

**Localised, Student-Centred Curriculum Construction: A Case
Study of Making Chinese Learnable for Australian Primary
School Students**

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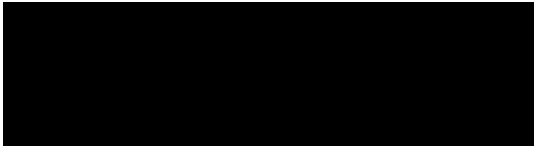
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STATEMENT OF AUTHENTICATION

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material, either in full or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution.

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(Signature)

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ABSTRACT

With the turn to ‘zhōng wén rè - 中文热’ (Chinese fever), Chinese is now the most commonly spoken second language in Australia. There has been a concomitant growth in interest in the learning of the Chinese language in local schools. However, it has been reported that there exist huge difficulties and challenges in making Chinese learnable for the predominantly English-speaking learners in Australia. The high dropout rate from Chinese language courses presents evidence of this. Consequently, this case study has been conducted in a local public school of New South Wales through the Australia-China educational partnership program entitled ROSETE. Specifically, the purpose of this case study is to draw on the local students’ social practices, undertaken in English, for establishing what to teach in the Chinese language classroom. The aim is to construct an appropriately learnable curriculum which will assist to enrich students’ learning of Chinese.

In doing so, this study focuses on local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and their funds of knowledge in the school-based community through addressing and answering the overarching research question: how can the use of students’ sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge contribute to curriculum construction to enrich the learning of the Chinese language?

Guided by this question, the study initially investigates particular forms of local students’ daily sociolinguistic activities, performed in English at school, then utilises them as the learning content sources. In effect, it gives priority to mobilising students’ knowledge base in order to adapt their preferred instruction strategies to make them suitable for the local educational milieu. Furthermore, it is suggested that this process of generating Chinese learning materials can and should be adjusted, and then applied to more broadly to emergent second language learners of Chinese around the world, in accordance with their diversified cultural and educational environments.

The case study suggests that local students’ potential translanguaging capabilities between English and Chinese are evolving and becoming powerful due in part to the effort exerted by their engagement in this form of situated learning practice. Thus, not only can Chinese be made learnable, but a specific localised vocabulary can become the base for more extensive language learning.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

‘Zhōng wén rè - 中文热’ (Chinese fever) is “a term commonly used in the media to describe the increasing interest in learning Chinese that has coincided with China’s growth as a global economic power” (Scrimgeour, 2014, p. 151). For instance, according to the statistics provided by the National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Program, the interest in learning Chinese in Australian schools has been growing (Sturak & Naughten, 2010). According to another group of outstanding figures, 92,931 students in Australia were studying Chinese in local schools in 2008 (Sturak & Naughten, 2010). Particularly, in New South Wales (NSW) the number of secondary school students who participated in the programs offered by the local Department of Education regarding Chinese language learning has nearly arrived at over 20,000 in 2008, and reflects an increasing trend (Sturak & Naughten, 2010).

Conversely, the fact is that those Australian school students’ learning achievements in Chinese language all over the nation are far less than they or the Australian government might have expected. As reported, more and more of the local young learners tend not to choose Chinese as their second language once they come to Year 11 or Year 12, as that language (Chinese) is no longer a compulsory course for them (Orton, 2008). They have many more alternative languages they can attempt to master, such as Japanese, French or Korean. More importantly, such a plethora of choice contributes to the high dropout rate for the Chinese language programs, amounting to 94% among these local pupils (Orton, 2008).

By 2016, when it came to taking Chinese as a second language for the Australian local school students, the dropout rate had steadily increased to 95% (Orton, 2016). Meanwhile, in terms of the Year 12 students, the beginning learners who preferred to continue engaging in learning the Chinese language had actually shrunk by 20% during the preceding 8 years (Orton, 2016). It is further concerning that the Australian educational organisations are confronted with the reality that it is difficult to cultivate and provide the bilingual expertise (between English and Chinese) which is urgently needed by the local labour market (Orton, 2016). Considering that, the learning of the Chinese language by predominantly beginning learners in Australia is “as fragile as fine bone china” (Singh & Ballantyne, 2014, p. 200) for whom English is their

“everyday language of instruction and communication” (Singh & Han, 2014, p. 410). That is to say, it is a challenge to facilitate Chinese language learning among the beginning learners in the English-speaking school communities.

It is worth mentioning that the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority speaks of the *‘Background Language Learners’* (2013, p. 4), and thus by this implication suggests that other learners would be called *‘Non-background Language Learners’*. However, ACARA refers to them as *‘Second Language Learners’* instead. For ACARA, *‘Second Language Learners’* refers to students learning Chinese as a second or additional language. Thus, to avoid classifying students in a deficit way, terms such as *‘non-background’*, *‘non-native’* and *‘monolingual speakers’* have not been used in this study. Here, *‘Emergent Second Language Learners’* is used in this study to refer to the primary school students for whom English is their everyday, recurring language of instruction and communication who were in Stage 2 and Stage 3, with limited knowledge of Chinese.

This research report depicts a case study that has addressed such a problem. Specifically, the study has explored what can be done to make (spoken) Chinese learnable for the Australian local school students through engaging in an Australia-China partnership program entitled the Research Oriented, School Engaged Teacher-Researcher Education (ROSETE) Program. It starts with looking into the students’ daily activities, as performed in English, as well as the categories of their knowledge base, as shaped in a local public school of NSW. The value of such a departure point lies in two major respects. On the one hand, it is to discover the learnable content sources in the local educational milieu. On the other hand, it is targeted at implementing the teachable strategies based on the local students’ accustomed learning habits. In this regard, this study has a tendency towards collecting the local students’ linguistic and cultural repertoires accumulated in their English-speaking school-based community, for theorising the localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum construction. Furthermore, it is anticipated that the mobility and learnability of Chinese for these emergent second language learners will be improved, thus reducing the growing dropout rate encountered among these Chinese learning programs.

This chapter offers an overview of the fundamental elements in this research project. It briefly describes the research problem, research focus, research delimitations, research questions, main terms to be adopted, research purpose as well as the research case to be engaged in. Afterwards, an outline of the thesis structure explains how this thesis is constructed and

developed throughout the following chapters. In the ensuing section, the research problem is initially identified.

1.1 Research Problem

The ROSETE Program is committed to making Chinese learnable for the Australian school students in the local educational environment, which is supposed to effectively integrate the Chinese language education into its research-oriented teaching process (Singh & Han, 2015). The core mechanism of such a program lies in forming a ‘chain’, combining the practical teaching action (school-engaged) with the original knowledge production (research-oriented) for the field of Chinese language education (Singh & Han, 2015). The various factors behind the high dropout rate among the beginning learners of Chinese in the Australian educational milieu were explored. Initially, choosing what to teach to these beginning learners becomes the central issue, as the existing Chinese learning materials, including the textbooks and the curriculum requirements are lacking in locally cultural and educational appropriateness (Zhao & Huang, 2010). It also entails that native Chinese speakers who teach Chinese should be capable of departing from the local beginning learners’ characteristics (the Australian school students) to capture their real needs and perceptions regarding learning of Chinese in the local context, thus making Chinese a local and learnable language for them (Singh & Han, 2014; Singh & Han, 2015). In this sense, developing instructive resources which are culturally appropriate and high in content-learnability for those beginning learners is considered as an essential way to achieve such a goal.

Another major concern for the current situation of Chinese language teaching is “the alienation of beginning learners” (p. 168) due to the employment of such a “monolingual theoretic-pedagogical framework” (p. 168) as the set of instruction strategies (Singh & Han, 2015). It is thus emphasised that such modes of teaching Chinese are aimed at those beginning learners in China (Tsung & Cruickshank, 2010). Consequently, the adoption of de-contextualised and teacher-directed instruction approaches to teaching beginning learners makes them feel that learning Chinese is very demanding and less rewarding (Zhang & Li, 2010). This means that the learning materials adopted and the courses designed for the overseas Chinese learners are inclined to be constructed and developed from the perspective of the language itself and native Chinese teachers, actually not taking the overseas students’ interests and features into consideration (Zhang & Li, 2010).

Apart from the above-mentioned issues encountered in teaching Chinese to beginning learners in the global context, other challenges concerning Chinese teaching in Australian schools were identified as “the extremely limited attention to pedagogy, resources, teacher professional development and training for Chinese in primary schools” (Moloney & Xu, 2018, p. 20). Also, it is claimed that “the limited exposure time and the week gap between lessons” undoubtedly require more diverse and creative teaching methods to strengthen pupils’ learning achievements and maintain their interest in those school Chinese programs (Moloney & Xu, 2018). Not surprisingly, the local school students gradually tend to quit learning Chinese, while preferably choosing other languages as their second language if it is necessary, thereby slowly diminishing any ‘zhōng wén rè - 中文热’ to some extent.

It is worth mentioning that this teacher-researcher has experienced a similar situation before conducting this study. At that time, the teacher-researcher was allocated to a local secondary school of NSW in Australia for the preparation and observation of his independent Chinese language teaching. Consequently, the teacher-researcher not only has a sound understanding concerning the local school students’ preferences in terms of what they desire to learn from Chinese class, but can also identify their innate characteristics regarding how they can be engaged in mastering Chinese in their familiarised learning styles. In light of such preparatory work, the teacher-researcher’s inherent beliefs have been modified, and this may influence the acclimatising of his Chinese teaching practices to the schoolchildren’s learning aptitudes and habits in the Australian educational system (Moloney & Xu, 2015b).

Afterwards, when the teacher-researcher followed the Australian K-10 Chinese syllabus for designing the daily Chinese lesson plans, some questions and confusions still came to mind. In terms of their anticipated spoken ability, the local students were often expected to learn to engage in conversations through using sentence patterns such as, “Qǐng wèn - 请问 (May I ask...)?” (BOSTES, 2003, p. 30). This is a representative verbal expression which can occur in a dialogue between teacher and student to very politely make a request in China. In fact, such a linguistic term is no longer popular or applicable in real classrooms in China, which means it has been outmoded and is impractical for the emergent second language learners of Chinese. At the same time, cultivating the local school students’ communicative abilities is regarded as the core goal, while operating within the bounds of the Chinese language as a system (BOSTES, 2003). Considering that, it is likely that the teacher-researcher’s attention may be transferred to the language itself, disregarding the students’ perspectives.

In addition, the teacher-researcher encountered such a situation as the students in this case study school just had one Chinese lesson of roughly 40 minutes for Stage 2 and Stage 3 students during each week. That is to say, fewer opportunities were provided for these children to be exposed to using Chinese in the local educational environment. Also, there did exist a huge gap between weekly Chinese lessons. For example, sometimes the students may be involved in other activities in school, including swimming and chess competition, signing and dancing practice or performance rehearsal. All these problems confronted by the teacher-researcher in his daily teaching experiences unavoidably put some burdens in making Chinese learnable for the local school students.

Therefore, the Chinese teacher-researcher is disposed to probe into the proper learning content sources and workable instruction strategies based on the fundamental guidelines in BOSTES (2003), AITSL (2012) and ACARA (2013) to construct the tailored Chinese curriculum having made various Australian cultural considerations, and then generate the localised Chinese learning materials for the Australian school students, eventually making contributions to further develop such educational documents. In doing so, it is anticipated that the local children's exposures and opportunities of using Chinese will be reinforced in their daily school lives. Naturally, the research focus of this study is self-elicited through such a research problem being addressed here.

1.2 Research Focus

Inspired by the research problem aforementioned, teaching Chinese after taking into consideration the Australian school students' characteristics and preferences has been taken as the primary strategy for the sustainable learning of the Chinese language in the local educational environment (Zhu, 2010; Singh & Han, 2014). Specifically, the school-engaged research projects for producing the retention tactics will prioritise constructing the corpus of learning content by means of exploiting the Australian pupils' recurring everyday sociolinguistic activities as performed in English in the school communities (Singh, Han & Ballantyne, 2014; Singh & Han, 2014; Singh & Han, 2015). What is more, being informed by the notion of *language as a local practice* (Pennycook, 2010) provides the possibility of making Chinese the embodiment of various local practices. In this regard, the local school students' interest in Chinese language tends to be maintained through being exposed to rewarding experiences in such contextualised learning spaces as those established in Chinese classes (Singh & Han, 2014; Harreveld & Singh, 2009). In terms of making Chinese learnable

through ‘localisation’, it is further put forward that “language and literacy are situated social practices” (Singh & Nguyễn, 2018, p. 200), which is targeted at constructing “a context which frames its uses and gives it a place where it can take hold in students’ everyday lives” (Singh & Nguyễn, 2018, p. 200).

At the same time, ‘localising Chinese’ entails that Chinese teachers “are able to plan and implement lessons relating what the students already know in English to the Chinese they are to learn and use locally through getting to know their students” (Singh & Nguyễn, 2018, p. 200). However, it is argued that the native teachers of Chinese prefer to base their teaching on the pedagogical doctrine of being teacher-directed, rather than student-centred, which can ignore the local students’ knowledge base shaped from their former learning experiences in the school-based community. For that reason, it is difficult to engage local students with the learning content due to the existing ineffective teaching approaches (Duff et al., 2013; Singh & Han, 2014). The concept of *funds of knowledge* (González, Moll & Amanti, 2005) tends to equip the teacher-researcher with an alternative perspective to activate and involve the local students’ intellectual resources accumulated in the English-speaking educational context for enhancing their learning of Chinese.

The above-mentioned provide the teacher-researcher with some practical directions and methods regarding how to localise Chinese, namely taking the teacher-researcher out of a concept of teaching Chinese as an “alien language”, or “an abstract linguistic system that is a decontextualised entity operating outside the students’ everyday lives” (Singh & Nguyễn, 2018, p. 200). Therefore, to embody such notions and judge their effectiveness in making Chinese learnable in the real teaching and learning context, the research focus of this study is to explore the local school students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities (what to teach) and mobilise their funds of knowledge (how to teach) which have accumulated in the school-based community, which can be utilised as the learning content sources and instruction strategies for constructing a localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum, to enrich their learning of Chinese in the Australian educational milieu. To do so, the teacher-researcher initially gathers the examples of forms of the local students’ recurrent sociolinguistic activities that they perform in English in the school-based community. After that, the linguistic terms collected are utilised as the learning content sources for the Chinese curriculum construction, by drawing on examples from their daily speech practices in school. In the meanwhile, employing appropriate teaching methods is indispensable in recognising and deploying the local students’

knowledge configurations. Being guided by the student-centred pedagogy, the teacher-researcher adopts the multi-dimensional instruction strategies for mobilising their funds of knowledge developed in the school-based community to reinforce their learning of such localised content.

Afterwards, the learnability and appropriateness of such learning materials generated from the Australian educational environment are also investigated in terms of the major influences on the local students' Chinese learning outcomes, as well as in terms of their transferability and applicability to more emergent second language learners of Chinese from wider learning communities. Accordingly, this research project specifies the forms of the Australian students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities used for creating the localised Chinese learning content, and extends the students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community to the field of Chinese language education for eliciting appropriate instruction strategies. Effectively integrating the above two essential elements into Chinese curriculum construction is beneficial for enacting the local school students' potential translanguaging aptitudes, as their emergent bilingual identity is transferred between English and Chinese within the situated learning atmosphere (García, 2009; García & Kleifgen, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011; Wei, 2011; Lave & Wenger, 1991). That is to say, this research project intends to address issues relating to translanguaging pedagogical approaches, rather than the issues relating to the scope and sequence required for curriculum design in terms of creating a meaningful accumulated linguistic sequence.

By doing so, this study ultimately proposes a sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented approach to the localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum construction, and verifies its efficacy in terms of making Chinese learnable in the Australian educational milieu. In view of that, it is anticipated that its potential suitability and effectiveness will be mobilised and transferred to more emergent second language learners of Chinese worldwide, with the special emphasis on their unique localities.

1.3 Delimitations of this Study

Under the guidance of the Chinese idiom ‘鱼与熊掌不可得兼 (yú yǔ xióng zhǎng bù kě dé jiān)¹’, this study is delimited to the following aspects. To be precise, the research project reported in this thesis explores the potential and significance of utilising and conceptualising students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and mobilising their funds of knowledge accumulated in the school-based community as agents for constructing the localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum. To do so, this study intends to engage a cohort of the Australian students (in Stage 2 & Stage 3) in a local primary school of NSW for Chinese knowledge co-production, particularly focusing on enriching their learning of *spoken Chinese*² via enabling their agency and emancipating their identity in a real dialogic space. That is to say, the current study cannot encompass the entire scope of Chinese language education, nor can it investigate the Australian local students from other grades, schools and states. Meanwhile, being grounded in the research context of the school-based community implies that the teacher-researcher confines his focus on gathering the relevant data from the local students’ social practices as they happen, and their knowledge configurations as they are shaped during their daily school lives.

Thus, this research intends to put forward a students’ sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented approach to Chinese curriculum construction, which can be transferred and applied to make Chinese learnable for more emergent second language learners globally. Here, it is worth mentioning that this study is based on the *Australian Professional Standards for Teachers* (2012) to select and develop content sources and pedagogical approaches for the purpose of developing not just a localised, but also a student-centred curriculum, ultimately conducting effective Chinese teaching and learning in an engaging environment. Nevertheless, the focus is not to sit within a systematised sequence of language acquisition in relation to the

¹ The original source of the Chinese version: 孟子《鱼我所欲也》：“鱼，我所欲也，熊掌亦我所欲也；二者不可得兼，舍鱼而取熊掌者也。”本意不是说二者必然不可兼得，而是强调如果不能兼得的时候，我们应当如何取舍。Literally, it refers to when choosing between a fish and a bear paw, they cannot both be obtained or owned at the same time, and we need learn to choose the proper or the necessary one (e.g. the bear paw), and correspondingly abandon the other one (e.g. the fish). Metaphorically, here it means that when the teacher-researcher cannot include every facet in relation to the current research topic, he defines this study by restricting it to a certain perspective and dimension for proposing the suitable research questions.

² It is worth mentioning that Chinese in this study specifically refers to the modern and standard Chinese commonly used all over the world and officially entitled Mandarin (pǔ tōng huà - 普通话), not other Chinese linguistic variants or dialects, such as Cantonese or Hokkien.

the scope required for curriculum design. The bottom-top process concerning delimiting the boundary of this study is captured by the inverted triangle as illustrated in Figure 1.1.

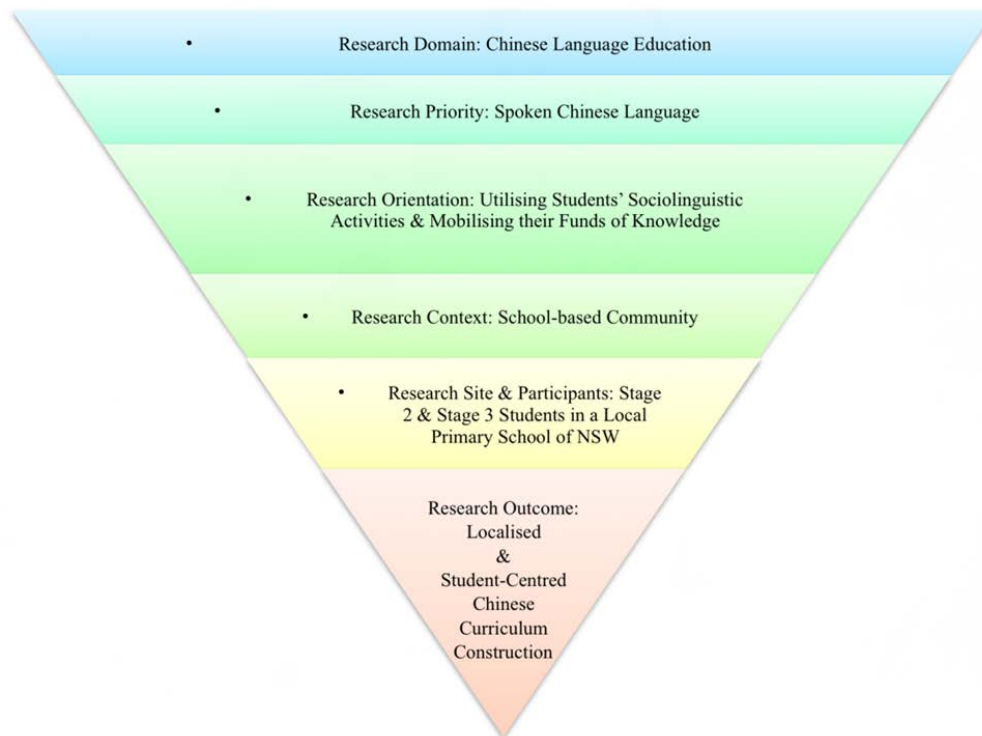


Figure 1. 1 Bottom-Top Process regarding the Delimitations of this Study

(N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

To explain the above-mentioned situation, this thesis concentrates on the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, along with their funds of knowledge in the school-based community, which enable them to become the co-constructors of Chinese knowledge so that they can be equally dialogic in Chinese class, thereby empowering their agency and building their identity in learning Chinese. Such a research setting is to be envisioned based on the following research questions proposed within the boundary set for the present research project.

1.4 Research Questions

Being informed by the research problem and focus as aforesaid, the major research question addressed in this study is as follows:

How can the use of students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge contribute to curriculum construction to enrich the learning of the Chinese language?

To better direct the teacher-researcher to collect and interpret the information during the whole research process, the following three inter-related contributory research questions are set out:

CR1: What forms of the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community can the Chinese teacher-researcher utilise as content sources for curriculum construction? (What to Teach) - (Evidentiary Chapter 5).

CR2: How can the Chinese teacher-researcher mobilise the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community through the process of interacting with their learning of Chinese? (How to Teach) - (Evidentiary Chapter 6).

CR3: How can students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge be conducive to the generation of suitable learning materials for the emergent second language learners of Chinese? (Feedback on Learning Outcomes) - (Evidentiary Chapter 7).

These evolved research questions are employed to guide the production of evidence, and were elaborated upon during the process of conducting this study and separately responded to in the evidentiary chapters (5-7). Through searching for the answers to these research questions, this research project looks into alternative and effective ways to construct the workable and suitable Chinese curriculum facilitated by utilising the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and mobilising their funds of knowledge accumulated in the school-based community. This creates the opportunity for developing localised and student-centred curricula, aimed at making Chinese learnable. Accordingly, the key terms frequently which occur and are adopted in this study are clearly defined in the next section.

1.5 Definitions of Key Terms

1.5.1 Teacher-Researcher

Being engaged in a research-oriented, school-engaged educational program for teaching Chinese, the terminology 'teacher-researcher' is employed in this research project, which means undertaking dual roles. On the one hand, the conductor of this study acts as a Chinese teacher in class, delivering lessons to the Stage 2 and Stage 3 students in an Australian local

primary school of NSW. On the other hand, working as the researcher involves collecting and analysing the relevant evidence from the daily Chinese teaching practices, as well as assuming the responsibility for reporting the corresponding research findings in the form of a degree thesis and making original contributions to the academic research community.

1.5.2 Students' Daily Recurring Sociolinguistic Activities

Originally, the term 'sociolinguistic activity' probes into the regular discourse pattern generally used by a particular cohort of people in real-world social happenings, thus focusing on the study of language use and function in reality (Florio-Ruane, 1987). Here, it is worth stating that the sociolinguistic activities adopted are specifically defined as the Australian local school students' recurrent doings that are undertaken in English in the school-based community for effecting their daily communication and learning practices within such an English-speaking educational setting (Carter, 2006; Kelly, 2012; Singh & Han, 2014).

1.6 The Particular Case: Research Oriented, School Engaged Teacher-Researcher Education (ROSETE) Program

The particular case engaged in this study is entitled *Research Oriented, School Engaged Teacher-Researcher Education (ROSETE) Program*. As the name suggests, ROSETE is an education program which is targeted at cultivating capable and supplying suitable Chinese teachers for the Australian school students through examining and solving the pedagogical issues and cultural barriers in making Chinese learnable for the local learners, especially for those whose primary language of daily learning is English (Singh & Han, 2014). Such a program was initiated by the partnership among three parties, including the New South Wales Department of Education and Communities (Australia), the Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau (China) and the Western Sydney University, since 2008 (Singh & Han, 2014). That partnership has shaped the development of the ROSETE Program, in particular for the facilitation of the Chinese teacher-researchers' education (Han & Yao, 2013; Singh & Ballantyne, 2014). Being in such partnered status between Australia and China, this program is dedicated to equipping Chinese teacher-researchers with the expertise to develop their future career trajectories in the local and international educational industries (Singh & Han, 2014).

Characteristically, the ROSETE Program integrates the education of the teacher-researchers into their daily teaching practices as Chinese volunteer teachers in the local primary and

secondary schools of NSW (Singh & Han, 2014). More importantly, the teacher-researchers are necessarily engaged in workshops, lectures and sessions on utilising such evidence-driven methodologies to make Chinese learnable for the Australian local school students (Singh & Han, 2014). By doing so, these teacher-researchers are able not only to grow into qualified teachers of Chinese as a local/global language, but also to accumulate their research abilities by way of generating the knowledge driven both by the empirical evidence in practice, and informed by the theoretical concepts, thus ultimately increasing the learnability of Chinese for the Australian primary and secondary school pupils in such English-speaking educational settings (Singh, 2013a).

1.7 Profile of an Emergent Teacher-Researcher

Overall, the word ‘beginner,’ ‘novice’ or ‘emergent’ is the most appropriate term for describing the teacher-researcher who conducted this study. While an emergent teacher-researcher conducted this research project, what he brought to this study was knowledge gained through a Bachelor’s Degree in Management from City Institute, Dalian University of Technology which helped with his classroom management practices in the case study school. After this initial degree, this emergent teacher-researcher completed a Master’s Degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics at Dalian University of Technology where he undertook a study regarding international students’ learning of Chinese. In 2014, a journal article entitled ‘*An Investigation of the Beliefs and Classroom Performances of the Overseas Students in Chinese Learning at DUT*’ was published on *Studies in Literature and Language*. The emergent teacher-researcher developed his Master’s thesis through a systematic investigation into the beliefs and strategies used by international students in learning Chinese (Mandarin). By critically reflecting on the teaching/learning methods used in that university, this emergent teacher-researcher was in a position to explore alternative pedagogies for working with children. Afterwards, the emergent teacher-researcher used knowledge of the strategies gained from this study to help further his learning of English in Australia.

The emergent teacher-researcher wanted to further develop his knowledge of teaching students to learn how to use Chinese, and made an advantage of the opportunity to work with school children in Western Sydney as integral to undertaking his doctoral project. Through participating in the ROSETE Program, the emergent teacher-researcher undertook work integrated service, education and research to further his professional knowledge of teaching and research in Australian schools. Building on the emergent teacher-researcher’s prior

knowledge he was over the course of three years extended his professional knowledge of current pedagogies used in Australia for Chinese language education. This professional learning entailed the emergent teacher-researcher observing local Australian teachers working with their students in their everyday lessons; discussing with them the appropriateness of his teaching/learning strategies, and asking advice on the suitability of curriculum and pedagogical content knowledge for the age and educational levels of the students. Given the complexities of the range of professional knowledge the teacher-researcher learnt, this thesis focuses the selection of curriculum content from students' everyday sociolinguistic activities undertaken in English to develop teaching/learning strategies for the localisation of Chinese to increase the students' opportunities for learning the language through using it in their daily lives. Inevitably, many related curriculum issues have not been addressed within the scope of this thesis. However, this study does provide the basis for future research into developing a sustained, organised scope and sequence curriculum for Chinese learning by using this strategy. In effect, this study is informed by the principle of '由浅入深' (yóu qiǎn rù shēn)³ of moving learners, including the teacher-researcher himself from the existing 'surface' level of understanding to ever deep levels of knowledge. As an emergent teacher-researcher, I had knowledge relevant to conducting this study, and just as importantly useful Chinese metaphors and concepts with which to theorise the teaching and research processes involved.

1.8 Thesis Statement

Being an educational program for making Chinese learnable for Australian beginning learners from Kindergarten to Year 12, the ROSETE Program is involved with the combination of practical teaching (school-engaged) with Chinese language research (research-oriented), applied within the local educational setting. In this sense, to fully draw on the local school students' social practices and intellectual repertoires, the teacher-researcher prefers to utilise the learning content sources generated from their everyday recurrent sociolinguistic activities undertaken in English, as well as to employ the instruction strategies enabled by their funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community, which is expected to contribute to enriching their learning of Chinese in the process of practical teaching experiences in a primary school.

³ The original source of Chinese version: 清·无名氏《杜诗言志》第四卷：“夫诗之章法起句，必切本题，且由纲及目，由浅入深。” It means from being shallow to deep, gradually deepening.

Then, such empirical findings developed from this study lay a foundation for proposing the conception and theorising of the approach which utilises students' sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented Chinese curriculum construction for making Chinese learnable. As an ultimate outcome, a theoretic-pedagogical framework is established, which works as the mechanism for spreading and reinforcing the aptness and efficiency of such notions and approaches to the localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum construction for wider learning communities in the world. It is here worth noting that such a framework will be examined and further improved through engaging in multi-layered evidence and engaging with more concepts from a wider research context.

1.9 Overview of Thesis Structure

In this thesis, there are eight chapters altogether and its structure is demonstrated in Figure 1.2.

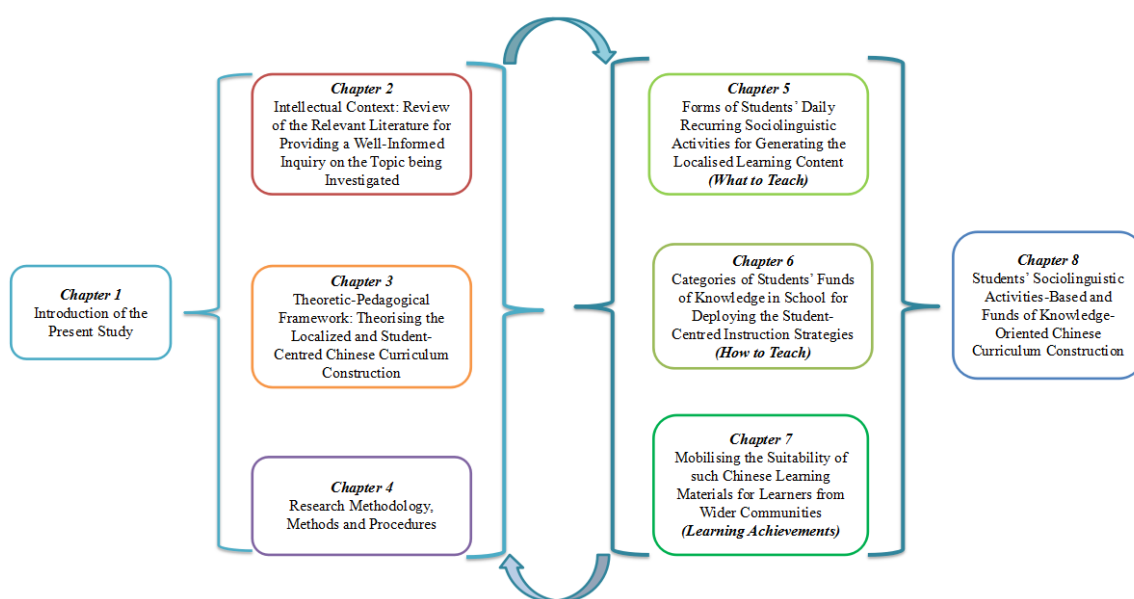


Figure 1. 2 An Outline of the Thesis Structure

(N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

The current introductory chapter has shed light on the research problem, the research focus and the defined research questions, based on the delimited research scope and context in this study for projecting the desired research outcomes reflected in the thesis statement. The terms recurrently used in such a research case have been given well-informed definitions before setting out the research project.

Chapter 2 pays attention to a range of inter-related topics for constructing a thorough inquiry, eventually being expected to equip the teacher-researcher with the valuable perceptions regarding the existing concerns and novel perspectives in the field of teaching Chinese language to beginning learners. In doing so, this chapter discusses the possibility and vision of adopting sociolinguistic activities and student-centred pedagogy for Chinese curriculum construction, in particular within the Australian educational system. In this sense, this chapter not only facilitates the formation and development of the debates in this study, but also grounds the situation for the involved theoretical and pedagogical exploration of the research topic.

