展潜力。

笔者在中国知网平台使用关键词“Linguistic landscape（语言景观）”进行检索（截至2026年1月29日），共获取1622篇相关文献记录。对接收到的信息进行可视化分析（详见图1），可该领域发文量自2008年起持续攀升（中国知网数据显示年度论文数从14篇增至年均30余篇），标志着研究从“描述”转向“应用”。这一转向对国际中文教育尤为重要：二语习得研究者开始借鉴景观分析框架，考察中文在海外的可见性及其对学习动机的影响；文化传播研究则关注中文景观如何表征国家形象；教材研究亦引入景观符号学，探讨真实语料在课堂中的转化路径。

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[4] Cenoz–Gorter 2006.

[5] Noro 2006: 87–99.

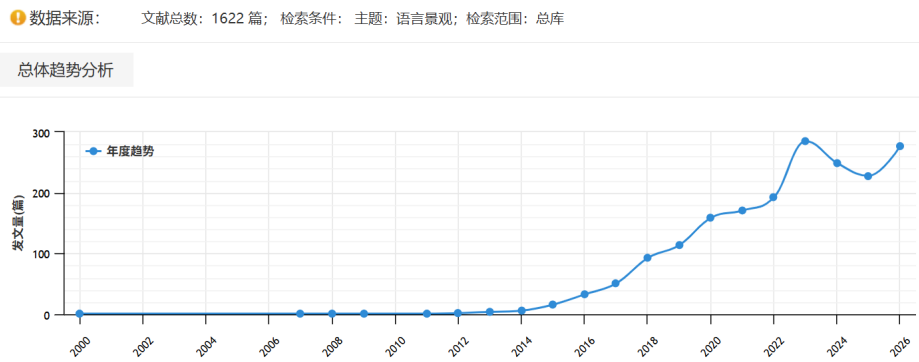

图1：中国知网 “Linguistic landscape（语言景观）” 相关文献发文量可视化分析图（截至2026 年 1 月 29 日）[6]

2009年,劳特利奇出版社（Routledge）[7]出版了以色列学者Elana Shohamy和 Durk Gorter主编的论文集《语言景观：扩展的景观》(*Linguistic Landscape:Expanding the Scenery*)[8]。该书共21章。此书的问世是语言景观研究领域的重要里程碑。书中从多元化的理论角度，对语言政策、身份认同及意识等核心议题进行了深刻的阐述与剖析，拓宽了语言景观研究的视野。该书对国际中文教育的启示在于：教材中的中文景观呈现须超越“语言正确性”范式，转向考察学习者如何通过符号接触构建文化认同。

2010年，由卡迪夫大学语言与传播研究中心研究员Adam Jaworski和美国华盛顿大学教授Crispin Thurlow合作的论文集《符号景观：语言、图像、空间》（*Semiotic Landscapes: Language, Image, Space*）由Continuum Intl Pub Group出版社发布。作者将语言景观拓展为多模态符号互动，该定义因强调“空间性对话”而成为学界主流。此成果对国际中文教育具有双重启示：教材中的中文景观须超越纯文本，纳入视觉符号与文化空间的协同分析。同年，Shohamy等（2010）的《城市语言景观》将研究锚定于城市空间政治，为理解海外中文学习者所处的真实符号环境提供了政治经济学分析工具。

2015年，荷兰John Benjamins出版社推出了《语言景观》专刊，专刊的创立标志着该领域研究制度化。这对国际中文教育研究具有双重意义：其一，为中文景观研究提供了独立而稳定的学术平台；其二，其方法论规范可迁移至中文教材的语言符号分析。

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6 图表来源：中国知网 [EB/OL]，最后访问日期：2026 年 1 月 29 日。
7 Taylor & Francis旗下全球领先的人文与社会科学出版品牌。
8 Shohamy–Gorter 2009.

卢森堡大学学者Purschke（2017）将语言景观研究归纳为五个核心维度：社会动态、符号使用、语言政策、文化实践与数字技术。这对国际中文教育研究具有框架性启示：教材中中文景观的表征须兼顾符号政治（体现语言政策意图）、文化真实性（反映实践而非理想）与技术适切性（适配数字传播特征），避免将语言景观简化为文化展示橱窗[9]。

德国科布伦茨-兰道大学英语语言学教授Martin和Neele（2018）主编的论文集《拓展语言景观：多语现象、语言政策及空间作为符号资源的使用》（*Expanding the Linguistic Landscape: Multilingualism, Language Policy and the Use of Space as a Semiotic Resource*）汇集了该领域的最新研究成果，并系统地介绍了理论方法、实践方法及创新性建议。在论文集《再界定语言景观：质询边界与开放空间》（*Reterritorializing Linguistic Landscapes: Questioning Boundaries and Opening Space*）中，美国圣何塞州立大学语言学与语言发展助理教授Malinowski和英国利物浦大学讲师Tufi（2020）对新型研究视角（如校园语言景观、非现实语言景观）进行了梳理。这些研究为国际中文教育中的沉浸式环境设计提供了新的分析维度。

在研究方法上，早期依赖实地采集招牌、路标等实体文本（Moriarty,2014），随着数字技术普及，数据收集与分析手段发生了根本性变革。[10] Vingron（2017）率先引入眼动追踪技术，将生理数据与视觉语言感知相结合。[11] 这种方法可迁移至中文学习者对汉字招牌的注意机制研究。

Gaiser与Matras（2021）开发的LinguaSnapp（语景快拍）应用通过众包模式实现大规模数据采集，其思路对构建中文景观语料库具有借鉴价值[12]。Lomicka和Ducate（2021）进一步利用Padlet等数字平台，将语言景观分析与反思性学习结合，直接为中文二语教学中的文化反思活动提供了可操作的技术路径[13]。Álvarez与Bernardo-Hinesley（2023）采用Google街景服务（Google Maps Street View，简称GMSV）进行远程数据采集，降低了研究成本，这对开展跨地域中文景观比较研究尤为重要[14]。GMSV覆盖全球大部分区域，以其高效、低成本的远程数据收集能力，能快速获取大量高质量图像，尤其适用于难以到达的地区，同时也能确保数据的透明性和准确性。

在研究对象上，语言景观从公共商业空间延伸至医疗、教育等专业领域。Alomoush（2023）对约旦医院语言景观的分析揭示了英语在医疗

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9 张天伟 2020: 48–60.
10 Moriarty 2014: 464–477.
11 张天伟 2020: 48–60.
12 Gaiser–Matras 2021.
13 Lomicka–Ducate 2021: 35–65.
14 Álvarez–Bernardo-Hinesley 2023.

环境中的霸权地位[15]。其框架可应用于分析中文在国际医疗场所的象征功能。al-Qenaie与Naser（2023）针对阿拉伯-英语拼写差异创制的新正字法系统[16]，则为解决中文拼音与汉字在景观中的对应问题提供了跨语言比较视角。Daly与McKee（2022）将语言景观理论应用于新西兰手语绘本，表明该理论可用于弱势语言变体的保护与教材开发[17]，这对中文作为少数族裔语言地区的文化传承具有借鉴意义。

在国际外语教育研究领域，语言景观已不仅停留于社会语言学描述层面，而是逐步被引入外语教学实践与学习者研究之中，形成了相对稳定的研究取向。相关研究普遍将城市公共空间中的标牌、广告与视觉符号视为课堂之外的重要语言输入资源，强调其在提升语言意识、语用理解与文化认知方面的价值。

在具体教学实践中，一类研究以“语言景观作为学习任务资源”为核心，鼓励学习者通过实地拍摄、整理和分析城市标识完成语言学习活动。Sayer（2010）最早明确提出将语言景观作为外语教学的可利用语料[18]；Dagenais 等（2008）与Chern 与 Dooley（2014）分别从语言意识与课堂任务设计角度，论证了“语言观察漫步（literacy walk）”在外语教学中的有效性[19]；Rowland（2013）与Malinowski（2015）进一步指出，语言景观为学习者提供了理解目标语社会规范的开放式学习空间[20]。

随着数字技术的发展，研究者开始将语言景观活动与在线平台和数字工具结合。Ferrarotti（2017）强调数字化采集有助于将零散的城市文本转化为可反思的教学材料[21]；Gorter,Cenoz等人（2014, 2021）在多项研究与综述中指出，数字语言景观任务能够有效促进学习者对多语现实的整体理解[22]；Lomicka 与 Ducate（2021）则通过引入 Padlet 平台，引导学习者在线汇集、标注并讨论不同地区的语言景观，从而深化跨文化反思[23]。

此外，还有研究关注语言景观对学习者态度与身份建构的影响。Vinagre（2022）在虚拟交流项目中引导学生比较不同国家的语言景观，指出学习者可借此反思语言、文化与身份之间的关系[24]；Bangkom（2024）的实证研究亦表明，系统化的语言景观学习模块有助于提升学习者的文化意识与社会语言敏感度[25]。

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15 Alomoush 2023: 68–75.
16 al-Qenaie–Naser 2023.
17 Daly–McKee 2022: 3475–3488.
18 Sayer 2010: 143–154.
19 Dagenais–Moore–Sabatier 2008: 293–309；Chern–Dooley 2014: 113–123.
20 Rowland 2013: 494–505；Malinowski 2015: 95–113.
21 Ferrarotti 2017: 63–68.
22 Gorter–Cenoz 2014: 151–169；Gorter–Cenoz–der Worp 2021: 161–181.
23 Lomicka–Ducate 2021: 35–65.
24 Vinagre 2022: 102750.
25 Bangkom 2024: 875–895.