Chapter 3 proposes a theoretic-pedagogical framework through assembling and configuring such discursive concepts into a logical and interlocked structure, which draws on the works from various researchers including: Pennycook (2010); Jørgensen (2008); Creese and Blackledge (2010, 2011); Canagarajah (2011); Swain (2006); Lankiewicz (2014); García (2009); García and Kleifgen (2010); Wei (2011, 2014); García and Wei (2014); González, et al. (2005); Lave and Wenger (1991) and other related research publications. Hence, such synthesised notions being embodied in such a framework creates innovative insights into directing the whole course of data collection and analysis, as well as guiding the entire process of performing Chinese language teaching.

Chapter 4 elucidates the methodology applied to this study, selects the proper research strategy, and outlines a flexible research design. Following that, it provides in-depth justification of the appropriate research methods and procedures adopted for collecting data and making meanings of them, based on reasonable research principles and research ethics, to ensure the soundness and credibility of this research project.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 are the evidentiary chapters. Chapter 5 as the first evidentiary chapter discovers the Australian students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities undertaken in English in a local primary school. Meanwhile, being aware of such everyday happenings in school helps the researcher to capture and generate the localised and learnable content sources through the students' mutual negotiations and decision-making in Chinese class. Following that, this chapter puts forward three alternative perspectives to better appreciate the local students' preferences towards the learning content. This also extends Pennycook's (2010) notion of *language as a local practice* in terms of the turn from language to languaging (e.g. Jørgensen, 2008) and translanguaging (e.g. García, 2009) via enacting the above-mentioned

Chinese concepts, eventually making Chinese as various embodiments of local practices for the Australian students in the school-based context.

Chapter 6 discusses the researcher's endeavours in engaging the local students in mastering localised content through devising and implementing instruction strategies based on students' preferred and habituated learning styles, departing from the student-centred perspective. Such pedagogical direction plays the predominant function of establishing the situated practices for learning Chinese in class. More importantly, utilising such learner-directed teaching methods helps to uncover diverse forms of the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community which are conducive to mobilising their influential translanguaging capabilities as their bilingual identity evolves. That further offers an alternative route to having a better understanding of the local students in terms of adopting appropriate instruction strategies to enrich their learning of Chinese in class. Consequently, a set of student knowledge-oriented instruction strategies is nominated to deploy their knowledge base for constructing the student-centred Chinese curriculum. Such pedagogical belief is bestowed with the possibility of enabling the local school students' agency to decide on their favoured (but still appropriate) Chinese teaching strategies in such a way that they will be equally dialogic in class.

Chapter 7 accordingly examines and analyses the achieved Chinese learning outcomes after utilising such localised learning content and student-centred instruction strategies for the Australian local school students in the actual Chinese classes. To further activate and transfer such suitability and learnability for more emergent second language learners of Chinese around the world, it is pointed out there is further need considering the differentiated cultural and educational factors. At the same time, this chapter identifies the accessible forms and convenient ways for extensively sharing such localised and student-centred Chinese learning materials with learners from wider communities.

Chapter 8 is the concluding chapter of this thesis. It begins by presenting the interactive process of evolving this study, and then summarises the significant findings from each evidentiary chapter throughout by answering the proposed contributory research questions. Next, critical discussions are presented concerning the conception of students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge for enhancing the learning of Chinese in the Australian educational setting. Following this, an alternative and novel approach to constructing the localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum is put forward; namely, the students' sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented curriculum construction, designed to make Chinese

learnable worldwide. Not surprisingly, there still exist some concerns due to the limitations of the present study, so the corresponding recommendations are illustrated for guiding the future research. In addition to the aforementioned, theoretical implications and substantial contributions to the related research field and community are recognised in this research project. The teacher-researcher's practical teaching and the research capabilities he has developed, are identified, which he believes have laid solid foundations for his involvement in independent research work in the future.

CHAPTER 2

UTILISING SOCIOLINGUISTIC ACTIVITIES AND STUDENT-CENTRED PEDAGOGY FOR CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING: INTELLECTUAL CONTEXT

2.0 Introduction

Having presented a general overview of the research problem concerning the current Chinese teaching and learning techniques, it is obvious that there is limited access to appropriate teaching and learning materials for Chinese language education (e.g. textbooks and curricula) that are designed from the perspectives of the diverse beginning Chinese learners of the world (Zhang & Li, 2010). Meanwhile, the scarcity of instruction approaches, focusing on the overseas Chinese learners' daily preferred learning styles in schools, also creates more barriers to making Chinese learnable for them (Orton, 2008; Zhang & Li, 2010).

Therefore, this chapter examines various facets regarding curriculum construction based on the proposed research questions. The strategy entitled ‘迂回战略 (yū huí zhàn lüè)’⁴ is the lens adopted through which this researcher will make a well-informed discussion of the current issues concerning the Chinese language curriculum, and reveal a potential approach to generating learnable content sources of curriculum construction for the Australian local school students' learning of Chinese. After establishing what sort of content sources tend to be appropriate and learnable for the students in the Australian local school-based community, this chapter will explore the instruction strategies and learning styles rooted in the student-centred pedagogy to activate the local students' multiple intelligences (Howard, 1983), thus better engaging them in learning the content from the behavioural, cognitive and affective dimensions (Butler, 2011). That is to say, the trajectory for this section is linked to the teacher-researcher's daily practical enactments of the learner-directed teaching modes, including the role-play-based, game-oriented, drama performing, drawing, music-relevant learning activities, and activities which utilise modern technology, which are popular among the local students. Correspondingly, the students' bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, spatial-visual intelligence,

⁴ The original meaning and usage: “就是为隐蔽己方战略企图，并不直接与敌方接触，而是在更大范围内对敌方战役集团进行包围，从而最终达到战役目的的战术”。Literally, it is an effective tactic used for military purposes to besiege enemies and defeat them in a wider space, while avoiding the direct or face-to-face conflict with the hostile armed forces in a battle.

musical intelligence and verbal-linguistic intelligence are deployed to enrich their learning of Chinese in class. Accordingly, the focus of this section is on reviewing the practical applications of such student-centred instruction styles as the aforementioned for second language education.

The sources of relevant literature are mainly based on two search engines and two routes of accessible learning resources from Google Scholar and Western Sydney University Library. Furthermore, in terms of the selection criteria, this researcher principally concentrated on studies conducted in the last 5 years in relation to the proposed research topic, to make a well-informed connection to the research findings for this empirical investigation. It is however worth clarifying that the seminal works from beyond the last 5 years that contribute to the present research field have also been taken into account to deepen the teacher-researcher's understandings.

2.1 Curriculum Construction for Chinese Language Teaching

This section reviews the literature concerning the multi-dimensional aspects needed to be addressed in terms of constructing suitable curricula for different learners in the process of mastering novel knowledge. In a general sense, curriculum is defined as “what is taught to learners”, which includes “the intended and unintended information, skills, and attitudes that are communicated to learners whether in schools or in other locations where teaching takes place” (Sowell, 2005, p. 4). Under this circumstance, the process of curriculum construction tends to be subject to the selection of various content sources, serving the multi-instructive objectives (Sowell, 2005). Accordingly, curriculum construction is a process that includes “a series of decisions and judgements” which are based on the designer's “beliefs, assumptions, perceptions, and biases” (Smith & Lovat, 2003, p. 2). As for the curriculum developers, they need to use their knowledge and skills to “make the best decisions, to choose the most appropriate or justifiable alternatives” when the learners, teachers, resources and learning contexts are taken into consideration (Smith & Lovat, 2003, p. 25). Nonetheless, it is pointed out that it is impossible for educators to produce an inclusive curriculum for “generic students” as such a process of curriculum construction is prone to conceiving of learners as “receivers of knowledge” as opposed to “sources of knowledge” (Sleeter & Carmona, 2016, p. 100). Therefore, these and other corresponding concerns identified by the teacher-researcher are explored in the following subsections.

2.1.1 Concerns Occurring in the Process of Curriculum Construction

There is a concern as to how ‘perfect decisions’ can be made, and how proper and reasonable alternatives can be proposed during the whole process of curriculum construction. As the curriculum construction process is related to knowledge selection and representation, it is concerned with the reality of “creating agency” that inevitably involves a curriculum developer’s particular standpoint regarding the selection of content sources, teaching content and learning tasks to a large extent (Smith & Lovat, 2003, p. 34). Meanwhile, as indicated by the philosophy of “curriculum as content”, curriculum construction is mainly viewed as a process of simply transmitting knowledge from teachers to students, power being centred at the instructors’ knowledge base and the importance of examining the learnt information (Ord, 2016, p. 35). Accordingly, such an approach is vividly defined as the “banking model” that regard pupils as “empty vessels into which knowledge is poured for retrieval later”, as the constructed curricula tend to alienate their localised learning environments (Sleeter & Carmona, 2016, p. 101). Correspondingly, Sleeter and Carmona (2016) have compared the curriculum formation process to the “pottery making” (p. 52) linking it to the ‘big picture’ around curriculum construction which not only strictly abides by the standardised national requirements, but also needs to blend into crafted knowledge with differentiated personalities as the ‘pottery maker’. That is to say, it inevitably involves the designer’s intended perspectives and ends during the process of curriculum construction. Therefore, it is difficult for curriculum planners to balance multiple alternatives, given the ideal that decision-making should satisfy different curriculum consumers’ needs and interests.

2.1.2 Repositioning Content Sources for Curriculum Construction

To echo such concerns which arise during the process of curriculum construction, the efforts involved in reshaping the content sources for the existing Australian curriculum, especially in learning the Chinese language, require that:

a curriculum for Australia needs to begin with the recognition of the diverse linguistic, cultural, and personal life-worlds of students, that is, their intra-culturality; it needs to reflect the lived realities of these diverse students...The social and cultural life-worlds of students’ reference not only their backgrounds, understood as the context for learning, but rather, their **prior experiences that constitute learning**. Students are unique social and cultural beings who interpret the world through their own social and cultural traditions, understandings, and values. Their learning

depends on an education process that takes this into account (Scarino, 2010, p. 168).

According to this statement, the multilayered forms of the learners' knowledge bases should be valued, triggered and well-utilised as meaningful content sources to enable their learning to take place in a contextualised space (Sleeter & Carmona, 2016). They point out that curriculum resources are analogous to "mirrors" (p. 137) and "windows" (p. 143) through which students positively tend to attach the learning stuff to their existing knowledge from their real life practices, thus improving their academic outcomes through engaging with such content (Sleeter & Carmona, 2016).

Also, to prevent the alternatives chosen from relying heavily on the curriculum designers' knowledge and perceptions regarding the curriculum content, various different perspectives (e.g. "student-centred perspective") (p. 16) need to be taken into account (Marsh, 2009). Smith and Lovat also highlight (2003) that "knowledge and cultural experiences" (p. 33) are valuable and effective curriculum content sources in contributing to mastering some certain knowledge for learners in a specific context. As informed by Sowell (2005), "curriculum content is the raw material for student learning in schools" (p. 152). Meanwhile, given the criteria concerning the selection of sources for curriculum content, "learnability by learners" (p. 157) and "appropriateness for needs-interests of learners" (p. 158) are regarded as the two fundamental principles (Sowell, 2005). Learnability is closely connected to learners' abilities for whose knowledge is adopted as curriculum content sources, which shows how highly curricula designers value learners' previous and existing knowledge (Sowell, 2005). Another aspect which needs considering is the suitability of curriculum content for learners' enduring needs and interests (Sowell, 2005). It is suggested that curriculum developers should actively employ students' established knowledge for the screening of curriculum content sources during the process of their social, household and school development (Sowell, 2005).

Furthermore, it is suggested that all the planned and intended decision-making concerning the choices of curriculum content need to be put into classroom teaching and learning practices in the school-based context (Smith & Lovat, 2003). Namely, students' existing knowledge is an indispensable component of the content sources in the process of curriculum construction as they are the "ultimate consumers" (p. 212) of curriculum (Marsh, 2009). For that reason, students are seen as potential resources for curriculum construction, especially when they are situated in a culture-related and learning-interest-based environment (Sleeter & Carmona,

2016). To strengthen the significance of knowledge sources, as well as to establish a contextualised curriculum, Li (2017) emphasises that:

letting our curriculum return to social practices as a community is an inexhaustible resource, which has an impact on us, guides students and supports children's lives there. Life scenarios seem to narrate their past lives and bring lots of deep thinking, meanwhile calling people to look into the future. **Indeed, life itself is a textbook as well and the best experimental area for children's learning, the most vivid classroom of comprehensive practices. It makes no sense if the child's knowledge is far away from society or separate from life, when as a result they cannot comprehend the essentials of knowledge** (p. 5).

The idea of drawing on students' real life experiences within their community-related context would provide curriculum constructors and learners with resourceful teaching and learning materials and activities. To be exact, students' daily life experiences are profound educational resources which can be activated and exploited, and can be helpful in turning abstract knowledge into tangible everyday practices, achieving the ultimate purpose of better understanding and using learnt knowledge in actual situations. Therefore, students can supply various and valuable perspectives, and can be practical contributors to curriculum construction and development in a circumstance whereby they are empowered as the 'optimum agency'.

2.1.3 Problems in the Australian Curriculum when Learning Chinese

Given the importance of the criteria in selecting curriculum content sources, this section intends to investigate the learnability and the appropriateness of the Australian curriculum for the local school students in learning the Chinese language based on the analysis of relevant literature.

The Australian Research Centre for Languages Education has been responsible for curriculum development in teaching Asian languages at both national and state levels for many decades. However, there are no distinctive criteria to gauge students' learning outcomes in mastering different Asian languages due to the generic, generalised and standardised construction of curricula (Scarino, 2014). As for the learning outcomes of one Asian language (e.g. Chinese), it has been outlined as the communicative purpose in the Australian local context. Nevertheless, such an objective has lost its essential power due to the decrease in the hands-on use of the target language in daily life (Scarino, 2014). Having examined the relevant Australian language documents aimed at widening Chinese language teaching for the local primary and secondary school students, the exigency is to construct an Australian children's 'exclusive', while in some

respects an ‘inclusive’, curriculum for learning Chinese based on their various community-related social practices and Australian particularities, thereby being helpful for the students in shaping a positive identity for them as they gain Chinese language knowledge (Möllering, 2015). Thus, it is vital to recognise the prominence of the local students’ prior, existing and powerful knowledge from their school-based linguistic and cultural practices, as that sort of knowledge formed and maintained within such a community setting is of value in constructing a learnable Chinese language curriculum.

Admittedly, ACARA (2013 revised version for languages: Chinese) has made many improvements, in that different needs, perspectives and backgrounds of various learner groups, including second language learners, background language learners and first language learners, are now recognised and delineated. Nonetheless, it is contended that the developed curriculum for learning Chinese should be built on the local students’ sociolinguistic activities and lived experiences in the Australian milieu (Scrimgeour, 2014). Accordingly, the major criticism is focused on the struggle with discovering appropriate Chinese learning resources for the reason that such authorised curriculum content for Chinese language teaching in Australian schools attaches little connection to the local students’ cultural and daily practices (Chen & Zhang, 2014). In order to solve this problem, an antidote entitled *corpus strategies* has been proposed to mediate the transfer from the learners’ prior L1 sociolinguistic (English language) knowledge to the L2 (Chinese language) learning by involving the partial cross-sociolinguistic similarities between the two languages (Singh & Ballantyne, 2014; Singh & Han, 2015).

Considering the aforementioned problems, it is not surprising to find out that the Australian language curriculum for Chinese language learning fails to deliberately recognise the local school students’ valuable knowledge and effectively use this knowledge as the content sources for curriculum construction (Ditchburn, 2012). Consequently, the peripheral students’ engagement and interest in learning Chinese is likely to be hindered or impaired due to the one-size-fits-all national languages curriculum. Furthermore, it is recommended that “students’ lives, perspectives, cultures and experiences” should be utilised as some of the several content sources of curriculum construction so that students can work as the “co-constructors and co-creators (rather than passive consumers) of that curriculum” (Smyth, 2010, p. 191). That is to say, according to the new national model and criteria on curriculum construction for learning Asian languages, the “creativity and use of alternative learning resources” (p. 42) should be

encouraged to develop “a learnable not teachable curriculum” (p. 39) in attempting to fulfil the demands of the new generation of Chinese learners in the Australian context (Crawford, 2012).

The content of curriculum construction should be negotiated to enhance its flexibility and applicability for CFL (Chinese as a Foreign Language) curriculum internationalisation (Wang, Moloney & Li, 2013). The professional learning program designed for CFL teachers is required to take teachers’ creativity and employability into consideration to make pedagogical knowledge content (PKC) widely accessible for CFL curriculum construction. As for CFL teacher-researchers in Australian schools, the influential factors on teachers’ self-efficacy include the teachers’ expertise in the medium of instruction, professional learning, teaching experience and knowledge of students (Chen & Yeung, 2015). In the meantime, it is suggested that such impacts are beneficial for accelerating the development of resourceful curricular and innovative pedagogies for teaching Chinese as a foreign language, which is not only aimed at catering for the multi-layered learners of Chinese in the Australian context, but also in the global environment (Moloney & Xu, 2015a). Based on these dominant influences, it is exceptionally crucial for the native speakers of Chinese as CFL teacher-researchers to understand the local students’ school-based and extracurricular life experiences, as well as their existing learning experiences and knowledge, in order to boost the teachers’ self-efficacy in curriculum construction of Chinese language learning for Australian school students.

2.1.4 Summary

Apparently, even though the “children’s experience should be the starting point and foundation of the curriculum”, they “are often ignored, which is a tremendous lost opportunity” (Li, 2017, p. 43). That is to say, “the priority is to employ children’s experiences fully when the subject contextualized curriculum links with life” (Li, 2017, p. 43). Given the above-mentioned, connecting the local school students’ everyday sociolinguistic activities and their lived experiences to the content sources of curriculum construction for Chinese language learning in the Australian environment, tends to make Chinese a learnable and local language for them (Hedges, Cullen & Jordan, 2011). Moreover, it is emphasised that constructing the curriculum for learning Chinese, especially drawing on the local marginalised students’ knowledge, would stimulate their active engagement in learning Chinese in class, as their identity would be recognised in the school-based community (Zipin, 2013). Therefore, in terms of deciding what to teach to the local students in Chinese class within the Australian school-related context, the sociolinguistic activities-based approach is adopted in this study, which draws on their daily

recurring sociolinguistic activities in school to construct a localised curriculum for their learning and use of Chinese in the local context.

2.2 Sociolinguistic Activities-Based Approach to Curriculum Construction of Second Language Learning

2.2.1 Sociolinguistics for Language Research

Sociolinguistics is “an interdisciplinary effort to study language in the context of its use, which is part of a wider movement in the social and behavioural sciences” (Florio-Ruane, 1987, p. 186). And sociolinguists “study the routine speech and actions of people in social groups” (p. 186), and try to discover the patterns of communication that have functional relevance for those people (Florio-Ruane, 1987). It is worth stating that Hymes, an originator of sociolinguistics and a scholar who initially applied it to educational research, particularly focused on schooling practices. In his early work, he shed light on those ideas pooled by sociolinguists focusing on a variety of disciplines and professions:

The fundamental point in common is an understanding of social life as something not given in advance and a priori, but as having an ineradicable aspect of being constituted by its participants in an ongoing, evolving way. Those who accept this point can agree on giving priority to discovery of what is actually done in local settings and of what it means to participants. The concomitant of that priority is an empowering of **participants as sources of knowledge** (1980, p. xiv).

According to Hymes, sociolinguistics is an area that is imbued with potentially educational values for interdisciplinary knowledge grabbers in terms of the sources of academic content and specific subject knowledge. This enables learners’ stored information to be activated for mastering other knowledge from different disciplines. Such a conception supplies educators of cross-subjects with an alternative angle and way of being well-informed to better select the learning topics and the teaching pedagogies for a certain subject field, adjusting them to suit different students’ learning expectations and capabilities (McKay, 2017). As for teachers, engaging with sociolinguistic knowledge from their pupils would require examining specific subject knowledge, properly harnessing it in their teaching practices, and then extending the teaching to wider learning contexts in the future (Verhoeven, 1998).

Furthermore, the concept of the ‘speech community’, by its very nature, provides a social routine for people who study, work and live together to know each other, and makes daily

actual situations happen regularly through the use of their common linguistic terms (Hymes, 1977). Based on this notion, a classroom is seen as a concrete speech community in which instructors would know what to teach in a learnable style, and thereby pupils would know how to learn in an enjoyable way through the handy observations of the routine talk and daily activities which occur there (Florio-Ruane, 1987). What is more, under the impact of sociolinguistic reform since the 1970s, the progressive concept of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been developed as a basic principle and approach for constructing a curriculum and language teaching to recognise and produce instructive materials, focused on learners' perspectives, for cultivating their communicative competencies in using target language within their real-life situations (Street & Leung, 2010). In the new era, the role of sociolinguistics is endowed with deeper function that has immersed it into multi-faceted educational fields, especially in language acquisition, which is generally understood as “the study of social aspects of language as well as the interaction of language with sociocultural and political structures and phenomena”, and “has much to offer to heritage language (HL) educators” (Leeman & Serafini, 2016, p. 56). Accordingly, sociolinguistics is embedded in heritage language and second language teaching and learning, as it is abundant with valuable knowledge sources for boosting the development of language education (Leeman & Serafini, 2016). Considering the aforementioned, it is clear that sociolinguistics is like a ‘reservoir’ which is continuously ‘filled in’ by discursive linguistic repertoires through the interplay with diverse authenticity-oriented social practices, while unceasingly ‘pouring out’ schooling resources and instruction pedagogies informed by those sociolinguistic activities (Street & Leung, 2010; Duff, 2010; Yiakoumetti, 2012; McKay, 2017). Therefore, how to initiate and utilise such efficacy and popularity specified by sociolinguistic activities, to generate learning resources from such real sociocultural contexts for educational research, particularly for second language learning, is to be reviewed in the ensuing section.

2.2.2 Sociolinguistic Activities for Second Language Learning

The worth and aptness of sociolinguistics for language education lies in its contribution to generating a series of authentic linguistics-related activities as instructional materials for L2 learning, which can help to overcome the sterility incurred by generic and dead textbooks which ignore culture-specific and localised differences among diverse learners (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008). Another aspect worth noting is that sociolinguistic activities as the ‘facilitator’ immersed into EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teaching practices, contributes

to making language attainment process happen through the capturing of, and interplay with, the learning content from real-life experiences (Morton, 2013). However, by its very necessity, the sociolinguistic tactic of selecting language learning materials needs to be encultured and re-adjusted to particularise learners' actual learning desires and capabilities in different educational districts, thereby offsetting the deficit from over-dependency on the ready-produced course book resources (Morton, 2013).

Currently, it is not surprising to find out that using a sociolinguistic perspective to choose and design content sources and learning tasks for EFL textbooks is favoured by more non-English speaking Asian countries, such as China and Vietnam. One reason for this is that it is productive to cultivate the learners' communicative competencies through being exposed to such tangible learning and using experiences of the target language accompanied by its adapted culture within those learners' own cultural circles (Yuan, Tangen, Mills & Lidstone, 2015; Dang & Seals, 2018). Therefore, one purpose in adopting various sociolinguistic activities as the learning content sources is to encourage the authenticity of knowledge to be delivered in the classroom, which is acceptable and suitable for those second language learners with the diversified sociocultural and linguistic characteristics (van Compernelle, 2016).

Being grounded in such perceptions, the authenticity of language learning materials has a tendency to be regarded as being contextually utilised by conducting corresponding daily localised practices in L2 classrooms (Diao, 2016; van Compernelle & McGregor, 2016). Sociolinguistic activities engender authenticity in the following two ways. Firstly, "sociolinguistic agency" (p. 63) is reconciled by a learner's existing knowledge concerning the perceptible constructs of meaningful linguistic terms in a particular community, namely the authenticity of linguistic relevance and cultural appropriateness (van Compernelle, 2016). Secondly, it is facilitated by a learner's insight to deliberately generate meanings in the course of carrying out those real and existing sociolinguistic activities in that community, being reflected in the formation of authenticity (van Compernelle, 2016).

Correspondingly, considering sociolinguistics as a bond which associates various social practices with real linguistic forms and usages, language educators and researchers have transferred their attention on making second language teaching more focused on learners' daily sociolinguistic activities for producing authentic learning materials and textbook resources to cater for their differentiated needs. As Abrams and Schiestl (2017) criticised, the absence of authentic instructional stuff for constructing German curricula failed to achieve the purpose of

situation-based application of the learnt knowledge for American students. Such a concern was engendered from the gap between the existing standardised German textbooks in the U.S., and the special deviations the students adapted from their real-life L2 learning experiences. Meanwhile, Allehyani, Burnapp and Wilson (2017) investigated several Saudi Arabian English educators' responses and awareness towards selecting and utilising materials for teaching EFL from their nationalised textbooks, instead of from authentic learning resources. The study found that these practitioners of English teaching strongly held a positive attitude to employing such authenticity-based learning material in relation to local students' cultural preferences, thus enhancing their interactive proficiency in daily life. Similarly, Castillo Losada, Insuasty, and Jaime Osorio (2017) identified the major functions and influences of using authentic learning materials and tasks on students' academic achievements and teachers' professional enactments. On the one hand, in terms of the students' learning benefits, they were naturally endowed with more opportunities for concrete contact with target language through being involved in contextualised learning activities in class, as their learning interest and eagerness were sustained regardless of whether the learners had low or high levels of language capability. On the other hand, as English language teachers their courses were equipped with a certain cultural and linguistic richness, and their practical teaching experiences were enriched, even though they needed to spend extra time deciding on the authenticity and appropriateness of those potential teaching content sources, and transferring those elements to the process of course implementation. Enhancing the linguistic learnability of content sources for language curriculum called for well-selected authentic resources with cultural appropriateness. For instance, it has also been argued that such genuine learning material can broaden and deepen language learners' exposure to and understanding of real-life linguistic and sociocultural features from the target language community (Ahmed, 2017). In doing so, it would not only improve students' communicative skills in real contexts to serve a specific purpose, but also enable them to discover more novel linguistic expressions through performing those authenticity-oriented learning activities in the target language (Ozverir, Osam & Herrington, 2017).

Accordingly, seeking sociolinguistic activities-based instruction content becomes the priority when making Chinese language education available worldwide, which goes beyond the conventional textbooks whose designs are based on the native Chinese learners' needs and particularities (Duff et al., 2013). This main concern is linked to Pennycook's notion (2010) that language is the embodiment of social practice, thereby facilitating the production of

teaching and learning resources from daily situated sociolinguistic activities. Likewise, in order to make Chinese learnable for Australian local school children, Singh and Han (2014) proposed a novel perspective: to make full use of their daily recurrent sociolinguistic activities in school as a ‘mediator’ to construct suitable Chinese learning content and instruction strategies, that can transfer these learners’ existing linguistic knowledge from English used for conducting those Australian culture-oriented activities, to their learning of Chinese.

The teaching of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) for beginning learners has encountered similar issues and challenges across many countries. In Australia in particular, the first big challenges were two teacher-based factors. Firstly, the native Chinese speaking teachers in Australia were fettered by their obsolete teaching concepts and methods, thus losing sight of developing the local students’ communicative competencies during the process of teaching Chinese (Prescott & Orton, 2012). Secondly, those Chinese teachers were unwilling to understand the local students’ real learning expectations and abilities concerning Chinese language and culture in the new era, and were unable to accommodate their learning styles and habits in the local educational environment, leading to the high levels of student frustration and dropout rates in learning Chinese in Australia (Orton, 2008; Orton, 2013). To resolve such problems and alleviate the burdens of teaching and learning Chinese in Australia, Orton (2016) recommended “teaching substantive content such as Science in Chinese using an immersion approach” (p. 374) to make Chinese sustainable for the local students’ further learning in high schools and universities. Further, Orton suggested that the “genuine language courses” (p. 374) which were suitable and accessible for students of different ages should be implemented in the local Chinese language classrooms, to utilise the localised learning resources based on being mutually negotiated and produced among teachers and learners (Orton, 2016).

Similarly, in the UK, no matter whether the students were pupils in schools or adult learners in universities, both met with difficult situations in learning Chinese as a foreign language, as mentioned by Zhang and Li (2009; 2010). They contended that “a major problem with Chinese is that no adequate syllabus has been set up which meets the needs and objectives of overall curriculum requirements as well as reflecting how L1 English speakers learn Chinese” (Zhang & Li, 2010, p. 92). A prevailing concern of Chinese language teaching is how to incorporate the applicability of the learnt contents into the local students’ daily real-life activities (Zhang & Li, 2010). To deal with such common issues in learning Chinese in the UK, Zhang and Li (2010) proposed that “attention should also be paid to the contents of such a syllabus and the

essential characteristics of the cognitive process of English speakers learning Chinese”, apart from realising “vital differences between Chinese and other modern European languages both linguistically and pragmatically” (p. 96). Hence, in terms of the linguistic learnability and cultural appropriateness, it is anticipated that a variety of textbooks for CFL can be designed from the learners’ perspective in order to produce tailored Chinese learning resources (Zhang & Li, 2010; Orton, 2016).

2.2.3 Summary

Learning content plays a dominant role in the process of constructing a curriculum for Chinese language education, especially in crafting the appropriate Chinese textbooks from the perspective of Australian school students (Moloney & Xu, 2015b; Scrimgeour, Foster & Mao, 2013). Also, to promote more fruitful learning outcomes of Chinese within the Australian sociocultural environment, it is necessary for the native Chinese teachers to recognise the local school students’ preferences and habits towards the instruction content and methods in mastering Chinese through engaging in intercultural awareness regarding choices of proper pedagogy (Moloney, 2013; Moloney & Xu, 2015a). As already mentioned, in terms of cultivating the learners’ communicative competencies, language educators prefer to start with the sociolinguistic perspective to explore, discover and generate learning content from the learners’ daily authentic activities, especially when teaching English as a second language in the classroom.

Nevertheless, there exists little literature concerning how the authentic learning materials from those localised sociolinguistic practices of the beginning Chinese learners contribute to the formation of appropriate and learnable textbook resources for Chinese language curricula. Therefore, the sociolinguistic activities-based approach is seen as both a trend and an antidote, which can be conducive to repositioning learning content sources of curriculum construction for Chinese language teaching in the Australian educational environment. In addition, it is contributory to re-shaping the local school students’ identities due to the prioritised role of deciding on their favoured learning topics from familiar and age-proper sociolinguistic activities. That is to say, the students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities provide the lens for directing Chinese curriculum construction located in the Australian sociocultural context, with regard to what constitutes the local students’ expected and desired learning content and instruction styles that can maintain their interest, as well as boost their sense of achievement in learning Chinese.

In order to make such learning resources from the students' everyday recurrent sociolinguistic happenings entirely deployable for their learning of Chinese, the literature regarding the corresponding teaching methods and strategies that are popular among the young learners, and which cater to their learning habits and styles, are going to be illustrated and elucidated upon in section 2.3, namely as to how they can better teach the local children Chinese within the school-based community.

2.3 Student-Centred Pedagogy as a 'Remedy' for Knowing the Australian Local School Students

Teachers tend to choose what to teach based on students' interests and their existing knowledge when adopting the student-centred pedagogy in language teaching (Nunan, 1988). It is crucial for language instructors to regard their students as intellectuals and seriously take their prior learning experiences into consideration (Graff, 2001). Consequently, student-centred pedagogy provides learners with collective, supportive learning opportunities which will allow them to actively engage in the language classroom (Mahendra, Bayles, Tomoeda & Kim, 2005). Furthermore, as Lindquist indicates (2010) knowing students means not only understanding their literacy learning experiences, but also being able to conjecture what is in jeopardy for them during the process of making different pedagogical connections. Accordingly, the student-centred pedagogy is beneficial for the mutual generation of learning content, as well as choosing appropriate teaching methods when students are being situated in such tailored and compatible learning environments.