上述研究成果表明，将语言景观引入外语教育已成为多语种教学情境中的一种可辨识研究取向，其在任务设计、数字平台应用以及学习者态度研究方面的经验，为国际中文教育中探索中文语言景观的课堂引入方式、项目式学习设计和数字化语料库建设提供了直接参照。

综上，在快速发展期，国际学术界对语言景观研究在理论与方法上趋于多样化和成熟，其在教育、文化和政策等领域的应用体现了该领域的专业化和系统化，影响力也在不断扩大。

二、国内研究现状

相较于国际学术界，中国国内对语言景观领域的研究起步稍晚，早期研究成果见于2009年孙利发表的相关论文。在此之前，尽管已有题目中包括“语言景观”的文献出现，但这些研究中所探讨的概念与国际上公认的“语言景观”概念并不一致。因此，可以说，直到2009年，中国学者才开始依据国际通行的概念框架对语言景观展开探讨。这一概念校准虽具奠基意义，却仍将中文语境视为单一研究对象，未涉及国际中文教学中多模态符号资源的转化机制。

2.1 概念解析与理论框架建构

理论框架与概念解析重点在于语言景观理论的构建。

中国国内对与语言景观相关的公示语的研究早有开展。章柏成认为，1989年蔡继福[26]对旧上海路名演变的研究标志着该领域研究的正式开始[27]。于伟昌(1997)将公示语定义为“一种为社会服务的广告文体，其目的不是商业性的，而是宣传性和服务性的”，涵盖范围包括大街上的道路指南、旅游胜地的景点名和路标、公共场所号召人们讲卫生、戒烟的标语、以及公司、厂矿、国家机关等单位的名称等。[28] 随后，越来越多的学者开始关注公示语，并逐渐将研究重心转向公示语的翻译上。例如，戴宗显和吕和发（2005）以伦敦为例，对城市公示语及其英汉对照翻译进行了系统分析[29]。罗选民和黎土旺（2006）通过对北京市公示语翻译现状的调查，强调了该议题在城市公共交流中的重要性[30]。杨永和（2009）则对新世纪以来国内公示语翻译研究进行了阶段性总结[31]。从研

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[26] 蔡继福 1989: 90–94.
[27] 章柏成 2015: 14–18.
[28] 于伟昌 1998: 90–94.
[29] 戴宗显、吕和发 2005: 38–42.
[30] 罗选民、黎土旺 2006: 66–69.
[31] 杨永和 2009: 104–108.

究取向看，这一时期的相关研究以规范性描述和问题归纳为主，服务目标主要指向城市国际化与对外交流需求。李贻（2011）以广州市北京路为例，对“中—拉丁双语书写”标牌进行了历时性调查，系统分析了该区域的官方与非官方语言景观，重点关注汉英双语标牌及“中文—拉丁新造词双书写体”标牌现象[32]。该研究引入了“双书写体标牌”（biscriptual）的概念，为理解全球化背景下语言使用与文化变迁提供了新的分析视角。

国内首篇明确以“语言景观”这一语言学专门术语为主题的研究论文，由孙利在2009年发表[33]。该文虽完成概念引介，但将其窄化为语言质量评估工具，未能发展为解释语言接触与身份建构的理论资源。这种以“纠错”为导向的研究取向，不仅割裂了语言景观与语言政策、文化认同的深层关联，更严重忽视了其在国际中文教育中的应用潜能——如二语学习者如何通过城市空间中的多模态符号习得语用规则。李贻（2012）对《语言景观：研究多语现象的新路径》进行了评价[34]，对语言景观的界定及其研究途径进行了概述，为后续的研究者提供了基础性的理解和入门指导。继此之后，众多学者在此基础上展开了更为广泛的综合分析。

尚国文与赵守辉（2014）首次系统地总结了语言景观研究领域的理论成就，并对这一领域的认识论基础和多元分析视角进行了详尽的探讨。[35] 他们的研究不仅全面介绍了语言景观的研究背景、研究目标、理论构架和研究方法，还指出了该领域目前存在的挑战。

李丽生（2015）从起源、定义与功能等方面系统梳理了语言景观研究的理论脉络[36]。章柏成（2015）则进一步将语言景观研究与公示语研究加以整合，总结研究主题并反思其局限性，推动该领域由问题描述向理论反思转向[37]。

在城市空间维度的研究中，葛俊丽（2016）与陈睿（2016）均从“语言景观和谐”视角出发，探讨了公共空间中语言选择的影响因素，涵盖语言结构、社会文化、政策导向等多个层面[38]，体现了语言景观研究与城市治理议题的进一步融合。

巫喜丽、战菊和刘晓波（2017）通过文献分析，总结了中国语言景观研究的发展历程：总体呈上升趋势，学科交叉态势明显[39]。而研究面临的主要挑战包括理论基础薄弱，特别是在特定环境下的成因分析不足，缺乏完善的生成机制和社会语境解释，研究主题零散，方法多依赖个案分析，样本区域集中，需改进分析框架。

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32 李贻 2011: 300–301.
33 孙利 2009: 153–156.
34 李贻 2012: 87–88.
35 尚国文、赵守辉 2014: 215.
36 李丽生 2015: 1–7.
37 章柏成 2015: 14–18; 77.
38 葛俊丽 2016: 68–80; 134；陈睿 2016: 155–159.
39 巫喜丽、战菊、刘文博 2017: 170–174.

张蔼恒与孙九霞（2019）依托地方主体性理论，对语言景观领域的文献进行了系统性整理，并围绕主体性构建了分析框架[40]。深化了对语言景观在地域身份构建中所扮演角色的理解。

杜克·戈特与方小兵（2020）系统梳理了语言景观研究的发展历程，归纳了定性的人种学研究和定量的变异研究两种主要方法，并详细讨论了语言政策与语言态度等核心议题[41]。文章为理解语言景观的多维度特征提供了丰富的理论和实证支持。

综上可见，国内语言景观研究在理论层面主要集中于对“语言景观”概论的分析（从“公示语”到“语言景观”）、对国际研究成果的引介、整合与方法论反思，而基于中国社会语境的原创性理论建构不足。尤其是在国际中文教育视角下，语言景观如何服务于中文语言文化国际传播、如何进入二语学习者的真实语言环境、以及如何参与学习者身份建构等问题，尚未得到系统回应。这一研究缺口提示，未来研究亟需在本土语境中推进语言景观理论的深化，并加强其与国际中文教育实践的结合。

2.2 语言景观实地研究与数据分析

中国国内的研究者通过实地考察与分析，深入剖析了城市语言使用的社会实践环境及其内蕴的文化价值，主要围绕四个方面展开，即城市语言景观研究的具体案例分析、特定行业的语言景观研究、公共标识与多语言景观的描述性研究以及街道名称语言景观研究。

2.2.1 城市语言景观研究的具体案例分析

城市语言景观的个案考察不仅揭示了不同城市语言使用的特点和问题，也呈现了中文作为目的语在真实公共空间中的可见形态。

邱莹（2016）对江西省上饶市的语言使用情况进行了系统调查，指出该市语言景观以规范汉字和英语为主，但整体多样性和创新性不足，且存在一定的文字使用不规范现象。[42] 该研究从语言形式与社会语言学视角分析了当地语言使用状况，为相关实证研究及语言文字规范化建设提供了参考。

苏杰（2017）的研究则关注了上海官方和私人标牌中的语言权势和文化权势，发现私人标牌更倾向于使用多种语言，这反映了经济全球化背景下的语言竞争和文化融合[43]。

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[40] 张蔼恒、孙九霞 2019: 13–19.
[41] 杜克戈特、方小兵 2020: 13–22.
[42] 邱莹 2016: 40-49.
[43] 苏杰 2017.

巫喜丽（2017）研究了广州非洲移民聚居区的语言景观，发现官方标牌主要使用汉语或汉英双语，遵循语言政策，而非官方标牌则更为多样化。[44] 该研究提供了多语社区语言生态的新视角和实证资料，有助于提升语言管理和服务能力，同时揭示出这类多语公共空间也是国际中文学习者接触和理解中文社会语用规则的重要场域。

李丽生和夏娜（2017）研究了丽江古城区语言景观中中文的主导地位、东巴文的文化象征意义及英语的广泛使用。[45] 该研究通过定量和定性分析，揭示了不同语言标牌的使用顺序和特征，为保护少数民族语言文化提供了实证数据。

通过考察长沙市的主要商业区和旅游景点的语言标识，伍莹（2020）研究发现，虽然大多数语言标志的拼写和用词较为规范，但仍存在过度翻译的问题[46]。

在特定的街道名称研究方面，向阳 (1994) 较早地讨论了我国街道名称的音译问题，强调了翻译时应考虑外国人的理解和译名的规范化[47]。孙利 (2009)结合温州市街名和路名的翻译存在不规范问题对翻译改进提出了建议[48]。 杨永林(2010) 强调了语言景观翻译需要遵循规范，并指出了“标识失语”这一在国内标识中较为普遍的问题[49]。方佳 (2015) 建议用双语注释展示常州道路名称的历史和现代意义，以传承和发展地方文化[50]。杨立琴 (2018) 从语言景观的角度研究了保定市街道标牌的语言使用情况，为对其进行优化提供了建议[51]。2020年，沈雨婷研究了阜阳市110条新路名，发现它们承载的文化内涵和历史，强调双语景观标准化对城市国际化的重要性，并建议遵循国家规定和双语标准[52]。上述研究共同表明，道路与街名标识的英译既关系到译名规范与城市形象，也可作为国际中文教育中进行真实翻译训练和文化解读的重要语言景观资源。

从国际中文教育角度而言，这类以城市空间为对象的个案研究为理解学习者所接触的真实语言环境提供了重要背景，但相关研究多停留在管理与规范层面，较少从二语学习者的感知、理解与使用角度展开分析。

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44 巫喜丽、战菊 2017: 6–11; 112.
45 李丽、夏娜 2017: 35–42.
46 伍莹 2020: 28–32.
47 向阳 1994: 30–31.
48 孙利 2009: 153–156.
49 杨永林、李晋 2010: 258–267; 288.
50 方佳 2015: 21–25.
51 杨立琴 2018: 125–132.
52 沈雨婷 2020: 1–6.