From the perspective of student-centred pedagogy, students themselves, not lecturers, play an important role in designing an engaging framework and creating individual learning modules. Meanwhile, students regard themselves as active mediators in constructing a portrayal of their expected learning content for curricula, which promotes the co-production of course content and course organisation (Orr, Yorke & Blair, 2014). In student-centred pedagogy, the teacher is regarded as a facilitator for students' exploration of unknown knowledge. It is anticipated that the facilitator will pinpoint students' existing capacities so that supportive learning opportunities will be available for them in class (Altinyelken, 2011). That is to say, when it comes to the impacts of student-centred pedagogy on innovative classroom practices, the pedagogy is endowed with new features and approaches that enable students to enjoy their learning in the form of some entertaining activities, such as drawing, singing, drama

performing and game playing (Altinyelken, 2011). As a result, ‘knowing the students’ will make their ideas transparent, rather than make their ideas ‘buried treasure’. This type of information can not only help teachers discover the core suppositions which commonly exist in their students’ demands and thoughts, but also assist teachers to select learning tasks and design learning activities that are, to a large extent, suitable for diverse students (Smith, 2000). Therefore, student-centred pedagogy, as a tour guide, leads the Chinese teacher-researcher to have a better understanding of the Australian students, including their preferred instruction strategies and methods in mastering Chinese in the local school-based community. Then, such learner-directed instruction strategies developed from the student-centred pedagogy are to be adjusted and adapted to suit the Australian local school students’ learning styles, as well as to justify their effectiveness in making Chinese learnable for the students within the local educational system and environment. The following section reviews those popular instruction methods and learning activities, ranging from interactive activities to the advanced technology that can be utilised as teaching tactics.

2.3.1 Use of Interactive Activities

During the teacher-researcher’s teaching period, the most commonly used interactive activities included role-play, game-based and drama performing-related learning activities, to engage the local students in learning Chinese for the purpose of triggering their bodily-kinesthetic intelligence and verbal-linguistic intelligence in class. Accordingly, this section will shed light on the ability of such learner-directed instruction styles to make Chinese learnable.

Initially, the role-play learning activities are regarded as an engaging way to make students’ active learning happen effectively in the classroom (DeNeve & Heppner, 1997). Engrossed by their power to encourage students to learn a second language in a low-anxiety and relaxing manner, role-play-based in-class interactive activities are employed by many language educators, and are put into language teaching programs around the world, especially for EFL education. For instance, as noted by Krebt (2017), the role-play is a powerful strategy for facilitating EFL learners’ oral abilities in the form of being interactive with peers in class. Meanwhile, role-play tactics help to create a stimulating learning space, inspiring learners to be involved in daily contact with the target language (English) from the perspective of a new identity.

Role-play has also been used in a study to enhance EFL learners' understandings of English idioms through the performing of dialogues in class (Moslehi & Rahimy, 2018). In that study, 30 male and female students at an intermediate level at the Iranian Institute were chosen as the participants. They were separated into two groups, namely one experimental group (role-play via dialogues) and one control group (written practice). It was found that the enactment of role-play techniques in EFL classrooms both equips the learners with a kind of contextualised learning opportunity to attain English idiomatic knowledge in a pleasant learning environment. In doing so, that interactive and collaborative learning style contributed by role-play reduces the boredom and difficulty in mastering the English idiomatic expressions which are inherent in the conventional teacher-directed instruction method.

Nevertheless, the role-play teaching strategy encounters a certain criticism in terms of the influence of its format on academic achievement. Such as, Stevens (2015) contends that role-play tends not to be as productive as anticipated for the weak or unprepared students in the class. Accordingly, a study of 144 students selected from a history course was conducted to recognise the effectiveness of role-play in their learning of historical information. A majority of participants voiced the opinion that the collaborative learning style of role-play is worthwhile for enhancing their joy and interest in obtaining historical knowledge by way of acting as the 'oral history narrator' in class, while a minority of them said that such an in-class task does bring about some learning difficulties, particularly when desiring to express themselves about some contentious standpoints. This suggests that this Chinese teacher-researcher would benefit from prioritising the arrangements and the categories of preliminary instructional material adopted for such role-plays, and provide more instructional preparation, to fully stimulate the Australian local school students' active learning in Chinese classes.

Furthermore, the integration of role-play into drama performing has also been popularised as an engaging teaching activity among language educators and practitioners to improve the learners' spoken performance and proficiency in second language learning. Nguyen and Do (2017) employed a descriptive research design in combination with the semi-structured interview method to have a better understanding of the freshmen's attitudes towards utilising drama-oriented role-play activities to strengthen their spoken capability in learning English. After a period of experiencing such instruction in their English speaking course, the participants' responses showed that they preferred to choose the drama-based improvisational role-play directed mode rather than the scripted role-plays. The usefulness of drama-oriented

role-play activities lies in improving their English oral accuracy and boosting their self-confidence in practising spoken English in the form of peer-to-peer interaction and performing the given roles, thereby inspiring them to apply their English vocabulary, grammatical knowledge and pragmatic competence developed from these communicative conversations in class to those authentic contexts of their daily lives after class. This is similar to research by Atas (2015), which focused on using drama-related teaching techniques to reduce EFL learners' speaking anxiety with the adoption of pre and post-tests, semi-structured pre and post interviews, as well as student diaries among a group of 24, Grade 12 students at a high school in Kozan, Turkey. Their learning achievements from six weeks of language and drama training showed that the use of drama in the EFL classroom was conducive to bettering the learners' positive responses, as it alleviated their anxiety about making 'slip of the tongue' mistakes when practising speaking English in class.

A story-based drama guided practice has been adopted as a strategy for reducing the difficulty encountered in teaching second language to children who have various English learning backgrounds. Such a study was performed by Chang and Winston (2014) in a public primary school, located in the northern part of Taiwan among 16 girls and 16 boys of Year 5, aged between 11 and 12. After familiarising them with the story of *Little Red Riding Hood*, as well as acting out the assigned characters over an eight-week teaching period, the young English learners stated that the story-based drama performing does contribute to comprehensively advancing their English language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. More importantly, in such exercises many 'silent' students gradually become the 'active' participants through being involved in such physically and mentally collaborative and interactive activities, as they are supplied with many occasions to watch and react to those non-verbal features of language that are otherwise habitually ignored in language class.

Role-play activity and drama-oriented role-play activity are by their very nature interactive and collaborative in learning style, and have demonstrated their popularity and effectiveness in enhancing language communicative ability for both adult and young EFL learners. Such instructional practices are also beneficial for establishing a stress-away and playful learning space for language learners who may have diverse learning styles. Likewise, the game-based role-play learning activity is also an indispensable element for language classrooms, and engages different kinds of learners in mastering abstract language knowledge in a tangle and enjoyable way. Jensen's (2017) research is a good example, in which 107 children (49 were

aged 8; 58 were aged 10) from seven classes of five schools in Denmark were selected as the participants for the study. The main data sources were the habits of the children in utilising the Extramural English (EE) program after class, and a one-week students' self-report on language learning practices under the guidance of their parents. The results confirmed that the games used in relation to learning English significantly improved the Danish children's understanding and remembering of the English vocabulary due to their daily exposure to both spoken and written English in Gaming Extramural English (GEE). Such a study resonates with Cheep-Aranai, Reinders and Wasanasomsithi's (2015) point of view that game-playing-oriented language learning, at its very essence, empowers children to "transfer skills and knowledge to solve problems, discover and analyse ongoing processes to develop language skills and strategies physically, cognitively, emotionally and socially" (pp. 142-143). Accordingly, the application of gaming-related instructional practice into language learning enables learners to implicitly communicate their learning experiences with peers in the form of mentally creative and physically enjoyable activities, progressively obtaining pragmalinguistic competence.

In summary, incorporating interactive activities, such as role-play, drama performing and game playing into Chinese language teaching, tends to maximise the benefits of learner-directed instruction styles among the Australian local school students. By doing so, they are likely to engage in learning Chinese emotionally and physically. Such learning activities can offer a range of learning modules and opportunities to accommodate the diverse personalities of learners within a Chinese class. It also enables students with different levels of Chinese proficiency, such as the 'language expert', the 'supporter/helper', or even the 'silent watcher' to collaborate with each other in teamwork on an equal basis. However, given the very nature of role-play, drama-oriented and gaming-related activities, their degree of difficulty and flexibility, as well as their connection to the corresponding Chinese learning content and the practicality of the available teaching resources, must necessarily be taken into account when designing and applying them to the local Chinese language classroom.

2.3.2 Employment of Drawing

This section looks at the literature pertinent to the practical use of the drawing approach, showing that such a method has been of interest and value for both the researchers as an engaging instrument, and the language educators as an effective instruction strategy, to elucidate some social phenomena and problems, as well as to better understand the students'

behaviours and academic attainments. This section discusses research concerning the use of drawing as a visualised research tool, and its application to the field of language education.

Eldén (2013) adapted students' in-class 'draw-your-day' samples as the interview technique to research the practices and relationships of care in Sweden through hearing the children's voices. She asserts that visual methods, such as drawing are always highly valuable, particularly being the ideal vehicle to conduct children-related studies and look into the 'taken-for-granted' matters in daily lives. Likewise, Literat (2013) advocates the employment of participatory drawing as a visual tool for researching with adolescents. Pictorial power is mainly useful in providing an enjoyable style of self-evaluation for young pupils, thereby visualising their learning achievements in a playful mode. However, it is debatable whether "the participant-generated drawings are always a product of the individual's particular cultural background, and thus resist a culturally neutral interpretation" (Literat, 2013, p. 94). As a result, to mitigate such pitfalls it is suggested that other research methods should be combined into the participatory drawing instrument as a triangulation mechanism. Furthermore, Papandreou (2014) remarks that the children's drawing can be used as a meaning-making activity for particular sociocultural symbols. These three cases prove, on the one hand, that drawing helps to strengthen children's thinking and communicating abilities in combination with other forms of expression through generating, transforming and deciphering symbols, meanings and different semiotic encounters. On the other hand, drawing, by its very nature, is conducive to helping young learners to revisit and build on their prior learning practices, thus mastering new knowledge in a symbolic-descriptive style.

Another aspect of the use of drawing lies in its influential impetus on students' academic achievements, especially for their second language learning. For example, Ranjbar (2016) identifies the power of pictorial teaching techniques in enhancing writing proficiency of EFL learners. An empirical study was carried out by Ranjbar (2016) in combination with the use of a placement test, the pre-test and post-test of writings, as well as interviews among the 36 chosen intermediate learners from a language college in Bandar Abbas, being divided into two groups, namely the experimental group (n=18) and the control group (n=18). Results indicated that the utilisation of figurative instruments enabled the middle-level students to advance their academic performance in English writing. Hence, such learner-created sketches that lead to visual interpretations can effectively support students' attainment of meaning and form regarding L2 writing. Similarly, Gidoni and Rajuan (2018) deepened their previous study in

2014 via enacting and re-shaping the drawing-based learning tasks as an artistic form of instruction for the young EFL learners in class. Not only were the students' enthusiasm and involvement in the EFL courses facilitated, but also their understanding and retention of the learnt language knowledge were enhanced in terms of the emotional and educational factors inherent in such graphic learning activities. Purkarthofer (2018) collected children's drawings from a bilingual school in Austria where Slovene and German are used as the languages of instruction. Purkarthofer argued that these pictorial materials are the embodiments of the children's diverse lived language practices that can be meaningful for the Austrian schools, as they construct heteroglossic spaces for their multilingual education in a holistic way. Consequently, children's drawing works as the bond to better understand the students', parents' and teachers' real views and expectations towards the planned language regimes within the school-based community, based on their mutual construction of the social spaces and language practices pertinent to the essentials of children's schooling.

In summary, the inclusiveness of drawing-assisted instruction style lies in its transmitting language information via a visual impact for the learners and acting as a communicative tool for researchers. Consequently, integrating the Australian local children's instinctive drawing competency to better their performance in learning of Chinese is worth being exploited and extended to the teacher-researcher's daily teaching practices. By doing so, the Australian school students are more likely to enjoy their self-directed learning experiences in the Chinese language classroom, progressively boosting their interest and eventually increasing Chinese learnability for them in the local environment.

2.3.3 Utilisation of Music through Enacting the CLIL

Music plays an influential role in facilitating children's acquisition of literacy skills in early learning stages, as the engaging sounds and cadenced notes are helpful in constructing a co-communicating learning community where inclusive instruction tactics can be employed to boost their knowledge development through music intervention (Tomlinson, 2013). In particular, considering the benefits of music for enhancing students' confidence and learning efficacy, music-based teaching pedagogy is favoured by global language educators and researchers. For instance, Ludke, Ferreira & Overy (2014) carried out an experiment among 60 adult subjects to examine their oral memorisation abilities in mastering a Hungarian language. It was revealed that their immediate learning achievement was improved by the influence of music.

Alternatively, music can work as a ‘mediator’ in connection with other different subjects, such as Art, Maths, Science and Languages with the help of novel technologies, such as computers and multimedia in the classroom. In order to verify the effectiveness of such applications to enhance students’ learning autonomy in elementary education, de Cruz Cabanillas and Bedia (2013) investigated a group of students from Year 6 in a primary school through adopting the methodology of action research. It was demonstrated that intervening with musical rhythms and ICT enabled the students to express their comprehension of the learnt knowledge of Science more clearly, ultimately improving their learning attitude, performance and achievements in Science. Similarly, Ludovico and Zambelli (2016) focused on children’s early language education to test the efficacy of integrating music-based pedagogy into the content learning of second languages by establishing a computer-assisted learning space in class. Their research indicates that utilising the melodic elements together with the multimedia tools is a communicative approach which engages the young language learners in the learning content with an instructional style which is enjoyable and relaxed for a classroom setting. Viladot et al. (2018) noted that music also acts as a decisive bridge in promoting transnational education cooperation. They observed that Spain and the UK reached a consensus concerning a cross-curricular program through strong collaboration between the music experts in Catalonia and the mathematics professionals in England, ultimately achieving the transmission of intellectual resources needed by, and of benefit to, each country. Hence, such cooperative projects can inspire the education practitioners from these and other countries to develop integrated pedagogical approaches, based on musical and mathematical teaching tenets, which can cater for pupils from various countries during their early and primary schooling.

Employing music-related learning activities in language classrooms has often demonstrated outstanding learning results. Ludke (2016) explored how song-based activities, together with drama-related activities, can influence native English teenagers’ French learning through conducting a 6-week practical teaching and classroom observation. The findings showed that students’ overall marks were significantly improved, based on their curriculum-based language test, with the support of a singing-based pedagogy accompanied by a visual art-based intervention. In terms of using music to enhance adult learners’ memorisation of the newly-learnt vocabulary, it is contended that only song lyrics from familiar tunes have the power to promote extensive learning by means of subsequent lexicon combinations (Tamminen, Rastle, Darby, Lucas & Williamson, 2017).

Consequently, the music content and form become another focus when selecting music as a potential learning resource for language teaching. One genre is nursery rhymes, especially for language learning by young beginners. By being exposed to nursery rhymes repeatedly, language learners interact with the linguistic messages from such memorable and attractive tunes, thereby cultivating their various language competencies, such as listening and speaking at a basic level (Pourkalthor & Tavakoli, 2017). Likewise, the spoken song genre known as Rap is currently a popular music style that is frequently used in language classrooms. As noted by Segal (2014), Rap music can supply learning materials for the English curriculum in regard to its grammatical, lexical and pragmatic perspectives, and as a culturally-inclusive learning activity. This is especially so for the adolescent learners who show great interest in popular music genres during their leisure time, such as Rap, which can help to build a stress-free and appealing atmosphere in class.

In view of the popularity and benefits of applying music-based pedagogy to the field of teaching English as a second language to beginning learners, it is often favoured among Chinese teachers and educators. In particular, more and more native speakers who are beginning or pre-service Chinese teachers prefer to employ music as an engaging strategy to teach beginning learners of Chinese. Zhu (2017) and Xie (2017), two Chinese volunteer teachers from the ROSETE Program, separately conducted action research to justify the impact and efficacy of utilising the catchy cadences of songs to teach some beginning Chinese expressions, and incorporated Chinese songs into the task-based language learning to enhance the learnability of Chinese by students of Australian local primary and secondary schools.

Music-based CLIL pedagogy works as a powerful strategy in terms of improving learners' academic outcomes and enhancing their self-directed learning proficiencies, being widely adopted for second language teaching and learning globally. It is being regularly applied to the field of teaching Chinese as a second language (CSL), manifesting its practicality and significance for making Chinese learnable for more beginning learners. Therefore, the effectiveness and popularity of the music-related pedagogical approaches, in cooperation with the CLIL strategy, will be tested and reinforced in this study as well.

2.3.4 Application of Advanced Computer Technology

The wonders of modern global technology are allowing more and more educators and practitioners attempt to apply advanced technology to the classroom, particularly to language

learning courses, given its convenience and efficacy in engaging students of different levels and characteristics in class, as well as producing learner-directed curriculum content. Zhang (2005) conducted two discrete lab experiments to evaluate the potential impact of collaborative e-learning space on adult students' learning satisfaction and outcomes. In this study, two groups of different subjects, with a total number of 155 undergraduates, were recruited to participate in such lab experiments, during which an interactive e-Classroom subsystem in LBA was employed to construct an e-learning environment. The results indicated that the learners' academic performance and satisfaction were more significantly improved by the interactive e-learning situation than they were for the students who were in the traditionally teacher-directed situation. The multimedia-based e-classroom can achieve more effective contact between the learners and the content, when student-centred instruction activities are employed. From the perspective of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), Hubbard (2013) also performed a study regarding how to make technology-based learning environments enhance students' language learning. Hubbard (2013) contended that "learner training" (p. 163) becomes a crucial issue when advanced technology is employed as a valuable teaching strategy in increasing students' learning efficacy and achievement in the language learning space. However, Ting (2015) believes that nowadays students are born with the ability to use diverse ICT-related devices due to their frequent exposures to them in daily lives. Such students' extracurricular digitalised learning experiences cultivate their autonomous competence for mastering the school courses through adopting the negotiated learning style. Precisely speaking, when encountering learning difficulties, learners prefer to help themselves out via employing their familiar web-based learning resources in the form of knowledge co-construction and collaboration with other peers online.

Meanwhile, mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is currently being paid more attention by language educators, especially the wide utilisation of tablet computers in language classrooms due to their portability and flexibility. Chen (2013) designed and implemented a two-cycle action research to look into the students' regular use of tablets for conducting extracurricular English-related learning activities, as well as for developing their self-regulating and cooperative learning ability. Chen's research suggested that tablet computers can be used as effective learning tools in terms of establishing a communicative and inclusive learning atmosphere, on condition that the support and provision of such advanced technology devices has been made comprehensively accessible to learners. Similarly, Mango (2015) carried out an investigation of student attitudes towards the effect of using iPads on their class

performance and academic attainments in learning Arabic as a foreign language. Questionnaires, as the research instrument, completed by 35 undergraduate students from a university in the Southwest of the US, revealed an overall consistency in relation to the powerful function of employing iPads not to facilitate their active and collaborative language learning in class, but to lay a solid foundation for their further learning.

Under the influence of the rapid development of technology, several ensuing by-products have emerged, such as the distant learning programs and the e-learning materials that supply diverse learners with more opportunities for obtaining knowledge in a way that is mutually communicative and constructive, thus equipping instructors of different subjects with innovative pedagogical concepts and practical teaching approaches which are technology-based. For example, Zacharis (2011) intended to identify the impact of the choices of forms of knowledge provision, namely the web-based learning style or the real classroom-based learning mode, on students' academic performance. Even though there were no significant variances between the two groups of students after comparing the learning outcomes of the two groups (online group and on-campus group) of first year college students majoring in computer science, it is recommended that educators should acquire a better understanding of the pupils' learning styles, no matter whether they prefer online learning or in-class learning, because that can help teachers select and enrich the learning topics and tasks to suit more learners in terms of constructing the web-based curriculum. Furthermore, Gu, Wu and Xu (2015) together worked on a project for designing, improving and utilising e-textbooks. They focused on the content analysis through categorising the key themes from 53 empirical studies, explaining that the e-textbooks as the content learning sources encounter some criticisms in the early development stage, while e-format learning materials are favourable due to the effectiveness and accessibility in support of students' learning.

Apart from the above-mentioned advanced technology being used for educational purposes, there are two other current focuses in teaching Chinese as a second language among the English-speaking countries of the world. On the one hand is the designing of technology-mediated learning materials for Chinese language teaching. On the other hand, as a consequence, the pedagogical choices for CFL are being reshaped to develop the technology-based learning space in the Chinese language classroom. Kubler (2018) argues that researching and practising a series of technology-facilitated learning materials is meaningful in constructing an educationally powerful curriculum for students learning Chinese from a

distance. Learners can experience communicating with the native instructors of Chinese through interacting with more online learning activities after class, progressively improving their communicative ability in Chinese. Thus, it is argued that technology, as a medium, should be promoted by virtue of the expected academic benefits it should bring to developing learning content and effective instruction strategies, not the other way around (Kubler, 2011).

Another innovative route for applying advanced technology to the field of global Chinese language education lies in establishing the ‘Connected Classroom’, being entirely different from the conventionalised web-based learning programs. In a case study conducted by Lu (2014), a Chinese volunteer teacher in an Australian local school employed data sources from her self-reflection journals, together with the mentor’s lesson feedback, as well as interviews with classroom teachers and corresponding questionnaires completed by student participants. In this study, she proposed the notion of technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) through establishing and adapting ‘Connected Classroom’ for the Chinese courses in the local Chinese classroom, which is based on the initial investigation of the relationship between pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and cross socio-linguistic interaction (CSLI). The research results suggested that adapting the zoom-based learning devices to create a ‘Connected Classroom’ for teaching the Chinese language curriculum can not just engage the students from this local school in learning Chinese, but also provide more learning opportunities for those distant learners in Australia. Lu (2014) pointed out some existing difficulties and challenges, which included the technological knowledge required, and installing and using the video-conferencing kits, “Bridgit” and “Smartboard”. A similar study was carried out by Osipov, Volinsky and Prasikova (2016) to look into employing a creative peer-to-peer network entitled *i2istudy* for sharing learning resources with native speakers to practise foreign languages. Particularly, it is worth mentioning that some samples of Chinese language classes were included as a package in this mechanism to make educational materials available to more learners worldwide, for the purpose of realising easy communication with native speakers through the real-situation audio-visual affordances. iPads and tablets have clearly made it more convenient for Chinese teachers to utilise such advanced technology to construct an e-learning environment where beginning learners can easily engage themselves.

In summary, the utilisation of advanced technology for constructing a student-centred curriculum of Chinese language teaching is embodied through three dimensions, namely facilitating the learner’s independence, developing the technology-enhanced learning materials,

as well as establishing the engaging e-learning space. At the same time, it is clear that applying such advanced technology-related learning and teaching tools as iPads and Tablets to Chinese courses is beneficial for both the local learners and the distant global learners. That is to say, technology-mediated language learning works as a novel mechanism for effecting knowledge transfer from instructors to learners or from learners to learners. This equips the Chinese teacher-researcher with such awareness and inspiration to make it possible to integrate this technology into his daily Chinese teaching practices in terms of choosing popular learning styles and suitable teaching methods for the Australian school students. Nonetheless, it is stressed that “the use of technology should not be seen as a panacea, or a goal in and of itself, but rather as one means to support specific learning goals” (Chun, Kern & Smith, 2016, p. 77). Accordingly, two factors must be taken into consideration to effectively immerse innovative technology into Chinese language education-related practices. One factor is that the diversity of beginning learners of Chinese directly leads to their multiple learning needs and purposes, as well as learning aptitudes. Another factor is that the meaningful teaching and learning process heavily depends on appropriate learning content and favoured teaching strategies, otherwise technology tends not to be as powerful as expected.

2.3.5 Summary

Obviously, under the influence of student-centred pedagogy, language teachers, educators, practitioners and researchers are willing to apply role-play, drama acting, game playing, drawing, singing, as well as advanced technology to the field of teaching English as a second language to beginning English learners around the world, for the dominant purpose of enhancing their communicative competence, as well as maintaining their interest in further language study in the future. Also, such teaching strategies and methods can trigger learners’ four leading intelligences (Howard, 1983), namely the bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, the visual-spatial intelligence, the musical-rhythmic intelligence and the verbal-linguistic intelligence, that help to engage them both physically and emotionally in the ESL/EFL classroom. Nonetheless, there is limited research on using such instruction styles to engage the beginning learners of Chinese, particularly for children’s Chinese learning. Therefore, student-centred teaching methods and learner-directed practices are currently the mostly preferred approaches used by ESL/EFL learners and teachers worldwide, and it is anticipated that this will be the approach for those teaching Chinese to Australian students. The potential efficacy

and practicality of these approaches are to be manifested in Chapter 6, based on the feedback from the Chinese teacher-researcher's daily teaching practices.

2.4 Conclusion

Role-play, drama, games, drawing, music and advanced technology aimed at facilitating peer-to-peer interaction definitely provide some hints for making Chinese learnable for the Australian local school students and in accommodating their learning styles. Chinese volunteer teachers are already employing them in their real teaching practices as sources and starting points when designing the in-class learning tasks and activities for bettering their Chinese language teaching for children with Australian cultural and educational backgrounds, thus enhancing the learnability of Chinese for them. This undoubtedly offers the Chinese teacher-researcher some insights in regard to selecting and developing sound learner-directed instruction strategies for constructing the student-centred curriculum of Chinese language learning.

CHAPTER 3

THEORISING LOCALISED, STUDENT-CENTRED CHINESE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION: A THEORETIC-PEDAGOGICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

This chapter mainly focuses on constructing a theoretic-pedagogical framework to investigate Australian students' various embodiments of their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities that they perform in English, and their preferred learning habits in the school-based community for developing a localised, learnable and student-centred Chinese curriculum in the local education milieu. On the one hand, this research project is targeted at making Chinese a localised language for the Australian local school students through observing and noting the everyday regularly happenings from their familiar situations. On the other hand, to make full use of the localised learning resources, it aims to discover and adapt appropriate instruction strategies from the students' perspectives to further improve the learnability of Chinese in the local context. In doing so, the process for converging conceptual constructs begins with paying heed to Pennycook's (2010) notion of 'language as a local practice' for looking at second language teaching and learning (used here to refer to teaching Chinese as a second language to emergent language learners) from an alternative perspective, namely transferring our understanding of language from being a static entity to being a dynamic process (e.g. languaging and translanguaging). Following such a shift, flexible and ecological pedagogy approaches are employed in Chinese language teaching, including creating situated language learning for effecting the students' legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) in the learning community of Chinese language practices based on their localised social practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In this way, the students' agency is mobilised to possess the authority to decide on their favoured learning topics and favoured learning styles within a mutually and equally dialogic structure for knowledge co-production in Chinese classes. Afterwards, the learnable and valuable Chinese resources are anticipated to be shared among more emergent second language learners of Chinese from wider learning communities of Chinese language practices around the world. Accordingly, creating an intellectual hybrid space for resource sharing is proposed, which is necessarily being enacted and achieved with the help of advanced technology in a network-based learning environment in a virtual dialogic manner. Meanwhile, the concept of 'funds of knowledge' (González, Moll & Amanti, 2005) is brought to this study to better

explain the various forms of the local students' knowledge which have been observed in this local school-based community, such as their prior knowledge, existing knowledge and powerful knowledge, which are fully utilised for making Chinese learnable in terms of constructing such localised and student-centred curriculum. Therefore, taking the above-mentioned into consideration, the significance of the generated theoretic-pedagogical framework lies not only in informing the Chinese teacher-researcher of the daily teaching practices, but also leading him along a guided road for the data collection and analysis, which are to be displayed throughout the evidentiary chapters. Figure 3.1 illustrates the interactive and interconnected relationship between such concepts in this theoretic-pedagogical framework.

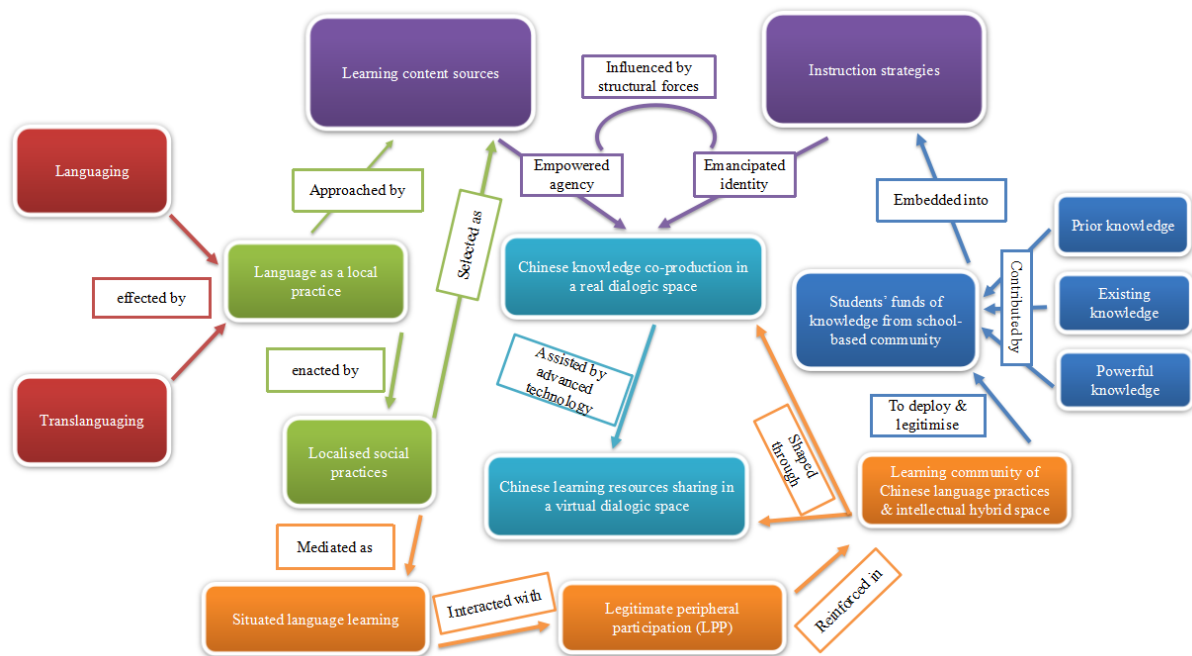


Figure 3. 1 Theoretic-Pedagogical Framework for Constructing the Localised, Student-Centred Chinese Language Curriculum (N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

3.1 Language as a Local Practice

The following section is mainly concerned with the exploration of Pennycook's (2010) notion of *language as a local practice* as the departure point to make sense of how to effect language as embodiments of multiple local practices. The consideration of such a concept is specifically located within the field of Chinese language education in the Australian school-based context.

3.1.1 Shifting from Language to Linguaging and Translanguaging

The debates between ‘language as a system of signs’ (e.g. Saussure and Chomsky), which “removes language from context of use”, as well as ‘language as action’ (e.g. Bakhtin and Vološinov), which “proposes dialogic position on language” and “acquires life in concrete verbal communication rather than the abstract linguistic system of language forms” have evolved into the corresponding arguments shifting from language to language use in reality, termed as *linguaging*, and then followed by *translanguaging* (Jørgensen, 2008; Pennycook, 2010; García & Wei, 2014, p. 7).

The notion of linguaging originally derives from the theory of autopoiesis suggested by the Chilean biologists - Humberto Maturana and Francisco Varela in 1973. They contend that human beings’ experiences make up the attainment and construction of necessary knowledge, which is attached to the enactment of those take-it-for-granted actions and practices in the real world (Maturana & Varela, 1992). In addition, according to Maturana and Varela (1992) “all doing is knowing, and all knowing is doing” (p. 26), which is further explained as follows:

It is by linguaging that the act of knowing, in the behavioural coordination which is language, brings forth a world. We work out our lives in a mutual linguistic coupling, not because language permits us to reveal ourselves but because we are constituted in language in a continuous becoming that we bring forth with others (pp. 234-235).

This implies that linguaging regards language as a dynamic process in people’s daily lives rather than as a static entity. It is presumed that “language is an everyday phenomenon which is used, constructed, and ascribed meaning in the local realities and encounters of people”, which is in turn beneficial for facilitating “further developments and communicative encounters” (Karrebæk, Madsen & Møller, 2015, p. 2). In view of that, linguaging is thereby an elaborated jargon used to characterise and “capture an ongoing process that is always being created as we interact with the world lingually” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 8). It follows that linguaging occurs as a natural phenomenon as people are intertwined in social interplay.