2.2.2 行业语言景观研究

现有成果集中于特定行业，主要包括旅游、餐饮、商业店铺经营和教育等。

徐红罡、任燕（2015）探讨了旅游对纳西东巴文语言景观的影响，发现在云南纳西族自治县旅游景区内，纳西东巴文主要承担象征性功能，实际信息功能较弱，因而未能有效促进其复兴，揭示出旅游业对地方语言与文化传承的复杂影响，该研究也提示，在旅游语境中，传统文字的可见化并不必然转化为有效的语言学习或传承机制[53]。

单菲菲、刘承宇（2016）基于社会符号学和文化资本理论，对贵州西江千户苗寨的语言景观进行了实证研究，发现民族文化符号通过旅游开发转化为文化资本，有助于提升民族语言文化的社会地位，进而促进其可持续发展，但该研究仍主要聚焦于符号的社会价值，对其在语言教育情境中的具体应用关注较少[54]。

毛奕博（2016）以西安市餐饮业招牌名称为研究对象，采用定量统计与定性描写相结合的方法，运用社会语言学和修辞学理论，系统分析店名的语言特征及其所反映的社会文化，并提出相应的规范建议。[55]这一视角为将餐饮业招牌作为真实语料引入汉语二语教学、开展跨文化语用分析提供了潜在可能。

林小径（2017）研究了汕头市商业标牌的语言景观，发现多语现象匮乏、国际化程度较低，但语言景观的规范性较强。[56]从国际中文教育视角看，这种格局一方面为学习者提供了较为标准的汉语输入，另一方面也在一定程度上限制了其接触多元语码与跨文化对比材料的机会。

总体而言，这些针对特定行业的语言景观研究在理论视角和研究对象上各有侧重，但普遍缺少对其教学可利用性的深入讨论，尚有必要在国际中文教育框架下系统考察其作为二语教学语料和文化资源的潜力。

2.2.3 多语景观的考察与分析

孙利（2009）考察了温州市语言景观翻译的现状，指出其中存在的用词不当、语法错误等问题，并提出改进策略，强调语言景观翻译的规范性与准确性对跨文化交际的重要性。[57]这一研究也为国际中文教育中公共标识汉英翻译实践提供了有益的参照。

张维佳与田飞洋（2014）通过对北京市学院路双语公示语的考察发现，当地双语标志在语言选择与表述方式上折射出全球化背景下的社会

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[53] 徐红罡、任燕 2015: 102–111.
[54] 单菲菲、刘承宇 2016: 153–161.
[55] 毛奕博 2016.
[56] 林小径 2017: 105–109.
[57] 孙利 2009: 153–156.

文化变迁。[58]这一发现提示，城市高等教育街区的语言景观既是社会文化的窗口，也可作为国际中文学习者观察当代中国社会的真实语料。

俞玮奇（2016）的研究发现，在上海古北和北京望京两个华侨社区中，政府与民间主体设置的双语和多语标签在语言选择、呈现方式等方面存在明显差异。[59]这种差异从侧面揭示了制度话语与社区实践的不同取向，也为探讨国际中文教育中的“官方话语”与“日常用语”提供了多语情境参照。

王克非、叶洪（2016）选取北京三个路段为考察对象，结合语言景观构建原则和 SPEAKING 模型，对当地多语景观进行了系统分析，并提出改进建议。[60]相关分析不仅揭示了首都多语生态的结构特点，也为构建有利于外国居民和汉语学习者的城市语言环境提供了思路。

韩艳梅、陈建平（2018） 通过分析三百余个多语标签， 发现跨文化交流不仅体现在代码混杂现象上，还体现为不同文化资源之间的互文与整合，有助于理解当代社会多元共生与开放发展的进程。[61]从国际中文教育视角看，这类多语标签可成为引导学习者观察文化互文性、培养跨文化意识的生动教材语料来源。

2.3 语言景观与国际中文教育结合的研究

2006-2025年间，语言景观研究逐步从理论探索走向教学应用。随着国际中文教育规模扩大与内涵深化，学界开始关注语言景观与中文教学的融合路径。然而，相较于语言景观在其他学科领域的应用，其与国际中文教育的结合研究仍处于初步探索阶段。

2.3.1 面向国际中文教育的语言景观研究

直接面向国际中文教育的语言景观研究成果主要集中在孔子学院语言景观构建与地域文化景观融入教学两方面。

在孔子学院层面，学者们探索了其作为海外中文语言景观构建主体的功能定位。袁法森（2023）提出孔子学院在海外中文语言景观构建中发挥着“实践主体、形象顾问和理想智库”三重功能，通过实体空间与数字平台共同塑造中文的可见性[62]。黎妮（2021）基于SPEAKING交际模型，归纳出拉丁美洲西班牙语国家孔子学院语言景观构建应遵循“与办学理念融合、与教学体系结合、与区域文化适应”三大原则，避免符号化、

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58 田飞洋、张维佳 2014: 38–45.
59 俞玮奇、王婷婷、孙亚楠 2016: 36–44.
60 王克非、叶洪 2016: 10–26;108.
61 韩艳梅、陈建平 2018: 31–41.
62 袁法森 2023: 86–92.

表层化的景观呈现[63]。戚新哲（2023）对利物浦大学孔子学院网站的数字化语言景观分析揭示，现有建设中英语单语主导现象较为普遍，未能充分体现“外语+汉语”双语共生的中文教学特质，反映出语言权势失衡的深层问题[64]。

在教学实践层面，学界开始探索语言景观作为教学资源（含教材）的应用模式。李胜寒等（2025）以徐州汉文化景区语言景观为例，提出针对留学生的“文化导入、词汇语法教学、实地体验、信息化辅助”四维教学模式，主张通过观察、解读、分析景区标识培养学生的语言应用能力与文化理解[65]。刘水（2025）则聚焦教材建设，指出徽州文化语言景观融入国际中文教材面临“编撰片面浅表化、语言风格语境转换困难、精神内涵阐释不足、方法创新设计缺乏”等现实困境，呼吁立足“受众本位观”进行柔性转化[66]。张正生（2024）从微观语言特征角度，系统归纳了汉语景观的语体与修辞特征，认为公共标识“充分展示典型的汉语书面语体和常用修辞手段”，是“免费的真实语料”，其解读能力对汉语学习者在目的语环境中的生存至关重要，但“可惜的是，目前即使在高年级也很少采用，造成教学与现实严重脱节”[67]。

此外，区域性二语教学经验亦提供了重要启示。吴英成（2009）对新加坡多语环境下华语教学的分析表明，传统教材过度依赖“文以载道”模式和“老掉牙的经典故事”，忽视了当代语言景观的鲜活资源。这提示国际中文教育需跳出经典文本的局限，将公共空间的真实语言纳入教学体系，让中文从“过去式的传统语言”转变为“富有活力的现在进行式语言”[68]。

整体而言，直接面向国际中文教育的语言景观研究虽已起步，但存在理论深度不足、实证研究匮乏、应用层次较浅等问题。多数研究仍停留在经验描述层面，尚未形成系统化的理论框架与操作模型。

2.3.2 他种语言教育情境中的校园语言景观研究及其对国际中文教育的启示

相较于国际中文教育领域的薄弱基础，语言景观在其他语言教育情境中的研究已形成较为成熟的理论体系与实践路径。张晖（2021）的系统综述指出，国外学界将语言景观视为“第二语言习得过程中额外的输入资源”，在“促进语言学习者语用能力和多语能力发展、培养多模态技能、提高语言意识”等方面发挥重要作用。[69]其研究多围绕“语言景观与英

[63] 黎妮、李冬 2021: 20–25; 49.
[64] 戚新哲 2023: 106–108.
[65] 李胜寒、陈柏帆、张晨阳，等 2025: 148–152.
[66] 刘水 2025: 73–76.
[67] 张正生 2024: 32–41.
[68] 吴英成 2009: 6–12.
[69] 张晖、张恒 2021: 60–71.

语语言教学、语言景观与社会语言意识、语言景观与职前教师培训”三大议题展开，形成了从理论到实践的完整链条。

在基础教育领域，罗颖、於雪丹（2021）提出将语言景观融入小学英语教学的四维路径：建设校园语言景观、调研景区语言景观、开发家庭语言景观和探究社会场域语言景观。[70]他们特别强调在教学过程中“同步渗透跨文化交际意识”与“秉持批判性思维引导”，例如通过对比中西方“不要践踏草坪”标识的语言表达差异，帮助学生理解“中国人的感性思维与西方人理性思维”。这一经验对中文教学中文化对比教学具有直接借鉴价值。

在自主学习机制方面，张天伟、张梦丽（2022）通过能动性视角分析北外校园语言景观，发现“能动性层级较高的集体（如院系、学校、社团、班级等）所产生的语言景观作为自主学习工具的效能，明显优于能动性层级较低的个体（如学生等）所产生的语言景观”。[71]这一发现提示国际中文教育应重视机构性语言景观（如孔子学院、中文学习中心）的系统规划，而非仅关注学习者个人的语言实践。

在特殊教育场域，吴振湘（2023）对小学校园语言景观创设问题的反思值得国际中文教育借鉴。作者批判了“接受者受重视程度不足”“教育理念陈旧”“功能类型失衡”等现象，提出“学生主体原则”“突显自我原则”和“学龄分段原则”三大创设策略[72]。取比尔莲（2024）对凉山校园语言景观的研究进一步证明，语言景观可成为平衡“国家通用语推广与民族文化传承”的有效载体，通过空间叙事策略实现教育场域内的“文化创新”。[73]这些研究为国际中文教育中针对不同文化背景、不同语言水平学习者的景观设计提供了重要参照。