However, when it comes to *linguaging*, there are a few divergences according to the different fields to which it is being applied. For instance, Halliday (1985) adapts the term “linguaging” to identify “how people exchange meanings” through engaging “a semiotic system” - “a systematic resource for meaning” (p. 7) in real situations. Being such a linguistic perspective, it is assumed that linguaging becomes a medium for human beings to interpret and understand

the actual world as they enact a series of concrete activities (Lankiewicz, 2014). Additionally, in terms of languaging, linguistic features are considered as very essential constituents, as they “appear in the shape of units and regularities” that “are also associated with values, meanings, speakers, places, etc.” for the purpose of mastering a new language in real life (Jørgensen & Juffermans, as cited in Lankiewicz, 2014, p. 2). Consequently, it is claimed that “languaging is that people do not normally speak a language but rather actively employ their linguistic predisposition-languaging” (Lankiewicz, 2014, p. 2), which echoes Mignolo’s statement (1996) that “languages are conceived and languaging is practiced” (p. 181). People languaging aptitude is not necessarily dependent on the presence of Universal Grammar, as proposed by Chomsky, due to the real bond between the form and the meaning (Lankiewicz, 2014).

Languaging is a popular concept in the arena of language instruction. For example, as indicated by Swain (2005), the role of *output* in second language learning lies in its generation of the target language via *practising*, which shifts the course of meaning production from “a thing, or a product” to “an action, or a process” (p. 471). Furthermore, Swain (2006) articulates that languaging is embodied via the “coming-to-know-while-speaking phenomenon” (later termed as “talking-it-through”) that “serves as a vehicle through which thinking is articulated and transformed into an artifactual form” (p. 97). That is to say, “languaging is a process which creates a visible or audible product about which one can language further” (Swain, 2006, p. 97). At the same time, speaking of *languaging* as it occurs during the process of second language teaching and learning, its hidden worth and potential importance are explained as follows:

Languaging refers to the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language. It is part of what constitutes learning. Languaging about language is one of the ways we learn language. This means that the languaging (the dialogue or private speech) about language that learners engage in takes on new significance. In it, we can observe learners operating on linguistic data and coming to an understanding of previously less well understood material. In languaging, we see learning taking place (Swain, 2006, p. 98).

Therefore, it is stressed that language learners’ languaging, on the one hand, works as the catalyst to convey and convert their abstract linguistic mindset into a tangible practice. And on the other hand, languaging plays a positive function in promoting language learners’ generation of novel senses and understandings on L2 mastery, thereby building a bridge to connect the concrete learning experiences and the conceptualised language knowledge (Swain, 2006).

What is more, it is debatable whether “linguaging is not simply a vehicle for communication, but plays critical roles in creating, transforming, and augmenting higher mental processes” (Swain & Lapkin, 2011, p. 106). This debate concerns Vygotsky’s (1962) stance regarding the internal relationship between language and cognitive processes. As noted by Vygotsky (1962), “thought is not merely expressed in words; it comes into existence through them” (p. 125). He says that “thought undergoes many changes as it turns into speech. It does not merely find expression in speech; it finds its reality and form” (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 126). Informed by such a point of view, Smagorinsky (1998) puts forward that applying such didactic tactics as the “speech and speech-based activities” (p. 172) to language learning tends to make mental processes “articulated, transformed into an artifactual form, and then available as a source of further reflection”, because thinking enacted in the process of speaking becomes “an agent in the production of meaning” (p. 173).

Despite the fact that such an internalised mechanism happens naturally and as expected in the process of linguaging, it is worth noting that linguaging is “not just a brain dump” or “communicating” (Swain & Lapkin, 2011, p. 105). It is “an essential process inherent in positive cognitive change” (p. 106) and “adds to the meaning of communication the power of language to mediate attention, recall, and knowledge creation” (p. 107), eventually achieving thinking through linguaging (Swain & Lapkin, 2011). In summary, from the perspective of sociolinguistics, especially for second language learning, linguaging is “perceived as a continuum or more appropriately as a cline (to account for its multidimensional fractal nature, as opposed to the flatness embedded in the notion of a continuum) of meaning making resulting from the potential inscribed in linguistic systems” (Lankiewicz, 2014, p. 14).

Drawing on the notion of linguaging, translanguaging emerges as an innovative outlook and an ecological approach to second language acquisition (Leather & van Dam, 2003; van Lier, 2004). Originally, in the educational context translanguaging is identified as “a pedagogical practice where students are asked to alternate languages for the purposes of receptive or productive use” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 20). In an extended sense, translanguaging can be referred to as “both the complex language practices of plurilingual individuals and communities, as well as the pedagogical approaches that use those complex practices”, and as “the product of acting and linguaging in our highly technological globalized world” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 20). At the same time, when it comes to definitions and understanding on translanguaging, different scholars tend to have diversified views. A case in point is

Canagarajah (2011) who argues that translanguaging is the embodiment of “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (p. 401). Such an angle thus contributes to developing various instruction practices from the approaches that are formed and retained through multilingual learners’ own funds of knowledge, which are effective both for themselves and others (Canagarajah, 2011). Baker provides another perspective as the first scholar to provide a translation of *translanguaging* from the Welsh. From his perspective, translanguaging means “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages” (Baker, 2011, p. 288). Correspondingly, to distinguish the notion of *languaging* from *translanguaging*, different scholars have made various efforts to make clear sense between them. Such as García (2009) who described translanguaging as:

the language practices of bilinguals from the perspective of the users themselves, and not simply describing bilingual language use or bilingual contact from the perspective of the language itself, the language practices of bilinguals are examples of what we are here calling *translanguaging*...For us, translanguaging are *multiple discursive practices* in which bilinguals engage in order to *make sense of their bilingual worlds* (p. 45, italics added).

In addition, as informed by Wei (2011) such a phenomenon is characterised as follows:

Translanguaging is both going between different linguistic structures and systems, including different modalities (speaking, writing, signing, listening, reading, remembering) and going beyond them. It includes the full range of linguistic performances of multilingual language users for purposes that transcend the combination of structures, the alternation between systems, the transmission of information and the representation of values, identities and relationships. The act of translanguaging then is transformative in nature; it creates a social space for the multilingual language user by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment, their attitude, beliefs and ideology, their cognitive and physical capacity into one coordinated and meaningful performance, and make it into a lived experience (p. 1223).

Subsequently, for advancing the application of translanguaging to the specific classroom context, it is pointed out that “translanguaging entails using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase understanding and in order to augment the pupil’s ability in both languages” (Williams, as cited in Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012a, p. 644). Further explanation is provided:

translanguaging tries to draw on all the linguistic resources of the child to maximise understanding and achievement. Thus, both languages are

used in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b, p. 655).

More specifically, when translanguaging is introduced into language education it is confronted with such situations as dynamic bilingualism (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b). According to García (2009), in both physical and visual senses *dynamic bilingualism* suggests that learners should be equipped with “differentiated abilities and uses of multiple languages” (p. 54) in terms of language use in the new era. That phenomenon reflects “a general and holistic concept of which translanguaging is a process” (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b, p. 656). Similarly, the term *emergent bilinguals* also label the vibrant and diverse essence of students’ bilingual practices (García & Kleifgen, 2010; Sayer, 2013; Gort & Sembiante, 2015).

Given the very nature of translanguaging as it occurs in the language classroom, the corresponding teaching strategies have been put forward to fully exploit the learners’ potential bilingual competencies in meaning making. Creese and Blackledge (2010) propose a flexible bilingual pedagogy, which “adopts a translanguaging approach and is used by participants for identity performance as well as the business of language learning and teaching” (p. 112). Such a bilingual pedagogical belief highlights the synthesis of languages for teaching and learning, as opposed to the separation between them, thus integrating students’ linguistic and cultural repertoires from their daily lives (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2011; Gort & Sembiante, 2015). Accompanied by the flexible bilingual pedagogy, another perspective concerns language ecology (Leather & van Dam, 2003; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Gort & Sembiante, 2015). This perspective is primarily involved with “the study of diversity within specific socio-political settings in which the processes of language use create, reflect, and challenge particular hierarchies and hegemonies, however transient these might be” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p. 104). To be precise, ecological tactics make it possible for teacher to link students’ gained language to their mastery of novel language knowledge (van Lier, 2008).

Ecological language awareness is beneficial for creating a “panoramic space” in which “perception and action go together” by means of “sustaining a rich multisensory experience of, in and with language”, therefore “providing the conditions for emergent learning” (van Lier, 2008, pp. 54, 55). An ecological position on translanguaging not only facilitates young language learners to be creative and dynamic bilingual producers, but also inspires them to receive new information from their evolving bilingual inventories (Wells, 1986; Gort &

Sembiante, 2015). Accordingly, it is claimed that “such ecological models acknowledge that bilinguals’ languaging practices are dynamic, malleable, and influenced by naturalistic opportunities in the environment that tap into their potential to develop and use multiple languages, language varieties, and literacies” (Gort & Sembiante, 2015, p. 9).

The concept of languaging has an emphasis on the local students’ daily social practices, in particular for their learning of Chinese in the Australian context, because they are empowered to make sense of their own learning from real-world situations by virtue of being engaged in their familiar sociolinguistic activities. The notion of translanguaging as a mediated mechanism offers a flexible and ecological approach for teaching Chinese to the emergent second language learners of Chinese through enacting their emergent bilingualism and discursive language practices. These two major shifts concerning Chinese language teaching and learning in the local school-based community provide innovative visions for effecting the Chinese languaging process, and mobilising their translanguaging capabilities, by means of adopting the suitable learning content and multi-layered instruction strategies from these young Chinese learners.

3.1.2 Situated Learning

Language education has experienced a pedagogical turn from the originally static ‘language’ teaching to such dynamic learning processes as ‘languaging’, subsequently followed by ‘translanguaging’ from a flexible and ecological perspective. Meanwhile, when it comes to *language as a local practice*:

this refers not only to the ways in which language use must always be related to *place*, must always be understood in terms of its *embeddedness in locality*, but also to the ways in which any understanding of the *locality of language* must also encompass an appreciation of the *locality of perspective*, of the different ways in which *language, locality and practice* are conceived in different contexts (Pennycook, 2010, p. 4, italics added).

Such a statement provides a range of hints concerning how to transform the static language teaching into a dynamic and active learning process from two dimensions. One emphasis is placed on the specific ‘locality-place(s)’ for using language in reality. Another emphasis is attached to the ‘practice-doing(s)’ for making such language use become concrete actions in various situations.

This provides some insights for the field of Chinese language education with regard to making the learning and use of Chinese specifically located in diversified situations through the enactment of embodied social activities when considering the reclaimed place and space. Correspondingly, the following section explains various viewpoints regarding the situated learning practices.

Initially, according to Hanks (1991) situated learning focuses on “the relationship between learning and social situations in which it occurs” in order to “explore the situated character of human understanding and communication” (p. 14). It is then argued that “learning is a process that takes place in a participation framework, not in an individual mind”, which is closely tied to “actional contexts” rather than “self-contained structures” (Hanks, 1991, p. 15). That is to say, social activities can create an appropriate environment for making learning processes to happen in such actual situations from daily life, thus equipping people with certain behaviour patterns and expertise (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In addition, according to the model of *Legitimate Peripheral Participation* (LPP)⁵ the learner is treated as “a legitimate peripheral participant interacting with masterful speakers” through engaging in daily happenings (Hanks, 1991, p. 19).

Being grounded in this perspective, Chinese language learning is not simply “situated in practice - as if it were some independently reifiable process that just happened to be located somewhere”, it is also “an integral part of generative social practice in the lived-in world” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 35). As the learning process is characterised with such dynamic and authentic ‘situatedness’, to capture those re-situated social activities in the local Chinese classroom becomes the new trend in, and the main objective of Chinese language teaching and learning based on the flexible and ecological pedagogy choices in reality.

The learnt Chinese language knowledge tends to be movable and sustainable through enacting the practical legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) during the process of situated learning. It is therefore worth mentioning that the sustainability for language learning means:

⁵ Legitimate peripheral participation is mainly concerned with “the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). Specifically speaking, it refers to the process whereby “a person’s intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a sociocultural practice” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). By doing so, that “provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of knowledge and practice” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29).

reviewing past language practices to meet the needs of the present while not compromising those of future generations. Thus, the sustainability of languaging is a *new* copy of the past, a dynamic relocalization in space and time, a fertile performative mimesis that brings us to a creative emergence, a new and generative becoming (García, as cited in García & Wei, 2014, p. 72).

This also opens up the possibility of connecting the local students' daily school-based social practices to their attainment of new Chinese language knowledge in a collective and interactive manner in class, namely acquiring Chinese language by performing actions in the real social context. That eventually is beneficial for these young Chinese learners in mapping their learning process, constructing their identity, as well as maintaining their involvement in Chinese language learning when positioning themselves within the structure of legitimate peripheral participation. Therefore, the relationship between the 'newcomers' (not well-engaged learners) and 'old-timers' (language experts) in Chinese class is constructed to be supportive and collaborative, progressively developing a sustainable continuum vis-à-vis being enabled and located in the mastery and application of Chinese language knowledge in their tangible and mutual social practices, instead of in discrete personal engagement.

3.1.3 Social Practices for Languaging and Translanguaging

According to Pennycook (2010), "practices are not just things we do, but rather bundles of activities that are the central organisation of social life" (p. 2). Languaging occurs as "part of a multifaceted interplay between humans and the world" (Pennycook, 2010, p. 2). In this sense, people's doing or even singing are regarded as common practices in daily life (Pennycook, 2010). Meanwhile, the accompanying social activities from such everyday happenings that embody the languaging process (language use), as well as the situation (locality) in which they take place (Pennycook, 2010). Consequently, looking on language as a local practice (languaging process) "takes us away from a notion of language as a pre-given entity that may be used in a location", while leading us to delve into "language as part of diverse social activity" (Pennycook, 2010, p. 2).

The notion of language as a local practice guides us to look at the mediated social activities from various real-world contexts used for practising language, thus implying the internal connection between space and place for the localising (locality) of a language (Pennycook, 2010). Importantly, to be a localised process it necessarily involves local practices due to their significance in constructing locality (Pennycook, 2010). Therefore, the notions of languaging

and translanguaging help us build a direction “towards an understanding of language as a product of the embodied social practices that bring it about” (Pennycook, 2010, p. 9).

In this regard, various forms of people’s regular activities that are rooted in their everyday social practices are labelled with such locatedness to a large extent considering the specific place and space. Particularly, the Australian localised social practices from this school-based community are to be adapted as a bridge for crafting the situated language learning in Chinese class. That is to say, it not only ushers in the exploration of the dynamic and interactive process of languaging, given the diversified localities and students’ doings in such places, but also accommodates the flexible and ecological translanguaging pedagogical beliefs regarding Chinese language education as more and more bilingual or multilingual students are emerging from the local Chinese classroom. The next section sheds light on the conditions and possibilities for constructing a translanguaging space to gather and distribute such cultural and linguistic repertoires, which can be utilised as a vehicle for effecting languaging processes for Chinese language teaching and learning in a way which is mutually and equally dialogic between teacher and students.

3.2 Constructing a Translanguaging Space

As highlighted by García and Wei (2014), creating a space for performing translanguaging, especially in language education, is conducive to inviting such ecological and sustainable L2 language pedagogy into a democratic schooling structure, as students’ agency is prioritised and activated to “negotiate their linguistic and meaning-making repertoires” (p. 75). In doing so, an equal and shared dialogic space between instructors and learners is established to ensure the information is exchanged in a bilateral pattern rather than a unilateral one.

3.2.1 Negotiable Structure for Mobilising Students’ Agency

From a sociological perspective, the interrelationship between structure on the one hand, and teacher and students’ agency on the other, is a recurrent issue for educational research. Both macro-level and micro-level forces of structure and agency shape educational change (Stromquist, 2015). ‘Structure’ is the systematic configurations that can both empower and restrain individual actions, through which people appreciate how things ought to be completed, practised and systematised around those identifications and competencies that support those appreciations (Rigby, Woulfin & März, 2016). ‘Agency’ refers to “people’s ability to make

choices, to take control, self-regulate, and thereby pursue their goals as individuals leading, potentially, to personal or social transformation” (Duff, 2012, p. 417). To be exact, agency designates positioned practices, or the progressive ability of individuals to take actions (Rigby, Woulfin & März, 2016). Agency is thus a vital facet for a second language learner which can have an in-depth influence on how he/she begins to learn and interact in the target language community (Duff et al., 2013). Investigating the interaction between structure and agency is really a rewarding subject during the process of implementing government policy regarding the local second languages education, which is mainly concerned with the intricate structures, multifaceted stakeholders, as well as the necessity for enduring the development of local education (Rigby, Woulfin & März, 2016). Awareness of the integration of structure and agency ensures that teacher-researchers have better understandings of the educational policy implementation concerning language teaching and learning in the local school-based community.

Furthermore, from a sociocultural angle, the “immediate environment” (p. 100) offers students the necessary conditions for their learning in which they act as the “agent(s)” (p. 100) who have the power to “perceive, analyse, reject or accept solutions offered, make decisions” (p. 101) on their own (Swain, 2006). By doing so, this encourages second language learners to mobilise their “prior knowledge” (Swain, 2006, p. 101) for developing novel language knowledge in an emancipated learning process. Nevertheless, students can be easily regarded as ‘puppets’ who are merely operated by structural power due to their ignored agency, choices or actions through the process of exploring their learning experiences (Rind, 2016). Structural power has an in-depth influence on the variables in education, such as teaching strategies, assessment methods, curriculum construction, physical space and students’ learning experiences (Rind, 2016). Consequently, teachers’ agency and students’ agency are both influenced by macro and micro structural forces, including the educational policies of the government, the national and state curriculum requirements, as well as the specified lesson plans of a local school. Such structural factors can lead to impaired interactions between teachers’ agency and students’ agency. Specifically, on the one hand it means that students can have no power or actions in negotiating and selecting the content sources for curriculum construction. On the other hand, teaching practices are controlled and influenced by such macro and micro structural forces.

In this research project, structure refers to the existing state syllabus and national curriculum for the Australian students’ learning of Chinese in the local school-based community where the

Chinese teacher-researcher is based for constructing daily lesson plans. In this project, the local students' agency is empowered and emancipated to the maximum degree in terms of deciding on their preferred learning content and tasks, as well as appropriate instruction styles and activities within the structure of the Chinese classroom in this school. Subsequently, it captures the notion of *community of practice* in a way which supplements the structure and agency standpoint regarding the local students' learning of Chinese in the school-based community.

3.2.2 Community of Practice for Knowledge Co-Construction (Real Dialogic Space)

The concept of community, along with the concept of identity has been well-defined in many diverse ways. Lave and Wenger (1991) were cognitive anthropologists who developed the concept of 'community of practice' (CoP). It is an approach that takes both structure and agency into account with reference to conceptualising the community. *Community of practice* is described as "groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (Wenger, McDermott & Snyder, 2002, p. 9). Learning is more than the process of acquiring definite forms of knowledge, and the circumstances of co-participation need to be placed into such a process to socialise relationships (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It also requires that group involvement for learning occurs, based on the appropriate existing milieu (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Hence, learners are not considered as the persons who merely obtain the existing knowledge paradigm through the perspective from which they understand the world, but also through the progress they make as they engage in the knowledge structures they have constructed.

Legitimacy affects the ways learners achieve access to a specific community of practice (Barnawi, 2009). Beginners need to be granted an ample sense of legitimacy to be treated as valuable prospective learners. It is also contended that "only with legitimacy can all inevitable tumbling and violations become opportunities for learning rather than cause for dismissal, neglect, or exclusion" (Wenger, 1998, p. 101). At the same time, as noted by Lave and Wenger (1991) "the development of identity" (p. 115) is a dominant aspect of novices' legitimate peripheral participation in a community of practice. In this sense, "learning and a sense of identity are inseparable" (p. 115), which is similar to "a reciprocal relation" (p. 116) between learners and their language practices in a community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, legitimacy acts as an indispensable role in the process of language teaching and learning due to its enablement of access to the learners' agency. The more advanced the level of legitimacy

which is bestowed upon the learners in a classroom context, the more they are willing to transfer and build their identity in the community of practice (Toohey, 2000).

These young learners build distinctly social and cultural identities within the local Chinese classroom. The Chinese classroom is regarded as a vital place where the local school students gain Chinese language knowledge, such as linguistic and cultural capabilities within an instructional environment. As a result, it is crucial for students to engage in classroom activities to obtain such competencies (Barnawi, 2009; Hirst, 2007; Morita, 2004). Further, it is valuable to have an in-depth understanding that “the membership and identities that the students constructed in a given classroom simultaneously shaped and were shaped by their class participation”, because such “dynamic co-construction of identity and participation also suggests that negotiating identity is situated” (Morita, 2004, p. 596). That correspondingly requires that the learning community of Chinese language practices should be established in the local school-based milieu. In doing so, these local students’ identities in learning a new language - Chinese, are potentially enacted and constructed through involving them in the learning content and activities embedded in their daily social practices and educational traditions.

However, most educational research employs teachers’ standpoints to recognise student-teacher interactions in the L2 learning classroom. Here, the Chinese teacher-researcher adopts the notion community of practice to capture the dynamic interaction between the local students’ agency and the negotiable structure in the Chinese classroom from the students’ perspective. This means the focus is on how the students mutually negotiate to generate their preferred topics and content for constructing a learnable Chinese curriculum in such a dialogic learning community. That echoes the notion of ‘co-learning’ which occurs in bilingual or multilingual classrooms, where “multiple agents simultaneously try to adapt to one another’s behaviour so as to produce desirable outcomes that would be shared by the contributing agents” (Wei, 2014, p. 169). Such a process lies not merely in requiring the Chinese teacher-researcher to explore the appropriate teaching approaches to “allow equitable participation for all in the classroom” (Wei, 2014, p. 170), but also in enabling the local students to “build a more genuine community of practice” (Wei, 2014, p. 170) for their situated learning of Chinese, as well as allowing the formation and transformation of identity, thereby eventually evolving their “dynamic and participatory engagement” (Brantmeier, as cited in Wei, 2014, p. 170) for the Chinese curriculum co-construction in terms of producing learnable content sources and suitable

instruction styles.

Accordingly, the Chinese teacher-researcher develops into the role of “a learning facilitator, a scaffolder, and a critical reflection enhancer”, whereas the student grows into “an empowered explorer, a meaning maker, and a responsible knowledge constructor” in Chinese class (Wei, 2014, p. 169). As for teaching Chinese as a second language to emergent language learners, it is pointed out that native Chinese instructors should transition their original pedagogical beliefs in order to achieve the “mutual adaptation of behaviour” (Wei, 2014, p. 169) between teacher and learners, as that is the very essence of co-learning (Moloney & Xu, 2015b). In this sense, the desired knowledge of Chinese language tends to be mutually constructed by these local students and the teacher-researcher in an equally dialogic space, where the real dialogue essentially facilitates the learnable knowledge to be co-produced (Wells, 1999). It is expected that the valuable learning resources produced from this Australian school-based community of Chinese language practices can be also transferred to, and re-used by wider Chinese learning communities around the world, thus achieving the purpose of resource sharing in an intellectual hybrid space.

3.2.3 Intellectual Hybrid Space for Resource Sharing (Virtual Dialogic Space)

The tangible learning community of Chinese language practices is established for the purpose of mutually negotiating, selecting and creating learnable Chinese resources within the real dialogic space in class. To enhance the learnability and transferability of such Chinese learning materials for more global emergent second language learners of Chinese, the far-reaching projected vision is to construct an intellectual hybrid space for sharing appropriate Chinese learning resources by means of being virtual dialogic. In doing so, *hybrid* - a dominant term, must be defined. Ideally, this intellectual hybrid space would reach the condition of being “a fusion without loss” for the educational industry (Snart, 2010, p. 57). In this sense, the intellectual hybrid space is here defined as the web-based Chinese educational context where the global emergent lovers and learners of Chinese can utilise the advanced technology for engaging in self-facilitated learning tasks, retrieving digital learning resources, interacting with peers and instructors, as well as co-constructing and sharing knowledge (Snart, 2010; Carrasco & Johnson, 2015). Considering the learners’ various needs and diversities in space and time, hybrid learning emerges together with its accompaniments, such as online learning, distance education and correspondence courses, to become a combination of both face-to-face and computer-assisted learning (Carrasco & Johnson, 2015).

In particular, establishing a hybrid learning space for Chinese language practices (alternatively termed as a ‘third space’) necessarily involves with the utilisation of advanced technology, which is committed to sharing Chinese learning resources, especially in digital formats, as well as reshaping the role of teachers and students (Carrasco & Johnson, 2015; Schuck, Kearney & Burden, 2017). Meanwhile, the turn to *computer supported collaborative learning* (CSCL) in the educational context makes it possible to open up a wider web-based learning space and build a compatible learning environment, where knowledge is constructed, and then transmitted through employing the instructive advanced technology in a dialogic mode (Wegerif, 2007). Eventually, it is expected to invite and embrace such an innovative and customised approach to Chinese curriculum construction in a collective manner (Schuck et al., 2017).

Furthermore, when it comes to making Chinese learnable, the initial focus is on “using learners’ recurring everyday sociolinguistic activities undertaken in English to teach the same activities in Chinese”, thus benefiting from the “capitalising of cross-sociolinguistic similarities” (Singh & Han, 2014, p. 404). It is suggested that when adopting these shared Chinese resources from a hybrid space, including the learning content, tasks, activities, as well as the teaching strategies and assessment methods for diverse learners from different places of the world, the sociocultural characteristics of their daily lives should be taken into consideration. That is to say, such a process of resource sharing and knowledge transfer is likely to encounter a certain ‘heterogeneity’. To deal with such a situation, a model named *hybrid heterogeneous transfer learning* (HHTL)⁶ is here utilised to elucidate the likely heterogeneous nature of a hybrid Chinese learning space for resource sharing. In such a framework, the main task is to recognise the product differences between a source domain and a target domain (Zhou, Pan, Tsang & Yan, 2014). To be precise, the Chinese learning materials produced in a source learning space need to be re-modelled and re-processed to meet the demands of differentiated resource ‘purchasers’ in the world. After such a process, the efficacy of such ‘buy-in’ knowledge for the target learning community tends to reach its optimum outcome brought about by resource sharing.

More importantly, “creativity” and “criticality” are two major quality supervisors in terms of “following and flouting” those pooled intellectual capitals, as well as “questioning and problematising received wisdom” (Wei, 2011, p. 1223). In this way, building an intellectual

⁶ Originally, the framework is developed by Zhou et al. (2014), which is applied to the field of machine learning. That improved model aims to “ensure knowledge transfer across heterogeneous domains to be effective even though the cross-domain correspondences are biased” (Zhou et al., 2014, p. 2214).

hybrid space is not only beneficial for sharing suitable learning resources among more emergent second language learners of Chinese in the networked educational milieu, but also for “creating the conditions for constructing and enacting integrated language identities” (Gort & Sembiente, 2015, p. 23) through continuously being exposed to the translanguaging practices between English and Chinese, both in and after class.

The digital media-assisted hybrid space provides a shared platform from which the learners’ informal funds of knowledge are drawn (Roth & Erstad, 2013; Schuck et al., 2017). That knowledge is accompanied by the learners’ positive learning identity, which is sustained by the productive learning practices of Chinese in a formal classroom. The following section explores the original notion of funds of knowledge, adhering to the focus on exploiting various forms of students’ funds of knowledge, particularly as accumulated in the school-based community for their learning of Chinese.

3.3 Deployment of Students’ Funds of Knowledge

Funds of knowledge is theoretically underpinned by sociocultural theory (González et al., 2005). In the following section, this is reviewed from two dimensions. One aspect is related to its conceptualised understandings. Another aspect is about its practical applications to educational research.

3.3.1 The Concept of Funds of Knowledge

Funds of knowledge is a concept that means empowering teachers, students and parents to work together in a (purportedly) liberating pedagogical environment that can redress the unbalanced relations of power in education (González et al., 2005). In particular, this concept concentrates on the poor communities and working-class families that are habitually disregarded in education as sources of valuable knowledge (González et al., 2005). Funds of knowledge develop as families are involved in household activities and interactions with social systems, which takes on a historical depth, a social width and a conditional nature. The argument is that daily classroom teaching practice can exploit such knowledge to enrich students’ engagement, performance and achievement (González et al., 2005). This concept inspires teachers, including pre-service and in-service teachers to enthusiastically utilise the funds of knowledge from students’ households and communities during the process of development of educational practice (González et al., 2005). Therefore, the notion of *funds of knowledge* is defined as “historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential

for household or individual functioning and well-being” (González et al., 2005, p. 72). Here, it is worth mentioning that the local students’ funds of knowledge are understood as their knowledge and capabilities in relation to performing their daily sociolinguistic events and learning activities in English, which are picked up and preserved in the school-based community.

3.3.2 Practical Applications of Funds of Knowledge in the Educational Context

This section explores the literature on the empirical applications of funds of knowledge tactics in the educational context. Such a pedagogical approach has been of interest for researchers and educators of both literacy and art teaching at the levels of preschool, elementary and secondary education to improve students’ learning achievement.

For example, Kim and Lee (2012) investigated an EFL teacher in Korea who was utilising students’ *cultural funds of knowledge* to enhance their class participation and engagement. Their research outcomes suggest that teachers of language teaching need to appreciate and build on the local students’ various funds of knowledge (e.g. culture, languages and social practices) to develop curricula for second language learning. As the local students possess diverse cultural and language backgrounds of their own in a second language teaching and learning context, there exists a gap between the teachers’ and students’ cultures. Namely, the second language teachers as the native speakers might not be aware of the local students’ cultures and existing knowledge or the worth of them. What is more, quite a few noteworthy pedagogical connections and curriculum content sources from students’ interaction with their family members, peers and teachers can provide valuable opportunities to generate their funds of knowledge from the household contexts and community activities, as well as early-education surroundings (Hedges, Cullen & Jordan, 2011). Hence, creating curricula based on students’ interests and their corresponding knowledge base is a way for teachers to empower them as positive knowledge constructors rather than passive knowledge recipients.

Teachers are advised to draw on the components of students’ funds of knowledge and make genuine assessment via indigenous knowledge systems to restructure evaluation methods and criteria to assess students’ advancement in language learning (Coles-Ritchie & Charles, 2011). However, there exist some issues concerning the implementation of indigenised assessment by using students’ funds of knowledge, including parents’, other teachers’ and administrators’ oppositions, as well as students’ uncertain reaction to the newly-developed assessment system.

Curriculum built on knowledge that is familiar to the students from the marginalised sections of a community arouses their more robust involvement in learning due to its resonance with their cultural identity (Zipin, 2013). On the contrary, the critical voice suggests that the socially marginalised learners tend to be alienated from daily school education if the curriculum draws exclusively on the mainstream funds of knowledge and cultural capital of students (Zipin, 2013). It is also contended that teachers' professional education and learning may be more productive if it is based on exploring and evaluating students' funds of knowledge, as well as employing them to cultivate the curriculum construction (Hedges, 2012). It is also suggested that the practical knowledge derived from students' daily sociolinguistic activities can possibly be included in the research behind curriculum construction, which can support or challenge their own implicit knowledge by means of evidence-informed inquiry (Hedges, 2012).

As for pupils, "knowledge cannot be accessed except through language practices with which they're already familiar" (García & Wei, 2014, p. 80). In turn, "language practices cannot be developed except through the students' existing knowledge" (García & Wei, 2014, p. 80). Such a consideration resonates with the statement claimed by García and Sylvan (2011) that pupils prefer to draw on their "diverse language practices for purposes of learning" (p. 397), which entails that instructors adopt "inclusive language practices for the purposes of teaching" (p. 397).

On the one hand, Chinese language knowledge is difficult for these students to attain without the help of their preferred and familiar language learning activities in the local educational context. And on the other hand, their Chinese language practices may be rarely facilitated as a result of teachers failing to mobilise and legislate their funds' of knowledge formed and retained in the local school-based community. Such students' funds of knowledge tend to take on various shapes, such as their existing, prior or powerful knowledge accumulated and preserved from their English-speaking language practices, which can be recovered and utilised as their linguistic and cultural capitals for their learning of Chinese in class. Furthermore, connecting a funds of knowledge approach to translanguaging pedagogy supports the dynamic bilingual learners in Chinese class to become involved in such a new languaging environment through utilising and decoding the knowledge that they already know. By doing so, this helps the Chinese teacher-researcher to identify what the students have obtained from the Chinese lessons through presenting their Chinese languaging competencies in class. It is suggested that employing their familiar learning activities and favoured instruction styles can more easily

engage the local students in the learning content, which can be mutually negotiated and generated among them, thus creating a dialogic learning space in the real Chinese classroom. Here, the local students' Chinese languaging practices and translanguaging capabilities are emerging through employing their various funds of knowledge obtained and sustained in the school-based community. Accordingly, the major forms of students' knowledge are illustrated in the next section, which tend to be shaped and maintained as the funds of knowledge from their formal and informal learning experiences in daily life.

3.3.3 Prior Knowledge

Being grounded in sociocultural standpoints, "learning is considered a purely external process", which "merely utilises the achievements of development" by virtue of taking in learners' "previous experience and knowledge" (Vygotsky, 1978, pp. 79, 80). Based on such a perspective, it is emphasised that language learning is essentially impacted by the students' prior knowledge from their social experiences (Dávila, 2015). In view of that, teacher's scaffolding strategies become a central point from which the teacher can pinpoint and utilise students' prior knowledge configuration for their further development (Vygotsky, 1978; Dávila, 2015). Modern students are no longer regarded as aimless knowledge followers because:

they come to formal education with a range of *prior knowledge, skills, beliefs, and concepts* that significantly influence what they notice about the environment and how they organize and interpret it. This, in turn, affects their abilities to remember, reason, solve problems, and acquire new knowledge (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000, p. 10, italics added).

The local students' prior knowledge (pre-existing knowledge) plays a crucial part in activating their self-initiated and self-sustained potentials for receiving fresh information, and thus enhancing their academic achievement (Tobias, 1994; Hailikari, Nevgi & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2007; Roth & Erstad, 2013). Nevertheless, it is contended that a meaningful learning process lies in discovering and making use of the learners' declarative prior knowledge (on 'knowing

that')⁷, along with their procedural prior knowledge (on 'knowing how')⁸ as the two types of knowledge base which contribute to the development of learning trajectories and personal abilities in different dimensions (Hailikari, Katajavuori & Lindblom-Ylanne, 2008).

The category of the local students' pre-existing knowledge should be prioritised for the purpose of better integrating such knowledge into their learning of Chinese at the very initial teaching stage. Accordingly, the Chinese teacher-researcher assumes the main role of recognising and mobilising the linguistic and cultural inventories that the students have formed (what they already know) for supporting them to acquire the new understandings on Chinese knowledge in a process of being self-directed and employing higher-thinking (how they attain the novel information). Progressively, the newly-learnt knowledge influenced by their prior intellectual capitals has the tendency to be consolidated and upheld, and then turns into their existing knowledge.

3.3.4 Existing Knowledge

As for the local students' existing knowledge, here it is primarily concerned with the Chinese knowledge that has been shaped and preserved from their previous engagement with learning Chinese in the school-based community. For instance, such existing Chinese knowledge may include some basic Chinese oral expressions, as well as some Chinese writing skills, which can in turn equip them with the advanced expertise for reaching a "much wider potential range of (Chinese) language and literacy practices" (Duff et al., 2013, p. 82). In this regard, exploring inclusive instruction strategies to "validate their existing knowledge" (p. 82) for "seeking further growth" (p. 83) becomes a focus for the Chinese teacher-researcher, instead of ignoring such intellectual treasures along with their educational meanings (Duff et al., 2013).

With the assistance of such existing knowledge, the local students not only tend to increase their exposure to printed and digitised Chinese learning materials on their own, but also broaden their interactions with more Chinese lovers and pursuers in a hybrid learning space.

⁷ Prior knowledge is mainly composed of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge (Dochy, as cited in Hailikari et al., 2008). Declarative prior knowledge belonging to the lowest level is identified as "the knowledge of facts and meanings that a student is able to remember or reproduce", being related to "knowing that" (Hailikari et al., 2008, p. 2; Anderson, as cited in Hailikari et al., 2007, p. 322).

⁸ In the meanwhile, procedural prior knowledge is "characterised by an ability to integrate knowledge and understand relations between concepts and, at the highest level, apply this knowledge to problem-solving", being referred to as "knowing how" (Hailikari et al., 2008, p. 2; Anderson, as cited in Hailikari et al., 2007, p. 322).

Apart from their existing Chinese knowledge, it is anticipated that other content of their existing knowledge will be further developed into their powerful knowledge for the purpose of fully capitalising on the procedural prior knowledge (regarding ‘know how’) during the process of bettering their learning of Chinese.

3.3.5 Powerful Knowledge

Based on the notions of prior knowledge and existing knowledge, powerful knowledge as an alternative form of the students’ funds of knowledge has gained more and more attention by developing “expert students” and deploying their influential “knowledge structures” (Kinchin, 2016, p. 5). The expert student is “one who recognises the existence and complementary purposes of different knowledge structures, and seeks to integrate them in the application of practice”, thereby gradually developing their sustainable learning appetites and shaping their optimistic attitudes towards obtaining fresh knowledge (Kinchin, 2011, p. 187; Rowe, Fitness & Wood, 2015).

In this case, to construct an effective Chinese language curriculum, the teacher-researcher needs to identify the local students’ various forms of powerful knowledge and apply them to their daily Chinese learning practices. Under such circumstances, the students are provided with enough space to retrieve and benefit from their powerful knowledge in Chinese class.

However, it is argued that incorporating powerful knowledge into the curriculum construction is indispensable in balancing the usable degree of that knowledge, and the learners’ in-built knowledge structures, for sustaining safe and active learning, as well as developing ‘tolerant’ collections of influential disciplinary knowledge rather than ‘hostile’ ones (Kinchin, 2016). This is echoed in a clarification by Maton (2014) who argued that “powerful knowledge comprises not one kind of knowledge but rather mastery of how different knowledges are brought together and changed through semantic waving and weaving” (p. 182). In such a situation, the potential impacts of the powerful knowledge tend to be manifested within the students’ internalised knowledge structures (Kinchin, 2016).

In summary, on the one hand the responsibility of the Chinese teacher-researcher lies in extracting the local students’ differentiated knowledge embodiments from within their acquired knowledge structures. On the other hand, the ultimate goal is to construct an effective, localised and student-centred Chinese language curriculum. In doing so, the Chinese teacher-researcher needs to have:

the ability to manage the different types of knowledge in a sequence that matches not just the needs of the subject, but also that of the student, so that the different kinds of disciplinary knowledge are introduced in such a way that the development of expertise is not compromised (Winch, 2013, p. 128).

Therefore, focusing on the prior, existing and powerful knowledge for Chinese curriculum construction provides an alternative way to better know the Australian local school students in terms of their preferences regarding the learning topics and instruction styles. This is not only conducive to enhancing their sense of ownership for the co-produced Chinese learning materials, but also to establishing their positive identity and encouraging their passions for durably active engagement in learning Chinese.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter was dedicated to establishing a theoretic-pedagogical framework for theorising a localised and student-centred curriculum construction for enhancing the learnability of Chinese language within the Australian educational system. The starting point of such a process was based on the notion of *language as a local practice*. This was followed by the elucidation of related concepts including *linguaging*, *translanguaging*, *situated learning*, *structure and agency*, *community of practice*, *hybrid learning*, as well as *funds of knowledge* (*prior knowledge*, *existing knowledge* and *powerful knowledge*), which were meanwhile linked to the real context of daily Chinese language teaching and learning practices. In this way, such conceptualised thoughts were presented in a logical style, as they relate to two primary roles of this research project. One such role is that they work as the pedagogical tools to direct the Chinese teacher-researcher to conduct practical Chinese language teaching in real classrooms. Their other role is to act as the theoretical instruments to inform the process and procedures of the data collection and analysis in this research.

CHAPTER 4

CASE STUDY APPROACH TO EXPLORE AUSTRALIAN STUDENTS' DAILY SOCIOLINGUISTIC ACTIVITIES AND LEARNING STYLES FOR CONSTRUCTING A LOCALISED, STUDENT-CENTRED CHINESE CURRICULUM: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter explains and justifies the research methodology and methods adopted in the current research project. It illuminates the philosophical stance employed as the methodological foundation and departure point for constructing a sound research design, and answers the proposed research questions. The research design, research principles and research procedures established in this section are to address the research questions and avoid personal bias by employing applicable approaches and strategies (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Subsequently, it explains the proper methods employed to collect, analyse and manage the data which is in the form of responses to research questions (Andrews, 2003).

4.1 Research Philosophy and Methodology

4.1.1 Philosophical Reflections on Methodological Choices

According to Kuhn's early work entitled *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1970), it is put forward that "paradigms may be prior to, more binding, and more complete than any set of rules for research that could be unequivocally abstracted from them" (p. 46). Paradigm here means a "set of interrelated assumptions about the social world which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organized study of that world" (Filstead, 1979, p. 34). The paradigm potentially influences a researcher's array of mindsets regarding screening the research mechanisms, the research participants, as well as the methods and procedures of data collection and analysis during the whole process of research design and implementation (Kuhn, 1970; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

'Paradigm' is endowed with a comprehensive definition for research by Carr and Kemmis (2003) who maintain that a paradigm:

embodies the particular conceptual framework through which the community of researchers operates and in terms of which a particular interpretation of 'reality' is generated. It also incorporates models of research, standards, rules of enquiry and a set of techniques and methods, all of which ensure that any theoretical knowledge that is produced will be consistent with the view of reality that the paradigm supports (p. 72).

Correspondingly, this understanding of paradigm echoes Kuhn's (1970) argument that a paradigm specifies research practices to be initiated and effected by means of engaging researchers in selecting and utilising the proper research instruments to interpret the 'reality' precisely and constantly in a shared research community. Such a process would necessarily lead to 'paradigm shift' and 'scientific revolution' as the current paradigms lack the ability to advance the research community, thus necessitating the alternative paradigms to develop and solve the 'normal science' and the 'puzzles' for the academic community. However, as noted by Kuhn (1970) the social sciences tend to be plagued by the co-existence of various paradigms compared with the natural sciences. Therefore, researchers need to adopt the corresponding paradigm, accompanied by its appropriate methodological doctrines, in order to "minimize the risk of relinquishing their responsibility to account for the philosophical underpinnings of their work" (McGregor & Murnane, 2010, p. 419). A well-informed research paradigm helps researchers to make suitable methodological choices to explore knowledge in a systematic way (Grix, 2004; Ponterotto, 2005).

Meanwhile, being clearly aware of any issues regarding ontology, epistemology and axiology helps to construct the context influencing an investigator's reasonable choices of research methodology to achieve such a purpose, because the philosophical basis of any research is related to the researcher's perceptions of the nature of knowledge and reality with regard to socially grounded and pragmatic-oriented investigation (Ponterotto, 2005). Accordingly, the interrelationship between them is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

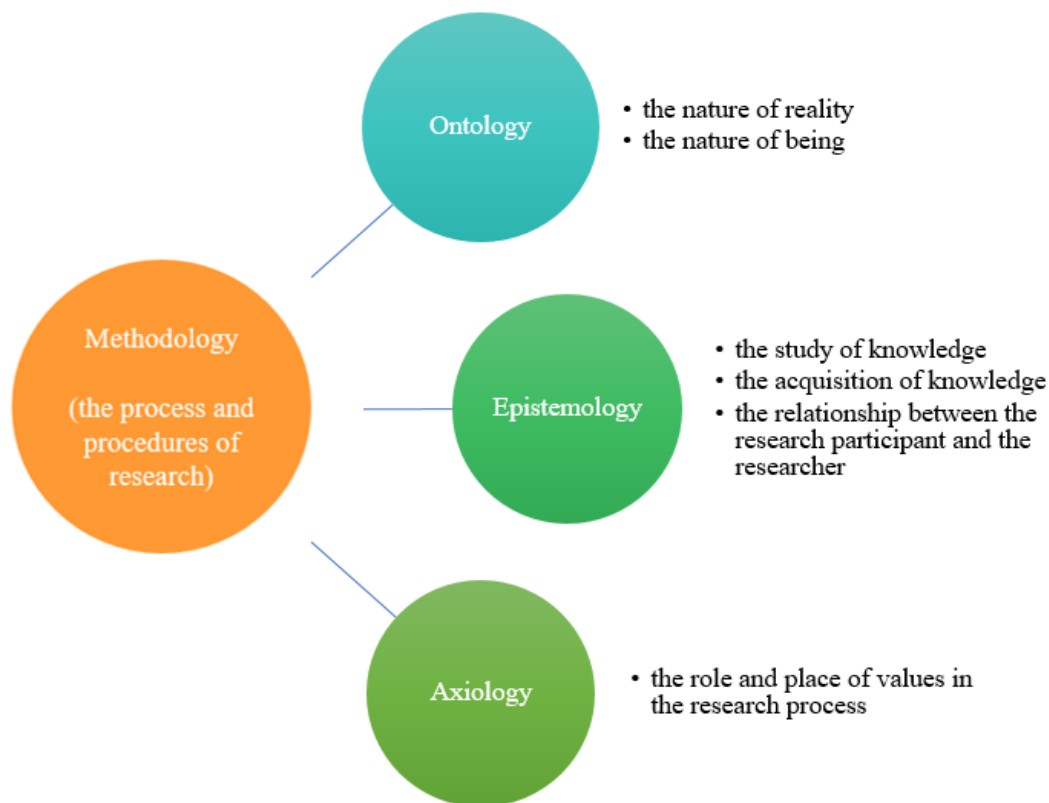


Figure 4. 1 Philosophical Underpinnings of Methodology (Source from Ponterotto, 2005)

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These philosophical underpinnings have directorial roles, and can be perceived in the rhetorical and methodological conduct employed in a specified study (Ponterotto, 2005). Therefore, a comparative analysis of the directions taken by the educational research is made with reference to the philosophical constituents. Making such philosophical reflections informs the teacher-researcher of the expectations concerning what is to be researched, what results should be obtained, as well as how to strive for the knowledge of the main issues through answering the corresponding research questions proposed for this education-related research project. Therefore, in the following section the teacher-researcher engages such philosophical underpinnings in his research project for constructing appropriate methodology.

4.1.2 Shaping the Teacher-Researcher's Methodological Position

Research can be categorised as either general or specific. Considering the specific areas and focuses of this research, some commonly conflicting discrepancies have been identified by diverse tags. These include positivism and constructivism, as well as fixed design and flexible

design for quantitative paradigms and qualitative paradigms separately (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Positivism stands against the constructivist (or interpretivist) paradigm by reason of their fundamentally opposing views regarding ontology, epistemology and axiology (Ponterotto, 2005; Scotland, 2012). Positivism is a philosophy which holds that causal explanations for educational processes can be justified by hypothetical-deductive experiments that lead to the discovery of single, objective truths which are reliable for predicting and controlling future educational actions (Carr & Kemmis, 2003). Positivism has become a critical and widely employed approach for the social scientists, helping them to determine what social science actually is and what it can achieve (Carr & Kemmis, 2003). Consequently, positivism emphasises observation of human behaviour and argues that aspects that can not be observed, such as feelings or emotions, are unimportant and may undermine or mislead the study (Howell, 2013).

Nevertheless, humanity alone is responsible for knowledge development, and understanding is a matter of interpretive construction on the part of the active subject (Howell, 2013). Constructivism argues that any so-called reality is in the most immediate and concrete sense - the construction by those who believe that they have discovered and investigated it (Watzlawick, as cited in Howell, 2013). It is posited that, for the constructivist paradigm, the core assumption is that realities are not objectively “out there”, but are constructed by people, often under the influence of a variety of social and cultural factors that lead to shared construction (Guba & Lincoln, as cited in Howell, 2013, p. 90). Thus, constructivism contradicts positivism in terms of scientific statements, such as the explanation and description through hypotheses, theories and observations (Howell, 2013). This perspective of ontology and epistemology is challenged by constructivists, who consider that the mind is active in the construction of knowledge, and knowing is interactive with data, rather than being simply an abstraction reflected by the mind. Consequently, they believe that researchers construct knowledge through continual interaction and modification of constructions in a social environment (Howell, 2013).

These theoretical considerations assist the teacher-researcher to shape his methodological position in an informed and critical way. Specifically speaking, this research project is initially targeted at exploring the forms of the Australian students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the local school-based community that can be utilised as content sources for their learning of Chinese. Furthermore, this will give the teacher-researcher a better understanding

of the local students' preferred learning styles in school, which can be transferred to Chinese language teaching. From an ontological perspective, this encourages the teacher-researcher to consider exactly what is being researched and discovered in this study, namely the local students' everyday school-based social practices, their potential usefulness as Chinese learning materials, and the students' favoured instruction styles in their daily schooling. This is naturally connected to the teacher-researcher's epistemological stance, which is mainly concerned with what the actual interaction is like, and what the practical focus can be, during the process of engaging the local school students in mastering Chinese, through being exposed to such sociolinguistic activities-oriented learning content in combination with learner-directed teaching strategies. Ultimately, in terms of axiology, it is anticipated that the current research project will enrich the Chinese learnability for the students who are involved in learning Chinese in this local public school. Their classroom teachers are also expected to benefit from the opportunities of observing the Chinese classes to learn about Chinese language and culture in class. Consequently, the sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented approach of constructing a localised and student-centred curriculum for Chinese language learning is not only conducive to the generation of suitable and localised learning materials for the Australian school students, but also beneficial for inspiring Chinese learners from the wider learning community around the world, effecting possibilities to make Chinese a local and learnable language for such beginners, with cultural appropriateness and content learnability.

Therefore, applying the constructivist paradigm to this educational research on Chinese language teaching and learning provides the teacher-researcher with the opportunity of investigating and utilising Australian students' sociolinguistic activities, mainly formed in the school-based community as Chinese learning content sources from such daily locally constructed practices, as well as the space for theorising the localised and student-centred curriculum construction for the learning of Chinese for more emergent second language learners of Chinese from the wider global community. Likewise, that methodological choice resonates with the statement proposed by Carr and Kemmis (2003) in their work entitled *Becoming critical: Education, knowledge and action research*, shown as follows:

Within the field of education, therefore, enquiry should focus on understanding the social processes through which a given educational reality is produced and becomes 'taken for granted'. In particular, there should be a move towards treating 'what counts as knowledge' as 'problematic', so as to facilitate research into the ways in which

knowledge is socially organized, transmitted and assessed in schools (p. 85, italics added).

Accordingly, it is clear that adopting the constructivist paradigm for this Chinese language education-related research is desired to make the students voice their real ideas concerning their preferred learning content and instruction styles in Chinese class through integrating their daily school-based social practices into Chinese curriculum construction, thereby achieving co-construction of the learnable content knowledge and relevant learning activities. By doing so, this is likely to inclusively engage students with different characteristics and learning styles in the learning of Chinese in class, as it is important to recognise “multiple realities, agentic behaviours” and understand “a situation through the eyes of the participants” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 116). Informed by this, a flexible research design will be adopted and implemented for this research project, because the pre-specified research procedures and data collection methods tend to be adjusted and improved as the researcher encounters the reality of the practical process of teaching and interacting with the local students in a school (Yin, 2018). Also, when it comes to the qualitative study, its corresponding research design usually tends to “change, evolve and emerge over time rather than being a ‘once-and-for-all’ plan that is decided and finalised at the outset of the research” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 117). That is to say, employing a flexible research design is advantageous in judging and transferring the appropriateness and learnability of such knowledge generated in the school-based community from this study to the wider Chinese learning community.

4.2 A Flexible Research Design

Research itself refers to “the notion of inquiring into, or investigating something in a systematic manner” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 3). Correspondingly, design is “concerned with turning research questions into projects” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 71). When being combined into an entirety, they form the *research design*, which becomes the “logical blueprints” that are not only involved with linking “among the research questions, the data to be collected, and the strategies for analysing the data”, but also helping “to boost the accuracy of a study”, eventually to “address the intended research questions” based on the actual research findings (Yin, 2015, p. 83). At the same time, Yin (2015) specially highlights that qualitative research is “likely to vary in its design (which is not necessarily true of other types of research, such as experiments and surveys)” as there is “no clear typology of blueprints” (p. 84). Furthermore, as noted by Maxwell (2013), “in qualitative research, any component of the design may need to be

reconsidered or modified during the study in response to new developments or to changes in some other component” (p. 2). Likewise, the flexible designs for qualitative research are also endowed with the feature that “much less pre-specification takes place and the design evolves, develops and (to use a term popular with their advocates) ‘unfolds’ as the research proceeds” (Robson, 2002, p. 5). In this sense, the whole design process for a qualitative study is labelled as being a “recursive”, “interactive”, as well as an “interconnected and flexible structure” rather than being a “linear or cyclic sequence” (Maxwell, 2013, pp. 3, 4; Yin, 2015, p. 85).

Metaphorically, the flexible research design can be compared to a “do-it-yourself” process during which the main task is to build a “one-off design likely to help answer your research questions”, instead of just selecting from a variety of “well-defined” and “off-the-shelf” schemes, thereby essentially allowing the researcher to “customize your design as you see fit” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 146; Yin, 2015, p. 84). Given the “contextual factors influencing a research design” (p. 6) as suggested by Maxwell (2013) in combination with the sequence for constructing qualitative research proposed by Cohen et al. (2011), an elastic and iterative design is formed at the very beginning of the conduct of this study. That is to say, the initially proposed research questions, research goals, research methods and conceptual framework tend to be modified and reconstructed, as “the interplay of these elements” occur and “the research unfolds” in the real situation (Maxwell, 2013; Cohen et al., 2011, p. 118). Accordingly, the initial design for the research project is delineated in Figure 4.2, which is generated after an in-depth literature review, the improvement and modification of the focused research questions, as well as a rational reflection on the philosophical foundations of educational research essential to establish a proper methodology and employ appropriate methods of data collection.

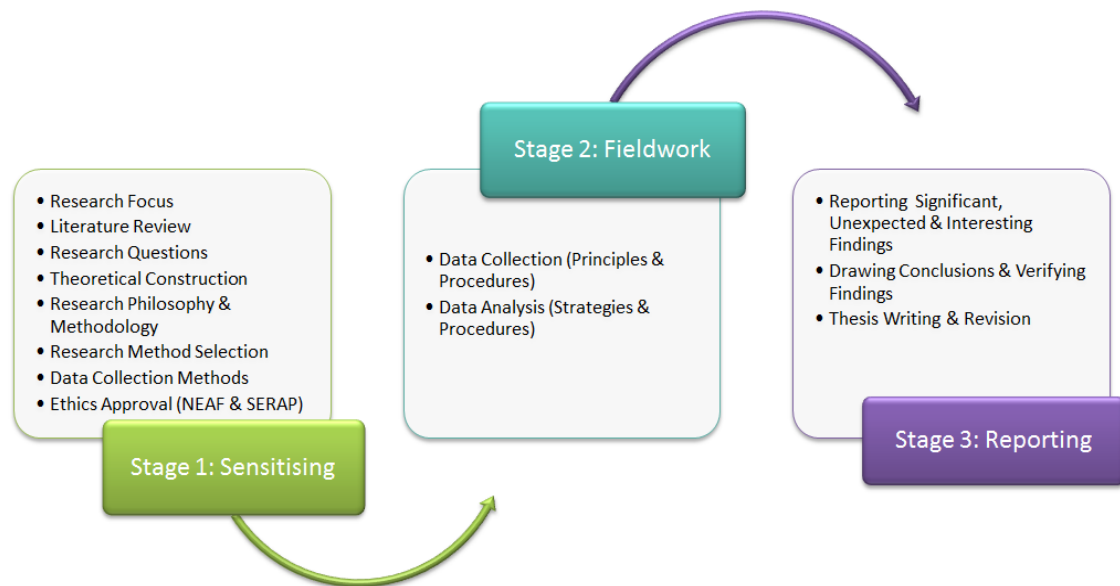


Figure 4. 2 An Outline of the Flexible Research Design

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4.2.1 Case Study as the Research Method

Case study as a traditional method in qualitative research is predominantly selected for its power in facilitating thorough examinations into social phenomena in their tangible situations, in spite of encountering a few contestations in terms of its rigour and transferability. Moreover, it is an effective research tactic which can focus rigorous attention on a handful of participants and allow issues to be explored profoundly (Yin, 2018; Robson & McCartan, 2016; Swanborn, 2010; Cohen et al., 2011). Accordingly, Yin (2018) elaborates on the definition of a case study from dual facets, namely the *scope* and the *features*. In terms of the scope, a case study is defined as “an empirical method that investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident” (p. 15). That is to say, a case study tends to be carried out to recognise a real-life issue, especially when “phenomenon and context are not always sharply distinguishable in real-world situations” (Yin, 2018, p. 15). Hence, considering the features of a case study, it is described as follows:

A case study copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to

guide design, data collection, and analysis, and as another result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion (Yin, 2018, p. 15).

Similarly, Cohen et al. (2011) state that a case study “provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles” (p. 289). Such a notion emphasises the importance of the real contexts for having a thorough understanding of the intended case and answering the cause and effect questions. Nevertheless, Swanborn (2010) contends that a case study refers to the study of a “social phenomenon” (p. 13) regardless of whether that phenomenon occurs in the present or in the past. Meanwhile, as to the ‘context’, it is argued that a phenomenon can be investigated “in its natural surroundings, namely “in the case’s natural context” (Swanborn, 2010, p. 13). Correspondingly, a case study means the study of social phenomenon, which is:

carried out within the boundaries of one social system (the case), or within the boundaries of a few social systems (the cases), such as people, organizations, groups, individuals, local communities or nation-states, in which the phenomenon to be studied enrolls in the case’s natural context by monitoring the phenomenon during a certain period or, alternatively, by collecting information afterwards with respect to the development of the phenomenon during a certain period (Swanborn, 2010, p. 13).

This research project focuses on curriculum construction for Chinese language learning by exploring students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge within the context of an Australian local school. It aims to investigate how the Chinese teacher-researcher can utilise such local resources for constructing a localised and student-centered curriculum of Chinese language learning, and how this can contribute to the development of Chinese language education practices. In view of the above-mentioned characteristics and benefits, as well as the proposed research questions, the case study is hence preferred and adopted as the research method for this study.

Apparently, the case study strategy is analogous to the “television documentary” to empower the “events and situations in real-life context to speak for themselves, rather than to be largely interpreted, evaluated or judged by the researcher” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 290). Therefore, its authenticity and trustworthiness need to be initially taken into account, so that such a ‘documentary’ (a case for the intended inquiry) can report the actual problems in a rigorously valid, reliable and triangulated way to its targeted ‘audience’. Not surprisingly, when the ‘documentary’ (the case) is involved with people in their real lives, the corresponding ethical

considerations for disclosing such factual matters naturally become an indispensable component. Consequently, this section focuses on such managerial principles for data collection, namely *validity*, *reliability*, *triangulation* and *ethics* as they are considered essentials in evaluating the quality of the evidence-driven and theory-informed educational research with the ultimate purpose of conducting a sound case study (Yin, 2018; Cohen et al., 2011).

4.2.2 Validity

According to Robson (2002), validity for a qualitative research refers to “something to do with it being accurate, or correct, or true” (p. 170). However, as Maxwell (2013) observes, that “researcher bias⁹” and “reactivity¹⁰” (p. 124) are the two major threats for qualitative researchers. In order to respond to and resolve such weakness, Yin (2018) proposes three dimensions for enhancing validity for a case study, including *construct validity*, *internal validity* and *external validity*. Thus, they are integrated into the teacher-researcher’s current case study for this research project, and explained below.

4.2.2.1 Construct Validity

Construct validity means “identifying correct operational measures for the concepts being studied” (Yin, 2018, p. 42). This can be achieved via adopting “accepted definitions and constructions of concepts and terms” (Cohen, et al., 2011, p. 295). This has been very difficult to achieve in this study, as the leading concepts and the main evidence for supporting the construction of the theoretic-pedagogical framework are based on key informants from different participant groups. Meanwhile I, as the teacher-researcher, have already formed some relevant perceptions concerning the selection of a research paradigm and the construction of a conceptual framework that are suitable for interpreting the relevant data at the very initial stage of research, as well as during the process of teaching.

Accordingly, the following two tactics have been adopted to deal with such challenges regarding construct validity. Firstly, “multiple sources of evidence” (Yin, 2018, p. 44) were

⁹ It is related to “understanding how a particular researcher’s values and expectations may have influenced the conduct and conclusions of the study (which may be either positive or negative) and avoiding the negative consequences of these” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 124).

¹⁰ Reactivity is a term used to “describe the influence of the researcher on the setting or individuals studied” (p. 124), which can possibly be prevented by “avoiding leading questions” (p. 125) for participants (Maxwell, 2013).

employed in this study, which are reflected in the generation of multi-faceted data sources from the three data collection methods, including unstructured observations, photo-elicitation interviews and documents. The specific procedures regarding how to apply such strategies to the process of data collection in a real context are shown and explained in detail in section 4.4. And secondly, “a chain of evidence” (Yin, 2018, p. 44) has been constructed in terms of the above aspects, as detailed below:

1) A comprehensive literature review in relation to the current research topic has been conducted (from Google Scholar Database and the Western Sydney University Library, mainly focusing on the recent five years’ studies, as well as the seminal research works from beyond those five years), thereby linking those existing research findings, concepts and theories to this study.

2) The data collected from the teacher-researcher’s fieldworks, interview voice recordings, as well as those relevant documents generated for educational and research purposes and values, have been transcribed into corresponding written texts, stored and managed with great care.

3) Such collected information has been arranged into the teacher-researcher’s research report, the PhD thesis, in a systematic style. By doing so, the teacher-researcher himself and other scholars can keep careful eyes on this case study from their dual perspectives in view of the relationship between the intended research questions and the decisive conclusions emerging from this study (Yin, 2018).

4.2.2.2 Internal Validity

Internal validity means “seeking to establish a causal relationship, whereby certain conditions are believed to lead to other conditions, as distinguished from spurious relationships”, which are concerned with “making inferences” (Yin, 2018, pp. 42, 45). At the same time, four important strategies can be employed to enhance the internal validity, such as “doing pattern matching, doing explanation building, addressing rival explanations and using logic models” (Yin, 2018, p. 45). *Pattern matching* in combination with *logical models* are created and employed to strengthen the internal validity of this case study. That is to say, an array of conceptual patterns and theoretical structures have been discovered and constructed for making meanings from the ‘rich data’ collected from the teacher-researcher’s daily practical teaching experiences, and by testing his conclusions through incorporating his students’ real feelings and their classroom teachers’ direct comments on these Chinese lessons delivered in class.

Subsequently, a variety of themes which were identified after the results were coded for comparison with the originally proposed theoretic-pedagogical framework to judge whether such patterns work for this case study.

For instance, the theoretical intervention of the present case study is targeted at looking into the local students' range of recurring sociolinguistic activities performed in English during their daily school routines to improve the learnability of (spoken) Chinese for them. These resources equip the local students with a cluster of potentially learnable content and popular in-class activities for boosting their engagement in Chinese lessons (*immediate outcome*). Such an immediate outcome is reflected in the students' accumulated learning performances and outcomes at the end of each term (*intermediate outcome*). Ultimately, Chinese becomes a localised and learnable language for them to a certain extent, because the Chinese learning content and activities are closely tied to their daily school-based lives and their preferred learning styles within the local educational environment (*ultimate outcome*).

However, it is also argued that exploring the “discrepant evidence” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 127) (counter-evidence) to “address rival explanations” (Yin, 2018, p. 43) is regarded as a crucial element for examining the internal validity of a qualitative study. Therefore, given the characteristics and particularities of the current case study, the aforementioned strategies and such ‘pitfalls’ as probably emerge in a case are taken into consideration when developing such internal validity.

4.2.2.3 External Validity

External validity is defined as “showing whether and how a case study's findings can be generalized” (Yin, 2018, p. 42). This case study is mainly concerned with whether the research findings can be transferred to other similar contexts in the world to enrich different students' learning of Chinese i.e. whether it is valid for external parties. The empirical findings generated from this case study are anticipated to be applied to the realm of Chinese language education, which is aimed at constructing localised and appropriate learning materials and textbooks for learners from the wider global community. In doing so, the corresponding theoretic-pedagogical framework has been modified and reconstructed to identify the original theoretical causal relations behind the significant findings from this both school-engaged and ground-based research. Moreover, a far-reaching literature review was conducted to ensure that the intended research problem, research goals and research questions were framed on an informed

basis, thus equipping the research findings with such authenticity. Eventually, the research findings are expected to be used and tested in multiple-case studies through a conceptual transferability. Namely, the constant modification and improvement of the theoretic-pedagogical framework can be applied in other research contexts and communities from which to identify innovative visions and multi-layered angles from both similar and conflicting findings compared with this case study. Therefore, this thesis does have external validity.