翻译教学中的语言景观应用也提供了跨界启示。文月娥（2023）将公共空间语言景观作为汉英翻译教学与课程思政的双重素材，实现了“知识传授与价值引领”的有机统一[74]。崔士岚（2022）则从高职导游专业课程设置角度，探讨了语言景观与全媒体技术的深度融合策略，强调“语言景观+全媒体”已成为新时代语言教育不可或缺的内容。[75]这些经验对国际中文教育突破传统课堂边界、构建多元教学场景具有启发意义。

综上，其他种语言教育情境中的语言景观研究已形成较为系统的理论框架与实践模式，其经验可为国际中文教育提供三方面启示：一是强化语言景观在二语习得中的功能性定位，超越简单素材利用；二是注重学习者主体性与批判性思维培养，避免单向文化灌输；三是构建线上线下融合、校内校外联动的多维景观生态，突破传统教学时空限制。

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70 罗颖、於雪丹 2021: 132–135.
71 张天伟、张梦丽 2025: 68–77; 113.
72 吴振湘、周永华 2023: 174–176.
73 取比尔莲 2025: 36–44.
74 文月娥、贺桂华、吴莉 2023: 73–78.
75 崔士岚 2022: 38–45.

纵观2006-2025年语言景观与国际中文教育的对接研究，可观察到明显的纵向演进特征：前期（2006-2015）以“有没有”为关注焦点，研究者主要论证语言景观对国际中文教育的价值与可能性；后期（2016-2025）转向“怎么用”的实践探索，开始构建具体应用模式与教学路径。这种转变反映了学界从理论认知到实践创新的深化过程。

横向比较则揭示出双重差异：在地域维度上，国外研究更注重实证分析与批判反思，而国内研究多停留在宏观构想与经验总结层面；在语言维度上，英语等语言教育对景观资源的开发利用已形成系统化教学模式，而国际中文教育仍处于零散探索阶段，未能充分挖掘中文景观的教学价值。

另外，统计结果显示，在学术资助方面，中国国家社会科学基金项目为国内语言景观的研究提供了重要的资金保障（图2）。自 2016 年起，累计资助学术论文 89 篇，其中 70 篇发表于学术期刊、15 篇发表于学术辑刊、2 篇发表于特色期刊，另有 2 篇发表于会议论文集。

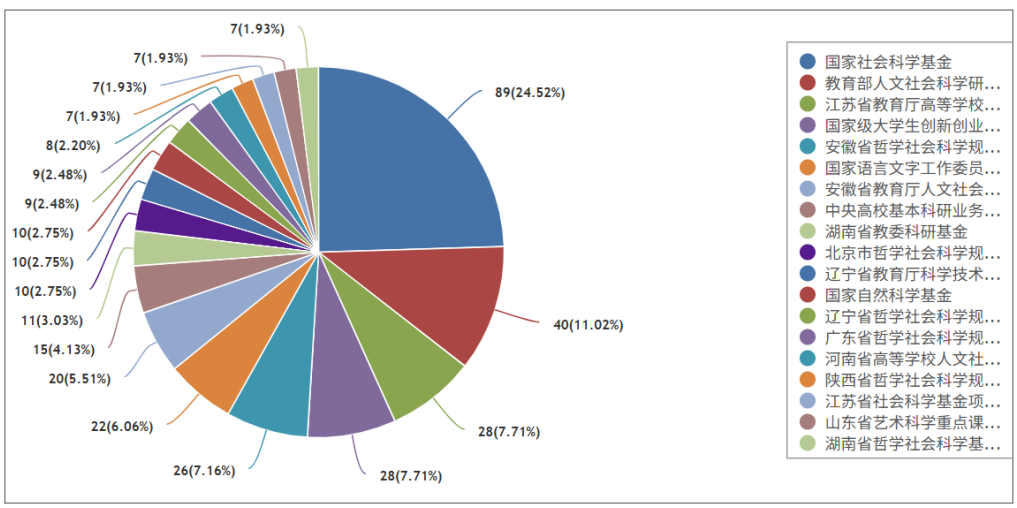

图2：国内语言景观研究文献基金资助类型分布饼图[76]

在参与机构方面，中国国内多所高校在语言景观研究领域发挥了重要作用。上海外国语大学、北京语言大学、云南师范大学、广东外语外贸大学以及辽宁师范大学在该领域的研究成果尤为突出，是国内语言景观文献发表数量的前五名（图3）。