4.2.3 Reliability

Reliability essentially demonstrates that “the operations of a study-such as its data collection procedures-can be repeated, with the same results”, which thus concentrates on “minimizing the errors and biases in a study” (Yin, 2018, pp. 42, 46). According to Yin (2018), reliability will be bettered through “the use of a case study protocol” (p. 46), as well as “the development of a case study database” (p. 46). Accordingly, a case study protocol (see Appendix 8) for this study is generated and employed to guide and trace the whole research trajectory. It not only helps the teacher-researcher to keep focused on the planned research questions and research procedures, but also contributes to recognising the emergent problems and unexpected findings as the research evolves. Meanwhile, the corresponding case study database (e.g. electronic portfolios) is created for the purpose of convenient access to the raw data for analysis. All the above-mentioned tactics for effecting detailed documentation of the whole research process are illustrated and expounded in an organised manner in the next section of this chapter, which is also conducive to enriching the reliability and consistency for the findings from this case study. Consequently, this thesis and its findings are reliable.

4.2.4 Triangulation

Triangulation is considered as “a valuable and widely used strategy involving the use of multiple sources to enhance the rigour of the research” (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 171). Also, it is implemented by “collecting information from a diverse range of individuals and settings, using a variety of methods”, as a consequence “reducing the risk of chance associations and of systematic biases due to a specific method” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 128). Such strategies concerning triangulation rightly echo Yin’s (2018) statement that using multiple sources of evidence is not only beneficial for “developing convergent evidence” (p. 128) and forming “data triangulation” (p. 128) to reinforce the construct validity of a case study, but also for “essentially providing multiple measures” (p. 128) for investigating and understanding of

one same social phenomenon in depth. Meanwhile, theory triangulation, another common and effective triangulation technique, involves “using multiple theories or perspectives” to make meanings for the same cohort of data (Denzin, as cited in Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 171). Data triangulation and theory triangulation are simultaneously adopted to deepen the validity and reliability of this case study. In terms of data triangulation, three methods of data collection are selected and applied to this fieldwork, including the unstructured observations, the photo-elicitation interviews and the relevant documents. Multi-dimensional information sources from among two groups of participants are produced, transcribed and utilised for the subsequent data interpretation. Such a process also generates the varied evidentiary units and verifies the manifold conceptual constructs in this research, eventually increasing the precision of the conclusions and mitigates the teacher-researcher’s biases to a large degree. Therefore, the above-mentioned principles regarding the guiding of this case study have been carried out with robust credibility and integrity and have been abided by during the whole research course.

4.2.5 Research Ethics

As mentioned at the very beginning of this section, the process of conducting a case study is not unlike shooting a documentary during which people’s participation is necessarily involved. This implies that “participants in real world studies may sometimes be involved without their knowledge” (Robson, 2002, p. 65). This poses an ethical issue concerning how the researchers can protect the participants’ “privacy¹¹”, “confidentiality¹²” and “anonymity¹³” during the process of research (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013, p. 63). Meanwhile, the research is always “ethically engaged” as human beings are more or less involved (Parsell, Ambler & Jacenyik-Trawoger, 2014, p. 178). It is required that “ethical standards” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 6) should be fundamentally taken into account in each stage of a study to attain and release such ‘legal’ and ‘ethically-appropriate’ data from a research project (Cohen et al., 2011).

¹¹ Privacy in research refers to the “control over others’ access to oneself and associated information or preservation of boundaries against giving protected information or receiving unwanted information” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 63).

¹² Confidentiality in research means the “agreements with a person or organization about what will be done (and may not be done) with their data-may include legal constraints” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 63).

¹³ Anonymity in research is identified as a “lack of identifiers, information that would indicate which individuals or organizations provided which data” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 63).

This research project is mainly concerned with a Chinese teacher-researcher who carried out an educational research in an Australian local public school in relation to making Chinese a localised and learnable language. Ranci re (2009) informs us that ethical standards tend to be different according to the specific places in which an investigation is conducted. Hence, in view of the selected research site (an Australian local school) and the two cohorts of participants (the students and their classroom teachers), this research project abides by the principles and procedures of the Australian Human Research Ethics Committees (HRECs) to protect the human participants and any organisations in the study. That is to say, the National Ethics Application Form (NEAF) (see Appendix 2) and the State Education Research Applications Process (SERAP) (see Appendix 2) were applied for and approved before conducting data collection. The detailed process and procedures followed for effecting the approval of the above two ethical documents were demonstrated as follows:

1. The mentor teacher¹⁴ read the student consent dialogue sheet (see Appendix 5) for the students in class before the commencement of the research project. To obtain the students' consent and help them understand the research better, it was written at the young people's level of comprehension. The students were informed of the full voluntary nature of their participation. Meanwhile, the students were advised that they can withdraw at any time without affecting their relationship with the Chinese teacher and their future learning in the school. The students were also informed that they do not have to participate if they do not want to, even though their parents or caregivers have consented to it.

2. The mentor teacher in the school was responsible for giving the participant information sheet (see Appendix 4) to potential student participants' parents or caregivers through emails. The students' parents or caregivers were fully informed of the research project by delivery of the information sheet and consent form. They were also advised that their children's participation was fully voluntary and that they can withdraw at any time without affecting their children's relationship with the Chinese teacher and their future learning in the school. Meanwhile, the students' parents or caregivers were also informed that if their children withdrew during the research, the data their children had contributed would be deleted, except for the focus group

¹⁴ The mentor teacher is the teacher who is working in this local public school and undertaking the responsibility for the ROSETE Program, as well as assisting Chinese volunteer teachers in organising some cultural activities.

data. After their parents or caregivers agreed that their children can participate in this research, they were asked to sign the consent form (see Appendix 6) for their children.

3. The Chinese teacher-researcher gave the participant information sheet (see Appendix 4) and consent form (see Appendix 6) to potential teacher participants in the form of hard copies to inform them of his research. Meanwhile, the teacher participants were informed of the voluntary nature of their participation and advised that they can withdraw at any time if they wished to. After that, their fully informed written consent forms were obtained.

4. All the participants were not only encouraged to ask questions about this research before they decided whether to participate in it, but also they were advised that if any concerns arose over the course of this research, they can contact the Human Ethics Office.

5. It was emphasised that the photographs used for interviews were the students' class activities from the daily Chinese lessons. Participants of the student group may be identifiable by other students who participated in the focus group interviews. However, it is not anticipated that their identification as participants would expose them to any risks.

6. It was also indicated that if participants chose to withdraw during the research, there would be no consequences. It was explained in the participant information sheet that data would be deleted, except the data from the focus group. This would also be restated in the consent form so that participants can make informed choices.

Apart from the above-mentioned, all the personal information of the participants is kept confidential. The pseudo names used and the data from each participant are also stored confidentially during the whole process of research. The two necessary ethics approvals were successfully obtained. The next section explains the methods and procedures of data collection in detail.

4.3 Methods and Procedures of Data Collection

Three methods of data collection were employed in this case study, including the unstructured observations, the photo-elicitation interviews and the collection of relevant documents. Two categories of data were produced and collected, namely the transcripts from the interviews and the texts from the observations and documents. One research site (a public school in NSW)

was adopted to collect such data. The overview for generating the data sources and types is displayed in Figure 4.3.

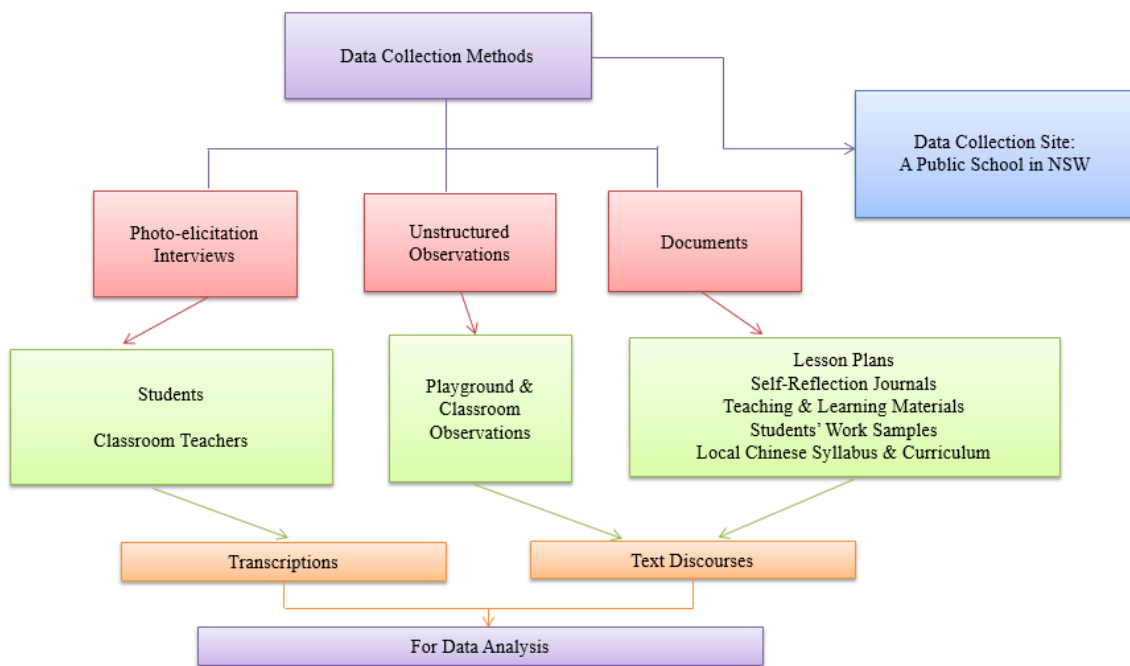


Figure 4. 3 An Overview of Data Sources and Types

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4.3.1 Site Selection

A physical ‘place’ is a necessity for a ‘case’ such as this one which happens in the real world. A case study can be a “one case (single) study” or a “several cases (multiple) study” (Swanborn, 2010, p. 21). In this research project, a local public school was selected and constructed as the research ‘place’ or site for this single-case study, which is a welcoming and innovative school located in the Western Sydney Region (WSR) of New South Wales (NSW). More importantly, it is one of the partner schools of the ROSETE Program where the teacher-researcher was engaged in performing his daily Chinese teaching and undertaking the current research project during a certain period of time (between 30/June/2016 and 20/December/2017). Meanwhile, a pseudo Chinese name - 剑桥花园小学 (jiàn qiáo huā yuán xiǎo xué) was given to protect the privacy of the relevant participants and stakeholders from this school.

As its name suggests, this local public school does take great pride in providing a safe and purposeful learning environment leading to the development of successful citizens. The school is well known for its academic focus, extensive opportunities in extra curricular activities and

strong community involvement. It continues to increase the use of technology across all key learning areas. The core value of this selected public school is to focus on innovative programs and practices, to deliver excellence in student achievement, as well as to connect with parents, community and the wider world. All the above-mentioned are also regarded as positive factors that deeply influenced the planned investigation and significantly improved the teacher-researcher's Chinese teaching practices.

This public school had no Chinese language courses until they were generated by the native Chinese volunteer teachers from the ROSETE Program who came to this school, working as the Chinese teacher-researchers for the local children. At the same time, the principal, classroom teachers and other staff in this school showed their full willingness to participate in this education and research program and to provide necessary support during the whole process of teaching and research. It is worth mentioning here that there existed various challenges and difficulties in conducting multiple sites of fieldwork due to the time and financial limits, and particularly the ethical considerations. Therefore, the single-sited case study is a reasonable choice for this school-based research, not only because of the limited time and funding resources, but also because of its peaceful and respectful learning environment for teaching and research.

4.3.2 Participant Recruitment

The researcher of this study was a Chinese volunteer teacher from the ROSETE Program. To be exact, while the teacher-researcher was teaching Chinese in this local public school he was undertaking his research project as well through participating in such a school-based and research-oriented program. The students from Stage 2 (Year 3 & Year 4) and Stage 3 (Year 5) were allocated to the teacher-researcher. This participant group shared the following relevant characteristics. At the very beginning, these participants were all the students with the age range from 8 to 12 in the researcher's Chinese class at the school where he volunteered in Chinese language teaching. Additionally, they were English speakers. However, most of them had some/limited Chinese language learning experiences in Kindergarten and Stage 1, and a small proportion of them had linguistically diverse backgrounds. The project aimed to explore how the local students' everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities and their funds of knowledge in the school-based community can be employed to enrich their learning of Chinese as a second/additional language. The characteristics of this participant group which were relevant to the aims of the project are as follows:

1. The participants were students in a Western Sydney school.
2. The participants were Year 3, Year 4 and Year 5 students who chose to learn Chinese in the teacher-researcher's class.
3. All of them were beginning learners and speakers of Chinese and most of them only had a few prior experiences of Chinese language in their earlier schooling.

Another participant group was the five classroom teachers in this local public school. They were the local school students' classroom teachers who assisted in managing the class when the teacher-researcher was giving the Chinese lessons, as he lacked the requisite Australian Teacher Qualification Certificate to teach on his own. In doing that, this group of participants helped the teacher-researcher observe the students' classroom performance and engagement. They also gave constructive comments and effective feedback on the Chinese lessons delivered after integrating the students' everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities and the frequently used language, as well as their preferred instruction styles regarding Chinese language learning. For such multi-faceted reasons and considerations, these were the participants chosen to be in this study.

The two types of participants formed three-strand data sources and essentially constructed the triangulation for this research project. It enabled the teacher-researcher to collect the overall data from such manifold angles which offer multiple involvements and perceptions. Figure 4.4 below displays the overall information concerning the actual selection and constituents of the research site and participants.

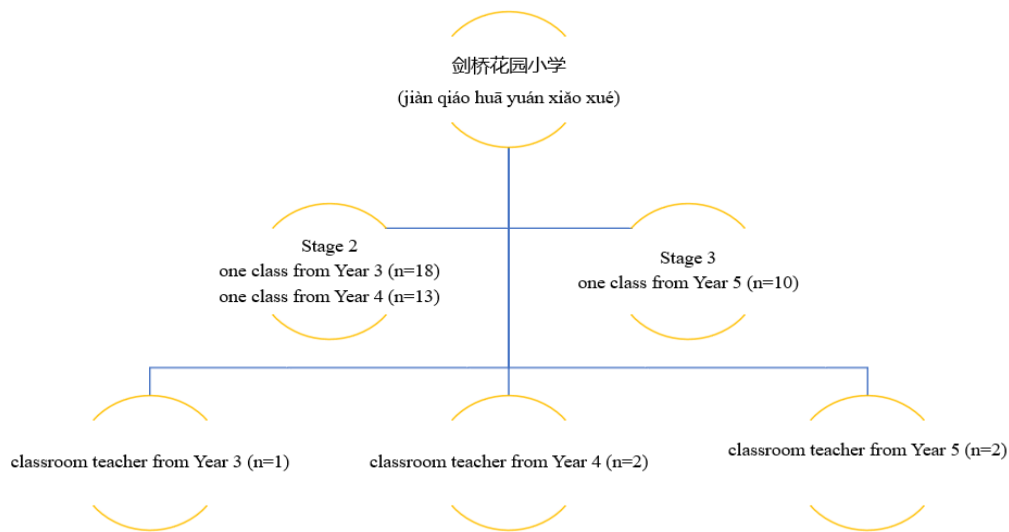


Figure 4. 4 An Overview of the Research Site and Participants

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4.3.3 Observations

Making observations requires “carefully watching and systematically recording what you see and hear in a particular setting” (Mertler, 2016, p. 200). Observation is a vital source of knowledge about the real world, as well as an effective and widely-used method in educational research (Baker, 2006). It should be noted that unstructured observations were made to collect the relevant data from the playground and classroom. Such observations “allow the researcher the flexibility to attend to other events or activities occurring simultaneously in the classroom or to engage in brief, but intense, periods of observation and note taking” (Mertler, 2016, p. 200). Informed by the research questions and the real situation, direct observation¹⁵ and participant-observation¹⁶ were also employed in this study. The general plan for such unstructured observations at the research site is illustrated in Figure 4.5.

¹⁵ Such observations can “range from formal to casual data collection activities” and include “developing observational instruments as part of the case study protocol” which can help to “assess the occurrence of certain types of behaviours during certain periods of time in the field” (Yin, 2018, p. 121).

¹⁶ Participant-observation is “a special mode of observation in which you are not merely a passive observer” (Yin, 2018, p. 123). That means “you may assume a variety of roles within a fieldwork situation and may actually participate in the actions being studied” (Yin, 2018, p. 123).

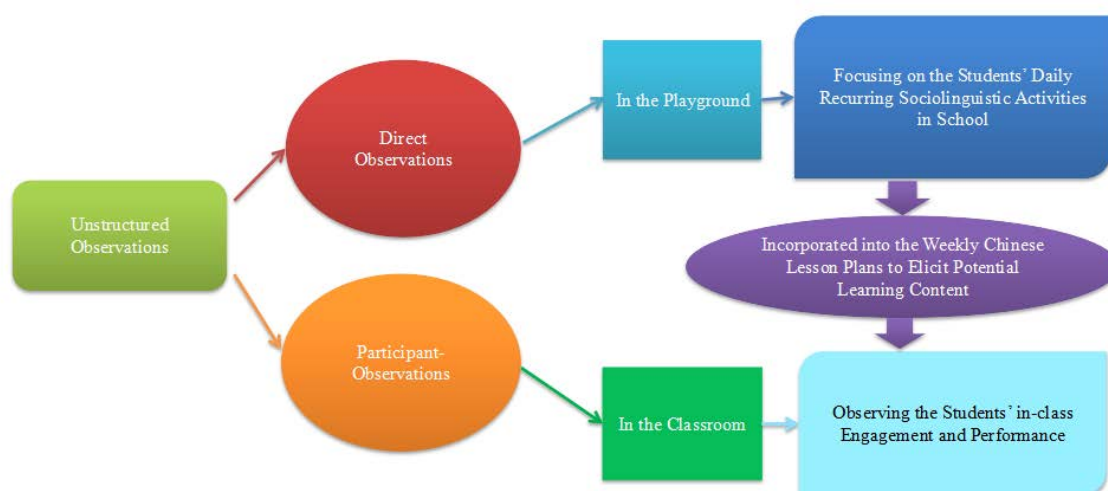


Figure 4. 5 General Plan for Unstructured Observations

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Direct observations were conducted in this local public school during morning and lunch recess in the playground, and participant-observations were carried out when the teacher-researcher was giving Chinese lessons in the classroom. The direct observations in the playground were used to trace these students' everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities in school. To be precise, during morning and lunch recess time all the students gather on the playground. In this period, they talk to each other, play with each other, sing songs, and play some sports with each other, which represent a variety of their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school. A case in point is that a ball game entitled *handball* is very popular. During morning and lunch recess, the teacher-researcher noticed that a group of students gathered in a corner or an especially-designed sports field on the playground to play this ball game as a team. Also, every Tuesday morning when the teacher-researcher came to the school, the students who were playing handball would invite me to join them. While they were playing handball, they used their fluent native language (English) to explain its rules, accompanied by their vivid physical actions to show me how to play such an activity correctly in this school. That inspired this teacher-researcher to observe and jot down such a sports activity in this school in his field notes. Thus, a random collection of the local school students' frequently occurring sociolinguistic activities during their school lives was captured as the observation focus in this period.

The observation period lasted from Term 1 to Term 4 during 2017. These direct observations were carried out during every Tuesday morning and lunch recess in the playground. All the data collected from the direct observations were kept in the field notes. These notes were utilised as valuable resources for the weekly lesson plans for Chinese language teaching and learning. That is to say, some sociolinguistic activities repeatedly performed by these students in this school were selected as the content sources for their learning of Chinese, to see whether they were capable of engaging them in class.

At the same time, participant-observations were applied to this research project. As the Chinese teacher-researcher was involved in both teaching and observing the lessons in class, the data from such participant-observations were collected and recorded in the form of audio files and photographs. The teacher-researcher focused on the students' engagement and performance in class after utilising the Chinese learning content sources, that is their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, and their preferred instruction strategies in school. The student participant group participated in the activities by having their engagement and performance in class observed, which were audio-recorded. Some photographs were taken during the participant-observations with their parents' fully informed consent.

Such participant-observations were conducted weekly in Term 2, Term 3 and Term 4 in 2017 with each being roughly 40 minutes in duration. All the data collected from the participant-observations were employed to evaluate the appropriateness, learnability and effectiveness of such learning content resources and teaching approaches adopted for enriching the students' learning of Chinese in class, and this was balanced with other corresponding data gathered during other observations.

4.3.4 Photo-Elicitation Interviews

The interview is an extensively used research method, especially in educational research as it can supply in-depth data with the benefit of great flexibility and applicability (Yin, 2018; Robson & McCartan, 2016). According to the characteristics of these participants and the specified research goals of this particular research, the photo-elicitation interview (PEI)¹⁷ was

¹⁷ Photo-elicitation interview (PEI) is a qualitative research method advanced by anthropologists and sociologists, which can aid to build a bridge among the gaps that presently separate researchers, educators, students and family members. In PEI, researchers or participants take photos that are utilised to elicit conversations concerning the relevant experiences of the participants. This technique is a fresh research tool that scholars and educational leaders can apply to perceive the less observable aspects of the school community and to highlight the voices of practitioners and children (Allen, 2009; Werts, Brewer & Mathews, 2012). PEI allows children to grow into active

used as “a reasonable approach” for validating the information attained from the other two data sources in this research project (Yin, 2018, p. 121). The blueprint for the photo-elicitation interviews was made up of 36 printed photos and pictures, as well as 6 broad interview questions with corresponding prompts and probes to direct the whole interviewing process. The interviewees were divided into two groups, including the students’ group and the classroom teachers’ group. The overall guiding interview questions (see Appendix 7) were somewhat altered due to the differences of research focus aimed at the two participant groups, and their individual characteristics.

Based on the general procedures for implementing PEI, the photo-elicitation interviews for this study consisted of the following five phases. Firstly, the relevant photographs¹⁸ were taken, collected and selected after obtaining the approval of NEAF and SERAP. Secondly, six general interview questions aimed at the different participant groups were proposed in advance in order to keep the interviews relevant to the research topic and questions throughout the interviewing process. Thirdly, an interview protocol¹⁹ (see Appendix 9) was designed to guide the photo-elicitation interviews to be conducted smoothly and purposefully. Fourthly, after the appropriate photographs were developed, they were utilised to lead the interviews and elicit educationally purposeful conversations from among the participants. Finally, the data collected were kept in audio files, then transcribed and analysed in the form of a findings’ report (Torre & Murphy, 2015).

As for the strategies used to elicit such conversations, it is worth stating that the photographs, pictures and screenshots used for the photo-elicitation interviews were given a short description

collaborators in a study as they undertake the role of a teacher, clarifying their thoughts and viewpoints to an adult researcher (Cappello, 2005; Clark-Ibanez, 2004). Furthermore, PEI among children recognises them as vigorous contributors to their individual lives (Almqvist & Almqvist, 2015; Clark, 1999). Young children always tend to be at a disadvantage in conventional interviews as most of them have neither the perceptive and social skills to take part in such question-and-answer discourse, nor the verbal skills to answer specific questions, nor the capability to expand upon their understandings of some abstract notions (Crivello, Campfield & Woodhead, 2009). Making full use of photos, pictures, drawings, maps or historical archives can make intangible concepts become solid for children (Torre & Murphy, 2015).

¹⁸ Given the ethical issues involved, the relevant photographs used in the PEI were collected in the following three ways. The photographs can be from the Chinese teacher-researcher’s daily teaching practices and classroom observations (after obtaining the approval of NEAF and SERAP and their full consent). Another alternative is that the photographs can be downloaded from the public website of this local school. Finally, the relevant photographs can be presented in the form of drawings or screenshotted pictures, instead of actually taking them as photos.

¹⁹ Interview protocol is “not only a set of questions, but also a procedural guide for directing a new qualitative researcher through the interview process” (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012, p. 2).

by the teacher-researcher in advance as a caption on the back of each printed one (Torre & Murphy, 2015). By combining the captions and images together, a mini-album was created that did help the participants recall the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, and their engagement and performance after adopting such learning content and learning activities in Chinese lessons. This was effective in establishing rapport and ensuring that these children were actively engaged in such interviews (Cappello, 2005; Torre & Murphy, 2015). Next, the participants were asked to describe these visualised materials and to produce more detailed and important descriptions and information in combination with such guiding interview questions (for classroom teachers and students separately). The process for conducting the photo-elicitation interviews at the research site is outlined in Figure 4.6.

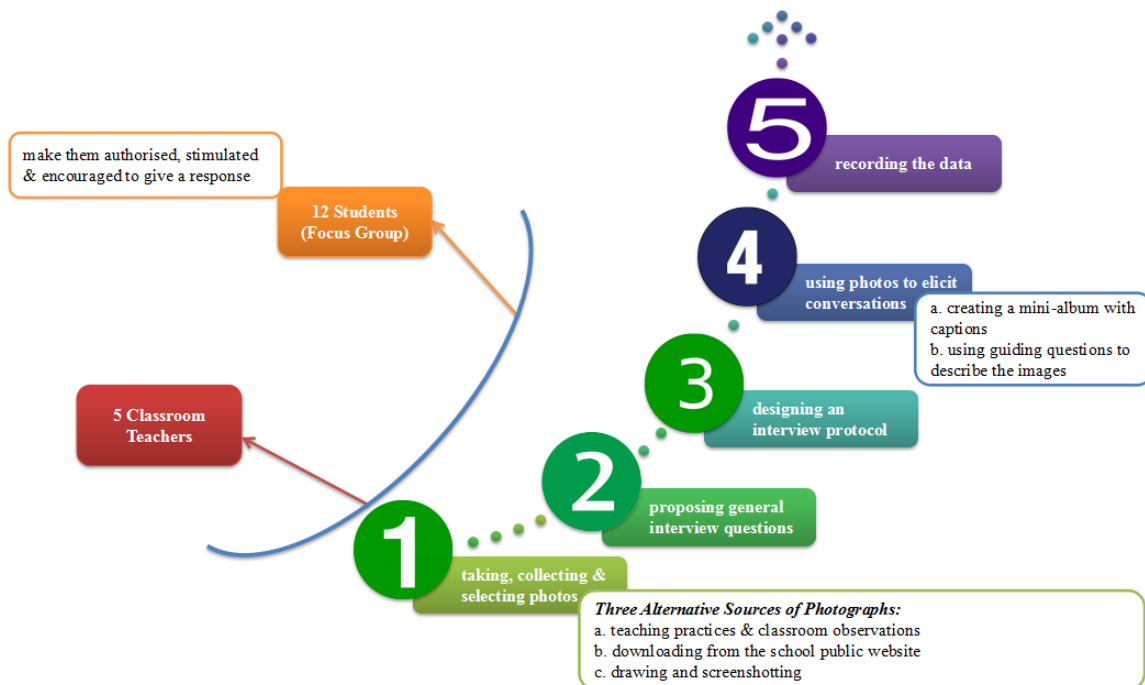


Figure 4. 6 General Plan for Photo-Elicitation Interviews (Source from Torre & Murphy, 2015)

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The classroom teachers were the subjects of the individual photo-elicitation interviews. As for this participant group, classroom teachers were invited to participate in an individual photo-elicitation interview at the end of Term 2, Term 3 and Term 4 according to their available schedule in school and the lessons delivered in their classes. Meanwhile, the selected photos taken and the students' drawing samples from the teacher-researcher's Chinese lessons, as well as the pertinent screenshots and pictures from his lesson plans were prepared and shown to the

teacher participants during each interview to solicit their views and feedback. Each individual interview was approximately 30 minutes long and completed in the classroom and the staff room during recess. The interviews were audio-recorded.

Table 4. 1 An Overview of PEI among the Classroom Teacher Participant Group

Number	Participant	Class	Date
1	Ms. Shěn	Year 3	13/06/2017; 07/12/2017
2	Mr. Kē	Year 4	20/06/2017; 28/11/2017
3	Ms. Lǐ	Year 5	19/09/2017
4	Ms. Shǐ	Year 4	20/9/2017; 05/12/2017
5	Ms. Mù	Year 5	21/11/2017

Focus group photo-elicitation interviews were used to interview the student participant group. The primary reason for using focus group²⁰ interviews, instead of individual photo-elicitation interviews among the students is that children tend to feel authorised, stimulated and encouraged to give a response and make comments in front of their peers in such small groups, when individually they would be reluctant and have nothing to say (Robson & McCartan, 2016). To be precise, the focus group interviews were carried out among the consenting student participants at the end of Term 2 and Term 4, where certain photographs (taken during the class observations), along with vivid images (chosen from the daily Chinese teaching plans) were organised and presented to them to gain their opinions and comments. Each focus group

²⁰ Focus group is “the name given simultaneous interviews of people making up a relatively small group, usually no more than 10-12 people” (Mertler, 2016, p. 206). Furthermore, “interactions among the focus-group participants may be extremely informative due to people’s tendency to feed off other comments” (Mertler, 2016, p. 206). However, it is crucial for the researcher to make “each participant have the opportunity to speak and share her or his perspective”, as well as “monitor the discussion closely” when carrying out a focus group interview (Mertler, 2016, p. 206).

interview was around 25 minutes long and performed during recess in the school foyer (their classroom teachers were with the students during the interviews). The focus groups were recorded in the audio files.

Table 4. 2 An Overview of PEI among the Student Participant Group

Number	Participant	Class	Date
1	N=4	Year 3	19/06/2017; 07/12/2017
2	N=4	Year 4	20/06/2017; 28/11/2017
3	N=4	Year 5	19/06/2017; 21/11/2017

4.3.5 Documents

The purpose behind the drive to produce the data from relevant documents in case study research is to “corroborate and augment evidence from other sources” (Yin, 2018, p. 115). The purpose of exploring the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and their preferred instruction styles is essentially to generate suitable, localised and eventually learnable content for constructing a student-centred curriculum for their learning of Chinese in the local context. Therefore, data from the teacher-researcher’s actual use of weekly Chinese lesson plans, the teaching and learning materials, the self-reflection journals, the students’ work samples, as well as the existing Australian syllabus (Chinese K-10 Syllabus, 2003 version) and curriculum (ACARA, 2013 version) for Chinese language education were collected. The documents generated from the teacher-researcher’s daily teaching practices such as the field notes, the instruction resources and the students’ in-class masterpieces were mainly concerned with the period of Term 1, Term 2, Term 3 and Term 4 in 2017. These data sources contributed to supplementing the information from the observations and the interviews to a large extent, which were kept in the form of text discourses. The overview of the data obtained from such documentation is charted in Figure 4.7.

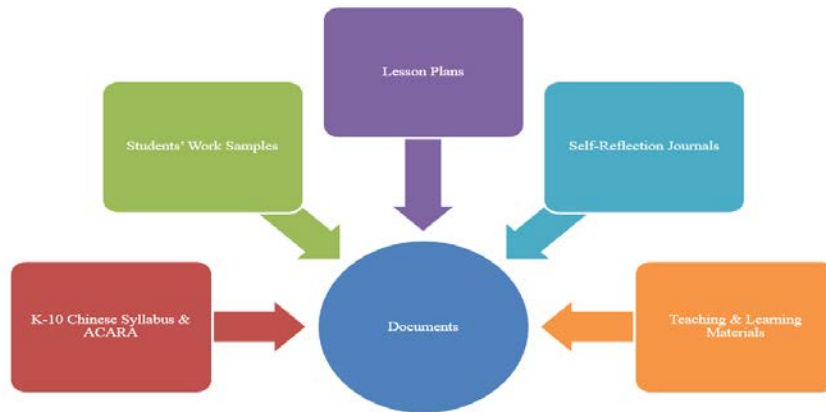


Figure 4. 7 Components of Documentation

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4.4 Procedures and Strategies of Data Analysis

According to Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, qualitative data analysis consists of “three concurrent flows of activity including: *data condensation, data display and conclusion drawing/verification*” (2013, p. 12). This means that the three interactive cycles may be repetitive, and emergent facets may be supplemented to the whole process of data analysis. The procedures and methods to be adopted for tackling the gathered data in this research project are elucidated as follows, and as indicated in Figure 4.8 (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 14).

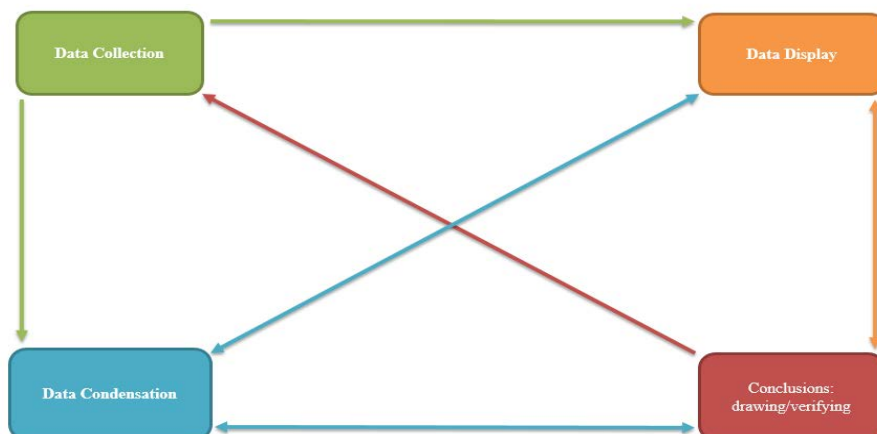


Figure 4. 8 Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model

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4.4.1 Data Condensation

Data condensation refers to “the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and/or transforming the data that appear in the full corpus (body) of written-up field notes, interview transcripts, documents, and other empirical materials” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 12). Data condensation occurs during the whole process of a case study, as selecting and analysing data is a constant process rather than a simple quantification. To conduct a well-balanced data condensation two techniques for processing data are used, namely coding and codes. Coding is “thus a data condensation task that enables you to retrieve the most meaningful material, to assemble chunks of data that go together, and to further condense the bulk into readily analysable units” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 73). Codes are “prompts or triggers for deeper reflection on the data’s meanings” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 73). Meanwhile, the selection of appropriate coding methods strongly depends on what manifold sorts of data have been generated in a study. According to Saldaña (2009), the coding decision is based both on “an emergent conceptual framework for the study” (p. 48), and on “the methodological needs of the study” (p. 49). On the one hand, “specific coding methods decisions may happen before, during, and/or after an initial review of the data corpus” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 48). This is proper for such a flexible research design as that of the current research project, to shed some tentative insights on the emergent information, especially during the process of conducting daily Chinese language teaching. On the other hand, considering the “reverberative nature of coding²¹”, it is widely held that “the qualitative analytic process is cyclical rather than linear” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 45).

Therefore, for the present study, multi-layered types of evidence were gathered from the daily field notes, the interview transcripts and the relevant documents. Given the characteristics of the collected data, a two-cycle coding process (open coding²² and focused coding²³), in

²¹ That means such a coding process involves “comparing data to data, data to code, code to code, code to category, category to category, category back to data, etc.” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 45).

²² “All proposed codes during this cycle are tentative and provisional”, as well as “some codes may be reworded as analysis progresses”, which informs researchers that “more data are needed to support and build an emerging theory” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 82).

²³ Focused Coding is “appropriate for virtually all qualitative studies, but particularly for studies employing grounded theory methodology, and the development of major categories or themes from the data”, which intends

combination with the utilisation of multiple coding methods (Descriptive Coding²⁴, In Vivo Coding²⁵, Process Coding²⁶, Emotion Coding²⁷, Evaluation Coding²⁸, Pattern Coding²⁹, Axial Coding³⁰ and Theoretical Coding³¹) were applied to explore the various themes and categories which arose in a thorough and credible way, thereby saturating the codes (Pattern Codes³²) and categories generated from the data (Miles, et al., 2013; Saldaña, 2009; Ezzy, 2002). Table 4.3 summaries the coding methods adopted, as well as the coding purposes and the outcomes attained through engaging in two major cycles for coding.

to “develop categories without distracted attention at this time to their properties and dimensions” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 155).

²⁴ A Descriptive Coding assigns “labels to data to summarize in a word or short phrase-most of a noun-the basic topic of a passage of qualitative data” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 74).

²⁵ In Vivo Coding uses “words or short phrases from the participant’s own language in the data record as codes” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 74).

²⁶ The Process Coding method uses “gerunds (“-ing” words) exclusively to connote observable and conceptual action in the data” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 74).

²⁷ Emotion Coding labels “the emotions recalled and/or experienced by the participant or inferred by the researcher about the participant” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 75).

²⁸ Evaluation Coding applies “primarily non-quantitative codes onto qualitative data that assign judgments about the merits, worth, or significance of programs or policy” (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013, p. 76).

²⁹ Pattern Coding, as a Second Cycle method, is “a way of grouping those summaries into a smaller number of categories, themes, or constructs” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 86).

³⁰ As for Axial Coding, the “axis” is “a category (like the axis of a wooden wheel with extended spokes) discerned from First Cycle Coding”, which is “appropriate for studies employing grounded theory methodology, and subjects with a wide variety of data forms”, thus “grouping similarly coded data reduces the number of Initial Codes you developed while sorting and re-labeling them into conceptual categories” (Saldaña, 2009, pp. 159, 160).

³¹ In Theoretical Coding, “all categories and subcategories now become systematically linked with the central/core category”, which is “appropriate as the culminating step toward achieving grounded theory” by “integrating and synthesizing the categories derived from coding and analysis to now create a theory” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 164).

³² Pattern codes are “explanatory or inferential codes, ones that identify an emergent theme, configuration, or explanation”. They “pull together a lot of material from first cycle coding into more meaningful and parsimonious units of analysis”. They are “a sort of meta-code” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 86).

Table 4. 3 Choices of Coding Methods and Achievements of Coding

Coding Cycle	Coding Method	Concise Explanation	Coding Purpose & Attainment
Open Coding	Descriptive Coding	Using a word or a short phrase to label, summarise and categorise a basic topic from a chunk of data	Establishing the basic awareness and sense of familiarity with the generated data, as well as recognising a catalogue of the forms of local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and their preferred instruction styles in the school-based community, which can be utilised as the content sources for their learning of Chinese.
	In Vivo Coding	Quoting the original words or short phrases from the participants' own language to show their views	
	Process Coding	Employing the gerunds (-ing) words to signify the activities and reactions being performed and observed from the data set	Illustrating the actual uses and outcomes of such learning content and activities to engage the local students' learning of Chinese based on these students' in-class real responses, participation and performances recorded in the teacher-researcher's field notes, as well as the feedback and comments deriving from the educationally purposeful conversations with the students and their classroom teachers.
	Emotion Coding	Applying the emotional adjectives to describe and recall the experiences from the participants	
	Evaluation Coding	Providing feedback on the advantages, effectiveness, learnability and importance of the learning content and activities delivered and conducted during Chinese lessons	
Focused Coding	Pattern Coding	Clustering those codes into a condensed pattern according to the resemblance of thematic and conceptual constructs	Grouping the embodiments of various students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, combining with their preferred learning styles in this local public school into the four terms' Chinese learning units and modules, separately regarding each sociolinguistic activity form as one

			learning topic, to elicit the potentially learnable Chinese curriculum by mutually discussing, negotiating and constructing with them in class, thereby seeing and justifying the learnability and appropriateness of such learning resources in enriching their learning of Chinese within the local education environment through a holistic lens, throughout the four terms' Chinese language teaching and learning all together.
	Axial Coding	Converging the core category for mapping and constructing the internal relationships between the outstanding themes and concepts via substantiating their attributes and scopes	Bettering the major themes, categories and (Chinese) concepts identified for further understanding regarding how to link them to the research questions proposed for the intended inquiry.
	Theoretical Coding	Integrating and connecting all the salient and significant themes, concepts and categories into the research focus and questions in a logical arrangement, to develop a theoretic-pedagogical framework	Ascertaining the interrelationships and building the continuum between the key categories of Chinese language as a local practice and students' funds of knowledge in the school-based community, for theorising the localised and student-centred curriculum construction for learning of Chinese from such multi-dimensional perspectives, hence linking back to the research focus through answering and conceptualising the research questions.

Subsequently, based on two cycles' coding and the created codes, the evidentiary-conceptual unit analysis strategy is used in the following stage of data display and explanation (Miles, et al., 2013; Emerson, Fretz & Shaw, 2011). Accordingly, the entry point for each conceptual analysis is followed by its corresponding evidence excerpts that are to be introduced to show the data sources and then better such conceptual-oriented interpretation for each data set. To

be exact, the specific procedures for making the conceptual commentary on the categorised data clusters are illustrated as follows, which are composed of the four core constituents for implementing an evidentiary-conceptual unit analysis in a recursive style, in terms of performing the process for writing data analysis (Singh, 2013b):

Procedure 3: write a sentence introducing the significant concept to be discussed here, which is a conceptual statement that identifies the key analytic point.

Procedure 4: introduce the evidentiary excerpt by providing orienting information that refers to the source of the excerpt.

Procedure 1: provide the evidentiary excerpt which can be a direct quotation, a table, a visual photograph, a vignette or a descriptive excerpt.

Procedure 2: write a conceptual commentary, accompanied by using theoretical tools grounded in the details of the excerpt.

It should be noted that being combined with the techniques, such as features vs non-features, examples vs non-examples, and using analogies from Chinese concepts, such evidentiary-conceptual unit analysis is elaborated upon in both a logical and vivid way, thus eventually laying a solid foundation for developing an evidence-driven theoretic-pedagogical framework based on those emerging conceptual constructs. The overview of the process for generating the findings is demonstrated in Figure 4.9.

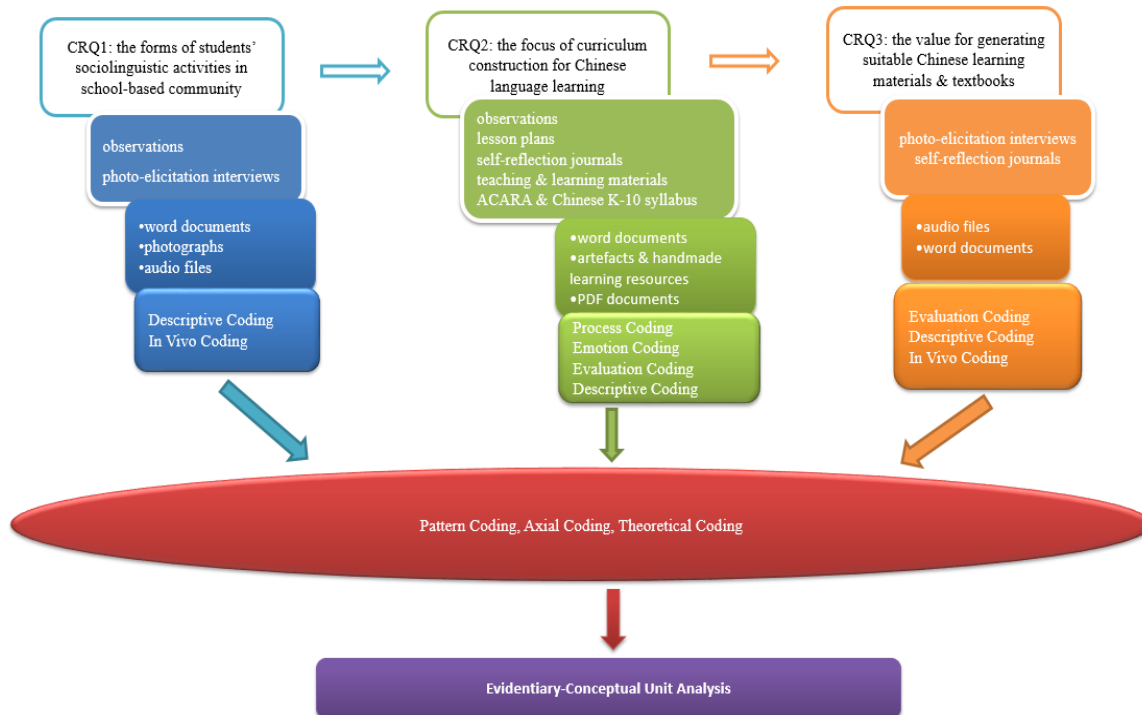


Figure 4. 9 Process of Findings' Generation

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4.4.2 Data Display

Data display is “an organized, compressed assembly of information that allows conclusion drawing and action” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 12). According to the characteristics of the data collected and processed, three ways of data display, namely “narrative description”, “matrix display” and “network display” were employed for the subsequent phases of data retrieval and analysis in this study (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 91).

4.4.3 Drawing and Verifying Conclusions

Drawing conclusions in qualitative research means a process of constructing meaning for the condensed data. Verification is “as brief as a fleeting second thought crossing the analyst’s mind” during the process of report writing (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 13). This stage generally comprises checking the “plausibility, sturdiness, and confirmability” of the meanings from the created data - “that is, their validity” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 14). Accordingly, this section focuses on the specific strategies adopted to corroborate such findings generated from this research project, eventually reaching the verified conclusions. Based on the tactics proposed by Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2013) for making sense of the data and confirming the

corresponding findings, Table 4.4 displays the approaches and descriptions that make the relevant outcomes happen as the medium for evolving the data analysis process “from descriptive to explanatory, and from concrete to conceptual and abstract” (Miles & Huberman, as cited in Qi, 2015, p. 62).

Table 4. 4 Tactics and Actions for Generating Meanings and Testing Conclusions (Source and Adapted from Miles, et al., 2013; Qi, 2015)

Strategies	Descriptions & Actions
Clustering	<p>Classifying the conceptual entries into the more general categories via combining and comparing.</p> <p>Establishing a higher level of abstractions through conceptualising the similar patterns and attributes.</p> <p>Engaging in the iterative interaction between the primary subcategories obtained and the more general categories.</p> <p>Continuing such process until the categories are saturated to a certain extent.</p>
Making Metaphors	<p>Deciding on an inventory of pertinent metaphors from the existing Chinese concepts and daily expressions, such as <i>chéng yǔ</i> (成语) and <i>sú yǔ</i> (俗语).</p> <p>Utilising them as the corresponding departure points for making the evidentiary-conceptual unit analysis where needed and appropriate.</p> <p>Integrating the metaphors (analogies) into the process for being informed of the findings in order to develop and construct the theoretic-pedagogical framework.</p>
Noting the Relations Between Variables	<p>Sensing the interrelationship between the analytic themes through structuring the matrices and networks.</p> <p>Building the relations between commentary points through holistic and logical thinking.</p> <p>Examining the rival explanations, ruling out the spurious relations or using the extreme cases as the counter-evidence to involve such counter-argument.</p>

<p>Building a Logical Chain of Evidence</p>	<p>Forming an enumerative induction through collecting a number and variety of instances from observations, photo-elicitation interviews and documentation, concentrating on all going in the same direction.</p> <p>Using eliminative induction to examine the intended inquiry focus and questions of this study against the alternatives to see and justify the qualifications that ensure the transferability of the conclusions drawn from this research project.</p>
<p>Making Conceptual/Theoretical Coherence</p>	<p>Illuminating significant, interesting and unexpected findings from this study.</p> <p>Connecting such findings to each piece of evidence illustrated.</p> <p>Recognising the corresponding problems and debates, as well as those beneficial aspects, from the existing literature.</p> <p>Charting a coherent and meaningful construction to link the data and the concepts.</p>
<p>Checking the Meaning of Outliers</p>	<p>Paying attention to those discrepant instances such as the extreme cases.</p> <p>Noticing and discovering some outlying persons, events, or settings.</p> <p>Staying open to, and attaching importance to, the outlier analysis for reinforcing an innovative possibility regarding the drawn conclusions.</p>

4.4.4 Reporting

Reporting research is an indispensable part of ensuring that the significant findings are circulated and shared (Yin, 2018). One of the aims of yielding the research report is to “persuade the reader that what you have done is worthwhile and based on some kind of logical intellectual process” (Walliman, 2011, p. 161). This can inform the target and potential audience of such significant or even unexpected findings from this study. Hence, the teacher-researcher’s thesis acting as a research report casts light on the research background, focus, objective, significance, methodology, data collection methods and procedures, data analysis strategies and procedures, theoretical construction process, as well as the drawn and verified conclusions.

4.5 Data Management

The key concerns with data management are ensuring that “high-quality, accessible data, documentation of just what analyses have been carried out, retention of data and associated analyses after the study is complete” (Miles, et al., 2013, p. 50). As a large proportion of the data in this research project was generated from several sources, it is of importance for the teacher-researcher to conduct secure and handy data management and retrieval. Considering the ethical issues involved, the data collected are saved and managed in the following ways (Miles, et al., 2013).

Initially, the audio files from the photo-elicitation interviews and participant-observations are kept with the use of pseudonyms in separate categorised folders and subfolders (e.g. Interviews - PE11 [date] - Apple; Observations - PO1 [date] - Orange) in the office computer for which a private password is required to gain access. Additionally, the data from documents, direct observations and photographs are stored in the form of categorised electronic and hard copy portfolios³³ (e.g. Portfolio A - Lesson Plans - Term 1 - Week 1; Portfolio B - Observations - DO1 [date] - Banana; Portfolio C - Photographs - Handball [date]), are kept and locked in the office computer and book cabinets. The last aspect which needs emphasising here is that all the data collected, processed and analysed are backed up in the teacher-researcher’s personal encrypted mobile hard disk drive for the purpose of double data security. As for the processed data, they are also saved as a form of database to be used for the subsequent data analysis and checking, as well as to make the data storage and retrieval accessible.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter initially departed from the philosophical underpinnings that informed the teacher-researcher to make a choice on the appropriate methodology for this research project. Consequently, a single-site case study as the research method was adopted within the framework of a flexible research design for this study, which is based on the principles concerning the validity, reliability, triangulation of the research and research ethics. In order to produce the credible data, thorough approaches to obtaining multiple sources of evidence were employed, including the unstructured observations, the photo-elicitation interviews and the

³³ The purpose of the portfolio is to “provide a record of progress, collect evidence for outcomes assessment, and encourage reflection on learning” (Garrett, 2011, p. 187).

relevant documents. Afterwards, the procedures and techniques used for processing, presenting and analysing the gathered data in a systematic way were elucidated, which will ultimately be reported as the drawn and verified conclusions from this study in the form of the teacher-researcher's PhD dissertation. At the same time, various tactics and devices were described as to the storage and management of the collected, processed and analysed data for the purpose of double security, as well as for the protection of privacy.

CHAPTER 5

WHAT TO TEACH? - GENERATING LOCALISED CHINESE LEARNING CONTENT FROM STUDENTS' DAILY RECURRING SOCIOLINGUISTIC ACTIVITIES

5.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 is the first evidentiary chapter that investigates the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in an Australian local public school through a teacher-researcher program entitled the ROSETE Program. Section 5.1 analyses the evidence from classroom teacher participants' perspectives, as well as student participants' preferences in relation to the forms of everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities performed in English during recess at school. Additionally, information from the teacher-researcher's daily observations and teaching experiences in school is also analysed as the supplementary evidence. Meanwhile, according to such evidence a conceptual analysis is provided to explain the concept of making Chinese happen as part of various local practices based on further developing Pennycook's 'language as a local practice' (2010). Following that, the suitable and learnable content sources that were mutually elicited and constructed among the students for their learning of [spoken] Chinese are provided in Section 5.2. Then, indigenous Chinese metaphors are adopted to guide the whole process of learning content co-construction and elucidating such evidence conceptually. Based on the conceptual analysis in the above two sections, three conceptualised minds were discovered during the process of knowing the local students to construct learnable and suitable learning content for them, which are provided in Section 5.3. Section 5.4 concludes this chapter.

5.1 Knowing Local Students' Daily Recurring Sociolinguistic Activities in School-Based Community

The ROSETE Program is a teacher training program that focuses on research orientation and school involvement. The volunteer teacher was allocated to a local public school to conduct Chinese language teaching during the schooldays. As he lacked an Australian Teaching Certificate, one classroom teacher was also required to be present with the Chinese volunteer teacher when he was carrying out the Chinese lessons. Meanwhile, the local classroom teachers were required to monitor the students all day in school, including being on duty for them during

recess, as well as playing some sports with them. Therefore, apart from the daily observations and teaching practices in school, it was essential to have an educationally purposeful conversation with these local classroom teachers and students after class, to better know the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities as performed in English at school.

This section presents and analyses a variety of students' daily sociolinguistic activities that they frequently performed in English at school. These preferred daily sociolinguistic activities were observed and informed by the classroom teachers and students in the local public school of Western Sydney (a pseudo name: jiàn qiáo huā yuán xiǎo xué - 剑桥花园小学), and recorded in the teacher-researcher's field notes of daily observations in school. Each of the following subsections is entitled with a theme from the collected evidence.

5.1.1 Gender-Neutral Sports

When it comes to the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, there are a variety of popular forms of activities among the students that are frequently performed in English. One of the classroom teachers mentioned four main daily school activities including “dancing, [doing] lots of sports, rope skipping, as well as singing [songs]” (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 19/06/2017), which would be useful resources for students' learning of [spoken] Chinese. In terms of the sports frequently played at school, Ms. Shěn told me that:

students like doing lots of sports, like soccer, basketball, as well as every morning, handball, and skipping, too (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 19/06/2017).

Another classroom teacher emphasized that:

these role activities, like soccer, volleyball, handball, and table tennis that the kids do in the playground [during recess], and the activities we do in our sports time. These sports are in students' sports sheets (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

The popularity of these sports events in school, including playing handball, basketball and soccer were also expressed by students. They showed great interest in doing these activities at school every day. For instance:

students simultaneously repeated their response towards ‘handball, handball, handball, handball, handball, handball...’ (Focus Group C, Year 5, 19/06/2017).

Students from another group indicated that:

they were eager to learn topics regarding Chinese basketball, ping-pong and music next term (Focus Group A, Year 3, 19/06/2017).

One of the focus groups also highlighted that:

They are familiar with the activities, like drawing, playing volleyball and ping-pong. Meanwhile, two students from this group - Jùn Wěi and Hào Rán suggested that maybe next term we can do more sports on the grass (Focus Group B, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

Meanwhile, as a Chinese volunteer teacher in school during my schooldays I noticed that:

In the morning, when I arrived at school and observed the activities they played on the playground, students from one of my Chinese classes ran towards me and said ‘nǐ hǎo - 你好’ (hello) to me. After that, they invited me to join them and showed me how to **play bounce ball - handball**. By means of this kind of playground activity, I can not only learn something from them, including skills of playing bounce ball, but also obtain more opportunities to interact with them in their daily activities (Field Notes, 23/08/2016).

Most students **played handball on the playground** in the morning and during the recess in this local public school. Meanwhile, I also noticed that almost every student can play handball very well and know the rules of this sport activity in school. Sometimes, students would invite me to play handball with them together, while explaining the basic rules of playing handball to me by using the frequently occurring linguistic terms in this sport (Field Notes, 07/02/2017).

According to these local students’ and classroom teachers’ feedback, as well as the teacher-researcher’s daily observations, gender-inclusive sports, such as playing handball, ping-pong, basketball and soccer, are daily recurring sociolinguistic activities for students in this public school. The fact that these gender-neutral sports are so frequently played suggests that the Chinese words for the terms used in these sports might be effectively employed in teaching Chinese in class. More importantly, handball, ping-pong and basketball are favoured by both male and female gender groups. Meanwhile, these ball activities are compulsory components of the local students’ sports curriculum during their sporting time in school.

Accordingly, as the four-character Chinese metaphor ‘xué yǐ zhì yòng’ (学以致用) goes, this means putting what has been learned into practice during the process of learning some abstract knowledge. In this case, handball, ping-pong and basketball are these local students’ daily recurring sports activities. Such forms of students’ recurring sociolinguistic practices provide them with more access to using [spoken] Chinese during the process of performing these

sporting events in the school-based community. Namely, doing these sports-related interactive practices exposes these students to employing the corresponding Chinese linguistic terms for such tangible activities from real life. In that way, students themselves are no longer merely ‘sports-related watchers’; they benefit from more physical activities, instead of just receiving ‘dead’ information (Koedinger, Kim, Jia, McLaughlin & Bier, 2015). Consequently, performing the recurring sports events makes the adoption of [spoken] Chinese happen more easily, and with greater frequency. This is not only likely to get them familiar with the intangible Chinese language in the form of concrete sporting-related practices, but also to enhance opportunities for using Chinese in the local context.

However, when being asked something in relation to a ball game called netball, which was also mentioned by many students in Chinese class, especially among the girls, one of the classroom teachers said that:

Oh, more girls like netball, but if you did netball the boys probably would not like it. Because it seems netball is more the girls’ dominant sport, the girls love netball. But the boys, it might be not their favourite if you said playing netball. Basketball is probably better. Because when girls play netball, the boys would probably think that, oh, that is the girls’ sport (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Li, Year 5, 19/09/2017).

It was clear that many girls preferred to play netball, and that it was the girls’ favourite sport in school. Few boys like playing it, because they regard it as a ‘girls’ sport. Such a finding is consistent with Taylor’s (2001) argument that netball, deriving from original forms of basketball, takes on several resemblances with basketball, which is habitually played more by females than males. Therefore, in terms of outdoor activities, it was advised that basketball would be the better choice, because it is not seen to be so heavily gendered and is more gender neutral. In this case, how these students’ daily recurring gender-neutral sporting activities performed in English at school inform the Chinese teacher-researcher of teaching content sources for their learning of [spoken] Chinese will be demonstrated in section 5.2.

5.1.2 Gender-Inclusive Celebratory Practice

The teacher-researcher’s observations also focused was on another form of daily recurring sociolinguistic activity in school - birthday celebration through singing the English song ‘Happy Birthday to You’ with the well-known melody, which is always undertaken by the students and their classroom teachers inside the classroom. This was also discussed with

various classroom teachers and focus group students through informal professional conversations. The relevant themes that emerged from the conversations are shown as follows.

According to Ms. Shěn:

Students have songs in English that they sing, while they are skipping [rope]. For instance, they sing ‘teddy bear, teddy bear, turn around’. They really like things with some rhythm (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 19/06/2017).

In addition, when students were asked about their preferred topic concerning learning Chinese, these children raised their voices, saying simultaneously:

Music, music, Chinese music...! Meanwhile, three boys cannot help expressing their knowledge regarding music. Namely, Tiān Lěi said ‘I know how to play [a] kind of music’. Hào Xuān mentioned ‘I know the guitar’. Bó Wén added ‘I can know any music’ (Focus Group A, Year 3, 19/06/2017).

Apart from the above discussions, two simultaneous and unexpected events occurred after the Chinese lessons. This teacher-researcher observed that:

One day, at the end of a Chinese lesson, one classroom teacher said that today was Měi Lín’s birthday, let us say ‘happy birthday’ to her. Just at that moment, I encouraged all the other students, and the classroom teacher to say ‘shēng rì kuài lè, Měi Lín.’ I noticed that all of them were willing to follow me to give her birthday wishes in Chinese. When I was leaving the classroom, the classroom teacher led the students to sing the song titled Happy Birthday to You in English (Field Notes, 8/08/2017).

The following Tuesday, in another class, a student was having a birthday. So the same celebratory tradition occurred whereby the class sang ‘Happy Birthday’ to a girl in the class. What has been observed in both classes is the Australian classroom tradition or habit of students, and their classroom teachers, not just saying ‘happy birthday’, but also singing that song as a group to their fellow student. This tradition of singing ‘Happy Birthday’ potentially can occur up to around thirty times a year where the class sings to a peer. Classroom traditions such as this are normalised when a student’s birthday happens (Field Notes, 15/08/2017).

Then, when being probed about the frequency and significance of saying ‘happy birthday’ and singing the ‘happy birthday’ song in school, Ms. Lǐ remarked that:

Yeah, we always sing it when we bring in a cake, so we say ‘happy birthday’ and sing ‘happy birthday’. I think that is a good idea. Because that is a song that they already know, so it is easy for them to learn. They

have already known the tune, the background, music. So it is easy for them to catch on to that song and learn that. And something that they can relate to that song as well. So it is not something that, I guess, is foreign to them - make them know the happy birthday song (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Li, Year 5, 19/09/2017).

As the above information indicates, the local school students show a great preference for music, and events or activities which are accompanied by unforgettable childhood melodies. In the meantime, there exists a school ritual in Australia which is to celebrate someone's birthday by way of saying 'happy birthday' orally and singing the birthday song *Happy Birthday to You* during school time. A bold level of confidence in participating in the sung form seems to emerge naturally. Finally, by its very nature of being the international 'birthday song', students pick up the rhythm quickly, the expression of rhythm being widespread within the local school context, and which is another embodiment of the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activity at school. Therefore, learning of [spoken] Chinese is likely to seem easier not only when the material is familiar to the local school students, but also when it is part of a celebratory practice.

The concept of 'making use of the Chinese language in local celebratory practices' through singing the world-renowned birthday song with its memorable tune in the school-based environment, echoes the notion put forward by Singh, Han and Ballantyne (2014) that native Chinese volunteer teachers should explore the local students' authentically culturally-related and regularly accessible sociolinguistic activities, for instance, singing with the familiar and attractive rhythms, to make the use of Chinese happen naturally in such specific school-based daily practices. This entails that Chinese teachers of the local school students not can, but should recognise and adopt the students' prior knowledge of the internationally popular birthday song in English, as they already know the tune. Teaching for L1 (English) to L2 (Chinese) transfer would be more effective, because the tune is the same regardless of whether it is sung in English or Chinese.

5.1.3 Mathematical Calculations

The Australian NSW Department of Education is committed to developing students' literacy and numeracy abilities from the very start of their kindergarten assessment through to the end of Year 12. Specifically, on the website of this public school it was found that:

NSW's 'Kindergarten Best Start Assessment' are carried out to help parents and teachers identify the children's literacy understandings and numeracy skills before their formal learning in this school (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).

Progressively, various learning programs from the local government education bodies are provided to support students from different stages who encounter learning difficulties in extending their numeracy capabilities in school. For instance:

Learning programs aimed to cultivate students' accuracy and efficiency in numeracy, such as 'Quick Smart Numeracy' are frequently conducted in the form of pair or individual tutorials in this school (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).



Mathematical calculation activities are fundamental to students' daily school lives, which are also aspects of their recurring sociolinguistic activities at school. When these students were asked what they expected to learn from Chinese lessons, they informed the Chinese teacher-researcher by replying:

Math...! Can we learn Chinese math? And then Chinese writing - I want to write some Chinese - numbers and Chinese mathematics. Can we make some Chinese mathematics? (Focus Group A, Year 3, 19/06/2017).

As for the mathematical calculations, a classroom teacher mentioned that:

They do a lot of math in school. I think they will enjoy that (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Li, Year 5, 19/09/2017).

Mathematical calculations are part of these students' daily recurring calculating practices at school. Various teaching instruments and learning modules in relation to instruction in mathematical calculations are performed, especially in the junior classes, at this local public school every day. Such a situation rightly creates a supportive learning space for making the Chinese language relevant to mathematical calculation activities.

Integrating such subjects as mathematics, geography and science into a language-oriented learning task is conducive to enhancing the students' use of target language in a learner-focused environment (Bailey, 2015). Correspondingly, through practising such processes, students' learning gains are reciprocally embedded into two facets due to its dual-focused nature, focusing on both content information and language purpose (Mehisto, 2012). To be exact,

combining content from other subjects into a language-based learning program can enormously and effectively facilitate learners' metalinguistic perception regarding the intangible language symbols of the corresponding subject field, such as mathematics (Surmont, Struys, van Den Noort & van De Craen, 2016). This would contribute to student use of [spoken] Chinese during the process of carrying out mathematical practices in the school-based community, especially when the content is closely relevant to these students' daily learning subject - mathematics. More importantly, their high level of participation in the learning of such mathematical content, with regard to those linguistics terms which normally and necessarily occur in making mathematical calculations, will also give rise to them speaking Chinese naturally, and then habitually. Thus, mathematics can become a creative channel for enriching the local students' learning of [spoken] Chinese due to its regularity and importance for both female and male students in school.

5.1.4 Canteen Shopping

Shopping in the canteen is also an indispensable daily activity in this school.

As seen in the photograph taken from this local school, there is a canteen located in a corner of campus. During recess and lunch time, a lot of students would gather and line up here to buy their favourite food, such as bananas, mandarins, apples, bottled water, spring rolls, Chinese fried rice and sushi rolls from this school canteen (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).



The food is always sold in the form of package with a reasonable price tagged as '\$5 meal deal' (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).



Furthermore, this local public school is involved in a well-established program in the western suburbs of Sydney, known as 'Crunch & Sip'. Such a program is an easy way to help the kids stay healthy and happy. Meanwhile, it provides the students, teachers and staff with an opportunity of eating vegetable and fruit during an allocated Crunch & Sip break during school time (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).