[76] 图表来源：中国知网 [EB/OL]，最后访问日期：2026 年 1 月 29 日。

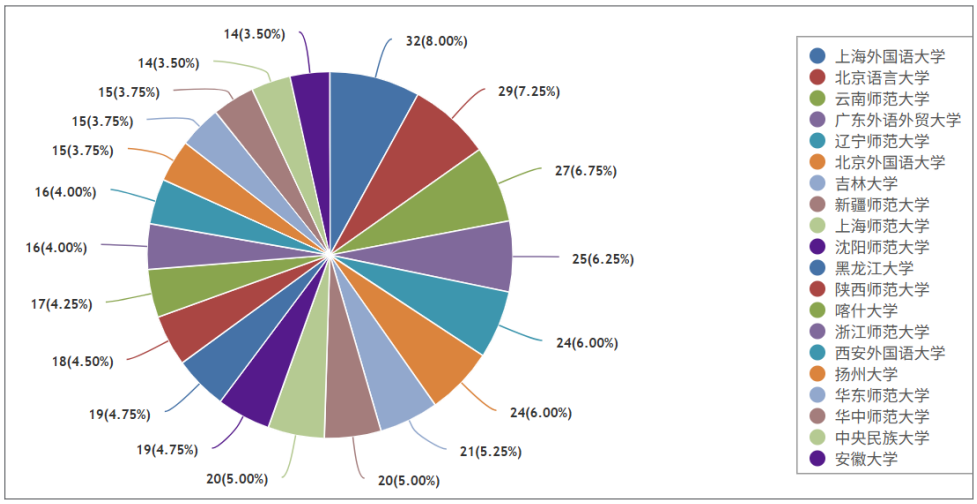

图3：国内语言景观研究主要机构发文量分布饼图[77]

在研究者方面，铜陵学院外国语学院副教授盛榕自2019年起，截至2025年，共计发表了10篇以“语言景观”为主题学术论文，其文献发表数量在国内同领域学者中占据显著位置（见图4）。

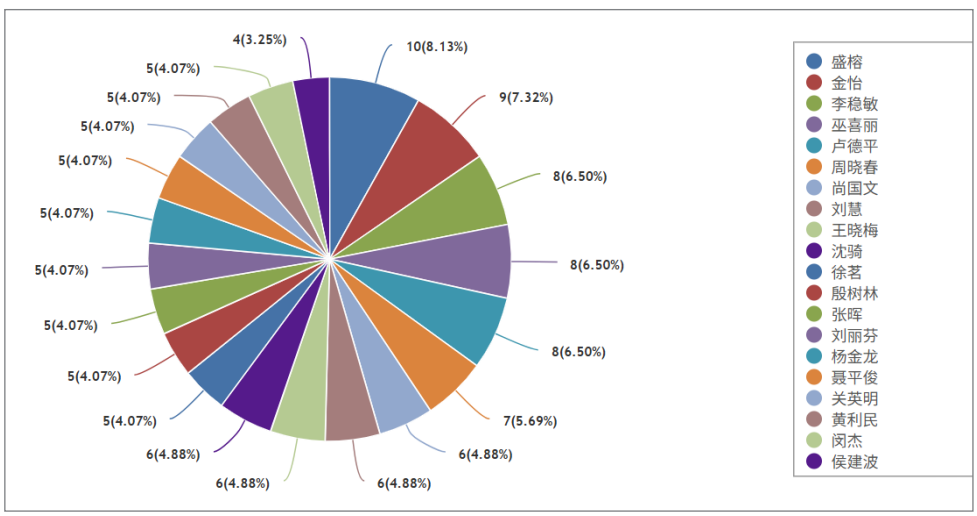

图4：国内语言景观领域主要研究者发文量分布饼图[78]

[77] 图表来源：中国知网 [EB/OL]，最后访问日期：2026 年 1 月 29 日。
[78] 图表来源：中国知网 [EB/OL]，最后访问日期：2026 年 1 月 29 日。

总体而言，中国语言景观研究起步相对较晚，理论体系尚未充分体现中国特色，多数研究依赖国际理论。鉴于语言景观与社会、文化、政治等因素密切相关，亟需结合中国实际，加速发展具有本土特色的理论体系。同时，当前研究多为共时性分析，集中在大城市和旅游区，缺乏对乡村地区及历时性变化的深入探讨，未来应加强解释性研究，深入探究背后的政治、文化和经济因素。

三、展望与预测

语言景观作为结合了社会语言学、符号学和城市规划的跨学科领域，越来越成为世界语言学研究的重点。语言景观能揭示语言的社会地位和文化身份，成为了解社会变迁的重要窗口。在中国特色社会主义建设的新时期，随着中国在治理能力、治理体系现代化和数字化方面的推进，国内的语言景观研究需要新的视角和技术支持，在语言权力、文化认同和城市形象等方面，均大有可为；同时，地理信息系统（如北斗导航）、眼动追踪和社交媒体分析等数字工具的运用，使研究方法更加现代化和多样化，有助于直观呈现语言分布与区域语言使用情况，并为国际中文教育提供可视化的基础语料。另外，语言政策是治理现代化的重要组成部分，特别是中国少数民族地区的双语政策，对民族团结和文化保护至关重要。

未来，中国的语言景观研究有望在理论本土化、跨学科合作和方法创新等方面进一步深化，既加深对语言价值的理解，也为语言政策制定和国际中文教育实践提供依据，推动具有中国特色的语言政策理论发展，并为世界语言景观研究贡献中国智慧和中国方案，期待更多专著的问世。

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