Shopping practice at this canteen is also part of these students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school. To increase the awareness of the importance of eating vegetables and fruit, as well as drinking water at school, this canteen employs the Crunch & Sip program. Namely,

it improves students' access to buying healthy food at the school canteen during breaks. Such shopping practice at this school canteen involves the use of various and resourceful English linguistic terms in relation to initiating a shopping conversation; asking for food, exchanging food for money, expressing thanks, as well as ending a shopping conversation. That is to say, this sort of real-life activity can allow these students to use 'live language', as it would occur in an outside school shopping dialogue, allowing them to transfer such daily concrete practice to potential [Chinese] knowledge attainment (Herrington, Reeves & Oliver, 2014).

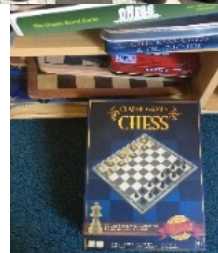
5.1.5 Chess

Playing chess is a popular game among the students at jiàn qiáo huā yuán xiǎo xué (剑桥花园小学). In school, it was found that:

students not only always play chess on a specifically-designed area with the real chess pieces on the playground, but also every year some of them attend a chess competition held by the local Department of Education on behalf of their own school (Field Notes, 20/06/2017).



Meanwhile, in classroom there are many boxes of chess pieces and chess boards for students to learn how to play chess (Field Notes, 20/06/2017).



Based on the above information, the students develop a great interest in chess at school due to their easy access to such equipment, playing it in the playground and in the classroom. There are chess tournaments among the local students held by the Education Department, intended to cultivate their interest and capabilities in playing chess during school time and after school. It is another opportunity for the students to use [spoken] Chinese as they play a game, in this case chess. What is more, a chess game, by its very nature of being 'commonly played according to rules', with its unique 'frequently used linguistic terms and normally nominated piece roles' allows both genders, without being age or grade-specific, to participate in it with a certain high frequency within the school setting. Playing chess is another typical example of the local students' everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities in school. Therefore, this daily recurring sociolinguistic activity in school - playing chess, abounds with available content resources for the local students' learning of [spoken] Chinese.

5.2 Eliciting Learnable Chinese Teaching Content from Students' Daily Recurring Sociolinguistic Activities


This particular school is well-provided with sports courts and sporting equipment for students' use during recess and lunch. That is to say, students have easy and convenient access to ball sports during school time. It is a tradition that a student's or teacher's birthday is celebrated with the saying and singing of 'Happy birthday' in class. These and other embodiments of students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, including making mathematical calculations, shopping at the school canteen and playing chess, are full of suitable and learnable content, which can be applied to the learning of [spoken] Chinese. Therefore, the following section will focus on how to explore the frequently occurring English linguistic terms in such students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities undertaken in school.

Evidentiary sources in this chapter consist of the teacher-researcher's lesson plans, field notes, learning materials for daily Chinese teaching practices, as well as educationally purposeful conversations with the students and their classroom teachers. These evidentiary excerpts were analysed to explore, select and produce the appropriate and retrievable teaching content for the local students' learning of [spoken] Chinese. In this section, the teacher-researcher describes how he used units of work, or weekly Chinese lesson plans, as the starting point to exemplify the process of generating the localised learning content in class.

5.2.1 Sports Activities-Based Learning Content

In terms of the Chinese teaching content sources from the above-mentioned local students' daily recurring ball sports, such as playing handball, ping pong and basketball, some instances of learning content generation are illustrated in the following samples of weekly lesson plans. The Chinese teaching plan shown below was to explore the English linguistic terms which occurred in playing handball.

Table 5. 1 Chinese Lesson Plan for Exploring Linguistic Terms Occurring in Playing Handball

Term 1 & Week 1	Unit Title: Sports - shǒu qiú - 手球 (handball)	Date: February 21, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>Initially, the students are expected to be familiar with the meaning and pronunciation of ‘shǒu qiú - 手球’ (handball).</p> <p>Then, this lesson intends to obtain frequently occurring English linguistic terms in playing handball when a group of students in class show the rules in relation to how to play it in this local school.</p> <p>After learning ‘shǒu qiú - 手球’ (handball), the students are expected to be able to use this Chinese vocabulary, along with other new expressions when playing handball in the playground.</p>		
Lesson Outline	Review Activity	<p>Reviewing the learnt vocabularies used in playing soccer, including ‘zú qiú-足球’ (soccer), ‘kāi qiú-开球’ (serve the ball), ‘chuán qiú-传球’ (pass the ball), ‘jiēqiú-接球’ (catch the ball), ‘chǎn qiú-铲球’ (tackle) and ‘shè mén-射门’ (shoot).</p>	
	Warm-up Activity	<p>Can you teach/show me how to play (shǒu qiú - 手球) handball?</p>	
Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement	Equipment to Be Used	<p>Classroom’s multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, PowerPoint, a soccer and a handball.</p>	
	Classroom Arrangement to Be Made	<p>Students will be instructed to stand in a line, and then sit in a circle on the floor when performing the review, and warm-up activities in class.</p>	

As playing handball is a popular sport in this local public school, most students know the rules concerning it. That is to say, they are really knowledgeable when it comes to playing handball. Therefore, after the review activity, a warm-up activity³⁴ was adopted to elicit the frequently occurring linguistic terms used for playing it. According to the daily observations concerning playing handball, four students are needed to participate. Subsequently, four students were selected in class to act out the real situation of playing handball. The following information was obtained during the process of performing how to play handball. After a quick discussion,

³⁴ It is worth mentioning that such a warm-up activity is adopted as a strategy to elicit the linguistic terms occurring in those students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, which can be selected and used as the learning content sources for Chinese language teaching. On the one hand, taking ethical issues into consideration, it would help the teacher-researcher to confine the participants to whom he is teaching Chinese. On the other hand, in class it can involve more students’ views concerning their topics of interest and preferred content in learning Chinese.

it was noticed that the four students separately stood in their own arranged position - 'Kings, Queens, Dunces and Aces'. While they were playing handball, they explained the specific rules. They told me that:

The King is the first person to start the game by bouncing and passing the ball. Mr Zhao you should move to another position when you didn't catch the ball, or to keep the game going. Before you move to another position, you need to dribble the ball (Field Notes, 21/02/2017).


Then, a video about the general rules of playing handball was played. During the process of watching this video, one of the students suddenly raised his hand to inform me that:

It is a little different from our school's rules of playing handball. At once, the classroom teacher added that the rules you have mentioned are our school's rules. All the students responded with 'yes' simultaneously in class (Field Notes, 21/02/2017).

It was apparent that inviting the students to act out the real situation concerning how to play handball well and properly in this local school, and watching the relevant video, not only made it easy to engage the students in their familiar field and interested topic in Chinese class, but also allowed the teacher-researcher to obtain the four basic verb phrases which frequently occur in playing handball, including 'bounce the ball, pass the ball, catch the ball and dribble the ball'. It is worth mentioning that most of the students had mastered how to say 'ball, pass the ball and take the pass' in Chinese from the previous Chinese lessons which concerned soccer. Hence, it was not difficult for them to pronounce and master the above-mentioned frequently used linguistic terms from playing handball. Given the students' learning levels in Chinese language, the teaching content and learning materials were developed and designed regarding how to play handball in Chinese by using the four frequently occurring verb phrases, namely 'bounce the ball, pass the ball, catch the ball and dribble the ball'.

With regard to the topic of ping pong, the learning content sources were developed in much the same way as for handball. These students had mastered some basic vocabularies concerning ball sports and their relevant linguistic expressions in Chinese. Therefore, the Chinese lessons for Term 2 from 2/05/2017 to 27/06/2017 were scheduled to make full use of another form of students' daily recurring ball activity - ping pong. The first Chinese lesson of this term began with the following teaching plan.

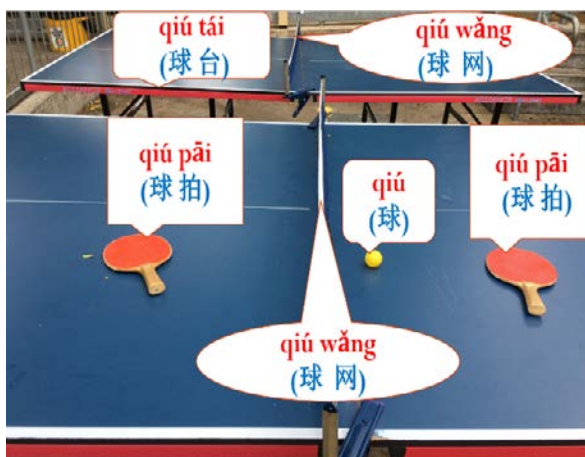
Table 5. 2 Chinese Lesson Plan for Exploring Linguistic Terms Occurring in Playing Ping Pong

Term 2 & Week 2	Unit Title: Sports - pīng pāng qiú - 乒乓球 (ping pong)	Date: May 02, 2017	Class: Year 3 & Year 4
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>The teaching purpose for the first Chinese lesson of this term focuses on exploring frequently occurring English linguistic terms in playing ping pong, such as the specified expressions and the necessary equipment in this ball game.</p> <p>After that, the students are expected to be familiar with pronunciations and meanings of such linguistic terms as occur in playing ping pong in Chinese.</p>		
Lesson Outline	Warm-up Activity	<p>Can you say something about ping pong (pīng pāng qiú - 乒乓球) in terms of the following perspectives?</p> <p>A. how to play it (the rules).</p> <p>B. how to calculate/know the scores of two parties.</p> <p>C. what is needed in this sport (sports equipment, people's roles).</p> <p>D. what actions/linguistic terms repeatedly occur in this sport.</p>	
Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement	Equipment to Be Used	Classroom's multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, PowerPoint, ball(s), bat(s), ping pong table(s) with net(s).	
	Classroom Arrangement to Be Made	Students will be instructed to sit on the floor in classroom, and then to line up in the area used for playing ping pong in the playground when performing the outdoor learning activity.	

As soon as the discussion question was shown to them, the students actively raised their hands to answer it. They can express their ideas clearly concerning the rules of playing ping pong, the way to calculate the scores of two parties, the equipment needed, as well as the general linguistic expressions frequently occurring in playing ping pong. The students mentioned the necessary equipment used for playing ping-pong, including:

bat(s), ball, [ping pong] net, and [ping pong] table (Field Notes, 02/05/2017).

Then, I said ‘now please look at this photo attentively (a photograph taken of the ping pong court in school)’, adding that ‘See, you guys have mentioned all the necessary equipment in English.’ (Field Notes, 02/05/2017)



In view of the time limitation and schedule for this term, the main learning content focused on the linguistic terms for the ping pong sports equipment which students necessarily and repeatedly use in the course of playing ping pong during recess at school. Other aspects, such as the English expressions for scoring in ping pong, were gradually immersed into this term’s Chinese lesson plans during the process of students’ learning.

When it came to the topic of basketball, the students demonstrated their great interest and fondness. Thus, the Chinese teaching plan illustrated below was applied for gathering students’ resourceful linguistic expressions with reference to playing basketball at the beginning of Term 3 in 2017.

Table 5. 3 Chinese Lesson Plan for Exploring Linguistic Terms Occurring in Playing Basketball

Term 3 & Week 1	Unit Title: Sports - lán qiú - 篮球(basketball)	Date: August 08, 2017	Class: Year 3 & Year 5
<p>Expected Learning Outcomes</p>	<p>Initially, the students are expected to be familiar with the meaning and pronunciation of ‘lán qiú - 篮球’ (basketball).</p> <p>Meanwhile, this lesson aims to probe into frequently occurring English linguistic terms pertaining to playing basketball at school, such as the action expressions or the sports equipment.</p> <p>After learning the topic on ‘lán qiú - 篮球’ (basketball), the students are expected to be able to use such Chinese vocabularies when playing basketball at school.</p>		

Lesson Outline	Warm-up Activity	<p>When it comes to playing basketball, can you say something about it?</p> <p>A. how to play it (the rules).</p> <p>B. what is needed in this sport (sports equipment, people's roles).</p> <p>D. what actions/languages repeatedly occur/ are used in this sport.</p>
Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement	Equipment to Be Used	Classroom's multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, PowerPoint, a basketball, the basketball court and the corresponding equipment.
	Classroom Arrangement to Be Made	Students will be instructed to sit in a line on the floor in classroom, and then line up on the basketball court in campus when needed to carry out the practical and interactive activity.

Based on the discussions with the students last term, the Chinese lessons in Term 3 lasting from 08/08/2017 to 26/09/2017 concentrated on the topic regarding basketball. The local students had a good knowledge of playing basketball at school and showed great interest in it. Students tend to play a role of a sports expert and are more willing to share their views and information concerning their preferred activities in their daily school lives with their teachers in class. Hence, a warm-up activity was specially designed to elicit more information which can be used as suitable learning resources for the following Chinese lessons, in accordance with these students' real learning interests and levels. The potential learning content elicited from such educationally purposeful discussion in class are demonstrated as follows:

As for the rules of playing basketball and the way to express the score, one student, Péng Fēi³⁵ mentioned the first action word in playing basketball, 'dribble'. The term 'point' was also elicited in class. At the same time, a girl, Yǎ Nán was selected to write down the form of a final score '6/10' on the white board, which was used as an example of scoring (Field Notes, 08/08/2017).

³⁵ The purposes of giving the students' real Chinese names are as follows. Initially, it avoids using these students' real English names in order to protect their identities. More importantly, most of the students show great interest in having a Chinese name that can be used in a real situation if someday they travelled to China.

In terms of the sports equipment used in playing basketball in school, an extremely shy girl - Yǎ Jìng even raised her hand to answer the question actively. Then, she was invited to present the basic sports equipment used in playing basketball in front of the whole class:

During this process, each linguistic term in relation to the sports equipment used for playing basketball was recorded, including 'backboard, basketball hoop, basketball court and basketball' (Field Notes, 08/08/2017).

As for the actions or terms frequently occurring and used in playing basketball:

'Dribble the ball' and 'pass the ball' are two linguistic terms which were mentioned most. I then asked the students 'If you want to get one point, what do you need to do'? What I meant was 'tóu lán' (shoot). Following that, Měi Lín did the action of 'shoot' to give me her response to this question (Field Notes, 08/08/2017).

Based on these discussions, I noticed that even some shy or naughty students were willing to be involved in the interactive learning activity that they were familiar with and interested in. Namely, the students were knowledgeable and can be experts in some specified areas.

Furthermore, noting the significance of the learning content generated by this process, one classroom teacher from Year 4 commented that:


It is something that they do on their daily basis. So once they are quite familiar with those words, they can use them in class or in the playground. Just in casual, and that makes that language become more automatic for them, more retrievable (Classroom Teacher, Ms Shǐ, Year 4, 19/09/2017).

This classroom teacher pointed out that such sports-based activities are regularly played during the students' daily school lives regardless of seasonal changes or gender factors. Clearly, the sporting field can be utilised as a medium for enriching the local students' learning of Chinese in the school-based context. As suggested by Turnnidge, Côté and Hancock (2014), sporting environment, by its very nature, is effective as a tool to engage students to transfer such obtained skills into other educational fields through sports-based involvements and interactions. It is also claimed that sporting-related settings equip students with the sports-specific knowledge, promoting them to apply such expertise to other learning attainments (Whitley, Farrell, Maisonet & Hoffer, 2017). Such situations can trigger students to speak Chinese to their maximum abilities as a natural result of their participation in the local school-based sporting environment.

5.2.2 Gender-Inclusive Song-Based Learning Content

The following data are personal observations which contributed to the generation of learning content in regard to how to express ‘Happy birthday to you’ in Chinese, in the form of singing the world-renowned song *Happy Birthday to You* (zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐). As mentioned in section 5.1.2 two unexpected events, the singing of ‘Happy birthday’ and saying ‘Happy birthday to you’, occurred in this school’s classrooms after Chinese lessons, reminded and inspired the Chinese teacher-researcher to construct a lesson for instructing them to sing that popular birthday song in Chinese, which is illustrated as follows.

Table 5. 4 Lesson Plan for Learning to Sing ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in Chinese

Term 3 & Week 3	Unit Title: Singing - zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐 (happy birthday to you)	Date: August 22, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>Initially, the students are expected to be familiar with each individual word’s meaning and pronunciation in ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐’ (Happy birthday to you).</p> <p>After that, the students sing <i>Happy Birthday to You</i> in Chinese while a song video with Chinese lyrics is being played in class.</p> <p>Later on, the students are expected to be able to sing and say ‘Happy birthday to you’ in Chinese when someone’s birthday is announced.</p>		
Lesson Outline	Warm-up Activity	<p>What will you say to your classmates, friends, teachers or your parents when their birthday comes?</p> <p>Subsequently, a song video with the Chinese lyrics is to be played in class in order to get them familiar with the Chinese pronunciation of ‘Happy birthday to you’ and easily engaged in the following learning content concerning how to express ‘Happy birthday to you’ in the Chinese way.</p>	
Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement	Equipment to Be Used	Classroom’s multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, PowerPoint, a birthday song video with Chinese lyrics.	
	Classroom Arrangement to Be Made	Students will be instructed to sit in a line on the floor or stand up when they need to perform the class learning activity.	

Subsequent conversations held with the classroom teachers about the teacher-researcher's teaching the lesson "Let's learn to sing *Happy Birthday to You*" in Chinese, separately recalled that:

Because they really enjoy the singing, they are quite engaged. Naturally, they are listening to the content. I think sometimes when the song has that sort of a little catchy [tune] they catch on the words, too. They really enjoy that (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Lǐ, Year 5, 19/09/2017).

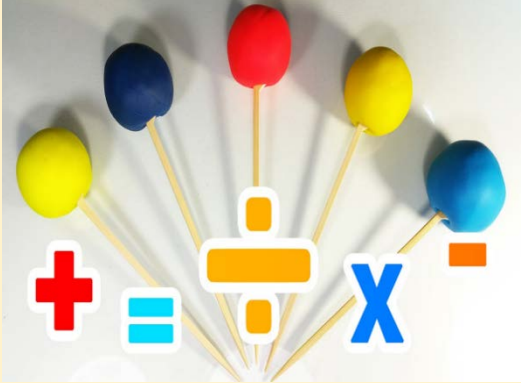

I think that is a very good idea. Because again it is drawing on something that they are already familiar with, something they already know. And they already know what the words mean when they are translated. Again they can work it out with their friends. They know what the singing is about when they are singing 'happy birthday'. They really enjoy that (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

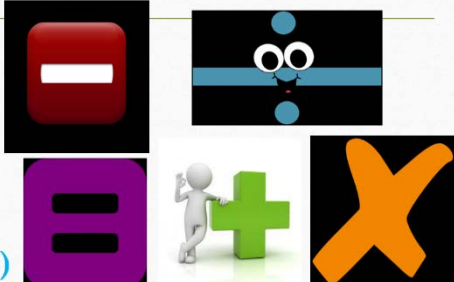
Choosing a mainstream musical song such as 'Happy Birthday to You' as a learning content source for teaching Chinese would encourage students to speak Chinese with higher frequency if this was a regular celebratory practice for both pupils' and staff's birthdays during school time. Furthermore, this would be beneficial for the local school students' sustainable learning of Chinese from the perspective of ecological language learning, because of their built-up routine and powerful expertise through acting out the recurring celebratory practice at school - singing the birthday song in Chinese (van Lier, 2008).

5.2.3 Mathematical Calculation-Based Learning Content

As mathematical calculating activity involves with the numbers and symbols, the focuses of the following lesson plans for Chinese language teaching during Term 4 in 2017 were on the linguistic terms needed during the process of calculating.

Table 5. 5 Lesson Plan for Making Mathematical Calculations in Chinese

Term 4 & Week 1	Unit Title: Calculating - jì suàn - 计算	Date: October 10, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>1. You are expected to be familiar with the basic calculation symbols such as, '+, -, ×, ÷, =' in Chinese [Lesson 1-Lesson 5];</p> <p>2. You are going to use the above symbols and the learnt Chinese numbers (from 0 to 10) to make mathematical calculations in Chinese based on your knowledge regarding the rules of calculating [Lesson 2 - Lesson 5];</p> <p>3. After a period of learning, you will be able to do calculations in Chinese skilfully outside Chinese class or school, in your daily lives, or maybe later in China.</p>		
Lesson Outline	<p>Warm-up Activity</p> <p>Scaffolding Activity</p>	<p>What are the basic calculation symbols in mathematics?</p>   <p>The students are expected to be able to recall the learnt Chinese numbers from 0-10 with the visual aid of a popular and catchy video concerning counting numbers in Chinese.</p>	

<p>Lesson Outline</p>	<p>Learning Activity</p>	<div data-bbox="630 197 1382 607" style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center;"> <p>The Basic Calculation Signs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • jiā (加) • jiǎn (减) • chéng (乘) • chú (除) • dèng yú (等于)  </div> <p>‘Turn Around the Calculation Symbols’:</p> <p>Initially, the flash cards with the five calculation symbols will be posted on the whiteboard with magnets.</p> <p>Then, students who are willing to be involved in this activity will be invited to turn around one corresponding flash card each time, while reading the corresponding calculation symbol loudly in Chinese.</p>
<p>Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement</p>	<p>Equipment to Be Used</p>	<p>Classroom’s multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, a whiteboard, some magnets, teaching PowerPoint, a video in relation to counting numbers in Chinese, flash cards with the five basic calculation symbols and the learnt Chinese numbers from 0 to 10.</p>
	<p>Classroom Arrangement to Be Made</p>	<p>Students will be instructed to sit in a line on the floor, and then sit in a circle on the floor or come to the front when conducting the learning activity in class.</p>

After practicing the established classroom routine in class, the question ‘What are the basic calculation symbols in mathematics?’ used as the warm-up activity was raised and shown on the screen for students’ discussion and involvement in learning the Chinese expressions regarding the calculation symbols during Term 4 of 2017.

A boy, Jiā Chéng spoke out the basic calculation symbols at one time. I responded that ‘just one is OK once’. Then, Wén Jié raised his hand, saying ‘addition’. Yǔ Jiā mentioned ‘times’. I then proposed a further inquiry on that ‘it means multiplication?’ She responded ‘yes’. ‘Subtraction’ was the following calculation symbol which was pointed out. I continued asking ‘anything else?’ Míng Xuān looked at me, replying ‘divide by’. Immediately, Jùn Zhé added that ‘it is division’. Simultaneously, other students raised their voices, saying ‘me, me, me’... As for the last calculation symbol, ‘equals’ was dig out by a girl, Mǎn Ní in class. After that, I announced ‘Now, I think we have found out the


basic calculation symbols, let's look at the screen and check them together' (Field Notes, 10/10/2017).

Combining content into language learning gives rise to some eminent features and advantages. For instance, in the school-based setting, the content and language integrated learning - a pedagogical choice which is both a medium and a catalyst - significantly boosts the beginning learners' confidence and autonomy in accessing target language through enabling them to engage in real situation-based fruitful learning, thereby maintaining their ongoing learning interest (Coyle, 2013). Using mathematical calculations to learn Chinese linguistic terms which frequently occur in mathematics would reduce the student's unfamiliarity with the learning of Chinese in such an English-dominant circumstance. The process of calculation practice can mobilise their different intellectual modes, namely listening, thinking, speaking, writing, as well as reading. Also, linking mathematical calculations to the learning of [spoken] Chinese would build on these students' existing knowledge concerning making mathematical calculations in English, as well as teaching them to count the numbers in Chinese from 0 to 10. Such student storage knowledge is beneficial for them in developing new knowledge regarding the Chinese linguistic terms used for conducting fundamental mathematical calculations.

5.2.4 Canteen Shopping-Based Learning Content

The following Chinese lesson plan was designed to discover the linguistic terms frequently used while students were shopping at the school canteen.

Table 5. 6 Lesson Plan for Discovering Shopping and Popular Food Language at the School Canteen

Term 4 & Week 3	Unit Title: School Canteen Shopping - gòu wù - 购物 (shopping)	Date: October 24, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Teaching Purposes	To explore the linguistic terms students frequently use while they are shopping at the school canteen, as well as their favourite food on the canteen menu.		
Lesson Outline	Warm-up Activity	<p>Let's act out the real situation when you are shopping at the school canteen.</p> <p>The following menu is from the school canteen in 2017, which is used for your reference about the food you would like to buy.</p>	

	Shopping Language at the School Canteen	
	Popular Food at the School Canteen	
Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement	Equipment to Be Used Classroom Arrangement to Be Made	Classroom's multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, teaching PowerPoint, the latest menu for the school canteen, an apron, artificial paper money and paper-made food. Students will be instructed to sit in a line on the floor, and then sit in a circle on the floor or come to the front when conducting the above-mentioned warm-up activity in class.

In terms of the process of achieving such teaching purposes and obtaining the relevant learning content, the warm-up activity adopted as a strategy was to help the students easily engage in the class learning activity and to elicit more useful information for their subsequent learning of Chinese. It was an activity in which some students acted out the real situation when shopping at the school canteen. A menu of the school canteen in 2017 was prepared for their reference about the food that they would like to buy. Meanwhile, an apron, some artificial paper money and paper-made food were provided for their performance. Each time, one boy and one girl were chosen to act as a 'sales boy' or a 'sales girl' wearing an apron, as well as holding the menu in his/her hands. Naturally, the other person became a 'buyer'. When hearing 'action' from other peers, they were ready to perform. The following group 'drama performance' left me with a deep impression of the language and vocabulary used for their real shopping experiences at the school canteen. For instance:

Initially, the boy, Jùn Wěi took the initiative to have a conversation with the sales girl - Měi Jìng. He asked 'Can I have a cheese bacon roll'? Subsequently, the sales girl - Měi Jìng responded to him with 'Sure, that would be 10 dollars'. After a while, Měi Jìng added 'Here is your cheese bacon roll'. As a response, Jùn Wěi said 'Thanks' to her (Field Notes, 24/10/2017).

Another group's acting was conducted by using a different language style:

As for this group, the sales boy - Tiān Yòu firstly asked the buyer- Yǔ Xún 'What would you like today'? Then, Yǔ Xún answered 'I would like un... cheese pizza un...and Chinese fried rice'. At once, she asked the sales boy that 'How much are they'? After thinking (quickly calculating

in his brain) for a while, Tiān Yòu told her ‘Ah, seven dollars and 30 cents’. The conversation for shopping between them went on with the buyer saying ‘Ok. Here you are’, as well as the sales person responding ‘Thank you’. It ended with a basic courtesy expression ‘Bye-bye’ from the buyer (Field Notes, 24/10/2017).

Meanwhile, in terms of the popular food at the school canteen:


‘Meat Pie, Sushi Rolls, as well as Chinese Fried Rice’ are the top three foods among them, discovered through a heated discussion between the students and the Chinese teacher in class (Field Notes, 24/10/2017).

Based on the above-mentioned class discussions, the discovered linguistic repertoires from these students’ daily recurring shopping practice in school would be utilised as the learning content sources for the subsequent Chinese lessons. Constructing curriculum is based on the students’ real-life social practices, especially in language learning classrooms where they are entitled to have their own real voices concerning the selection of learning topics and activities which are meaningful in their daily lives (McKay, 2013). Therefore, selecting the linguistic terms which frequently occur in the students’ shopping activity at the school canteen as content sources for teaching Chinese would make it more likely that they would speak in Chinese naturally and regularly in their daily shopping practice. Importantly, teaching Chinese via the authenticity-oriented shopping situation constructs a real and vivid atmosphere for their learning of [spoken] Chinese in the school-based community.

5.2.5 Chess Gaming-Based Learning Content

The Chinese teaching plan illustrated as follows was designed to probe into the linguistic terms which frequently occur in playing chess, which can be suitably applied for the local students’ learning of Chinese.

Table 5.7 Lesson Plan for Probing into the Linguistic Terms Occurring in Playing Chess

<p>Term 3 & Week 2</p>	<p>Unit Title: Playing Chess - xiàng qí - 象棋 (chess)</p>	<p>Date: August 08, 2017</p>	<p>Class: Year 3 & Year 4</p>
<p>Expected Teaching Purposes</p>	<p>It will elicit more linguistic terms which occur in playing chess at school, which can be used as suitable learning resources for subsequent Chinese lessons.</p> 		
<p>Lesson Outline</p>	<p>Warm-up Activity</p>	<p>When it comes to playing chess at school, can you say something about it?</p> <p>Such as:</p> <p>A. how to play it (the rules).</p> <p>B. what is needed in this game (e.g. equipment).</p> <p>C. What actions/linguistic terms repeatedly occur/are used in this activity.</p>	
<p>Teaching Resources & Classroom Arrangement</p>	<p>Equipment to Be Used</p> <p>Classroom Arrangement to Be Made</p>	<p>Classroom's multimedia equipment, a laser pointer, teaching PowerPoint, a box of chess pieces.</p> <p>Students will be instructed to sit in a line on the floor, and then sit in a circle on the floor when conducting the above-mentioned warm-up activity in class.</p>	

According to the students' existing chess knowledge and discussions, the following linguistic terms in relation to playing chess were elicited in class:

In terms of the roles of different chess pieces, they are named as 'Pawn, Castle/Rook, Queen, King, Knight, and Bishop' separately by students at school. After that, students themselves were asked to type each linguistic term on the corresponding chess piece that was presented on the PowerPoint (Field Notes, 08/08/2017).

Two verbs that describe the actions occurring in the process of playing chess, namely 'hold and move' were obtained from the class discussion as well (Field Notes, 08/08/2017).



Connecting game-based enrichment activities with educational purposes into learning content is crucial in capitalising on the students' game-related knowledge, such as team games and board games for accommodating the requirement of curriculum placement at the very initial stage of schooling (Schifter, 2013). Also, in real-life-related situations, game-based immersion education can improve the learners' degrees of self-effort and their corresponding participation, thereby minimising any sense of restlessness in mastering new languages (Cheng, She & Annetta, 2015). Therefore, such 'discovered' linguistic expressions, particularly created and utilised for the purpose of playing a chess game, are of worth as potentially learnable content sources for the local students' learning of [spoken] Chinese.

As the metaphor 'hǎo de kāi shǐ shì chéng gōng de yī bàn - 好的开始是成功的一半' (well beginning, half well) goes, knowing well the target learners' (the Australian students) characteristics in the local context, especially in the local school-based environment is a good beginning for Chinese language teaching. Based on the findings from the teacher-researcher's day-to-day teaching practices, the local students showed great initiative in mutually negotiating and constructing the content for their learning of Chinese in class, whereby they helped establish a learning space, enabling them freely to express what they already knew from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community. By empowering the local students to have discourse power in selecting their preferred and suitable Chinese learning topics and content from their familiar and favoured sociolinguistic activities in school, the

knowledge base for the subsequent Chinese lessons tends to be developed and formed from the perspective of being learner-focused, instead of being teacher-centred. According to Singh and Han (2014):

“Teaching Chinese with Australian characteristics” embraces a learner-centred approach to the methods and content for making Chinese learnable. This means the teacher-researchers learn to take responsibility for the students’ actual learning of Chinese. To do so they generate content for the teaching/learning of Chinese from learners’ recurring everyday sociolinguistic activities performed in English, and thus build on their existing sociolinguistic knowledge. They teach forms of Chinese learners can use in everyday lives (pp. 418-419).

Being a Chinese teacher-researcher, it is essential to have a better understanding of the Australian local school students’ linguistic and cultural repertoires that they bring to the classroom, in order to make Chinese a learnable language within their sociolinguistic contexts (AITSL, 2012). Given the above-mentioned, knowing the local students’ linguistic repertoires from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities at school can help make their hidden knowledge in some certain areas transparent, rather than ‘buried treasures’. This type of information not only helps the teacher-researcher to identify the local students’ preferred and engaged Chinese learning content at the very beginning, but also contributes to making the lesson plans more focused on the students’ real interests and learnability during the process of Chinese language teaching.

More importantly, the design of Chinese lesson plans tends to be transferred from being teacher-centred to student-centred, through incorporating more students’ views and knowledge into the selection of learning content sources and teaching materials. From this perspective, the students themselves play an important role in selecting their engaged and learnable content. In such a process, the teacher-researcher works more as a facilitator for encouraging the students to retrieve their existing knowledge from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, which can then be used for their learning of Chinese. Hence, the student-centred pedagogy, as a tour guide, leads the Chinese teacher-researcher to have a better understanding of the local school students, including their interests, knowledge configuration and potential in learning Chinese.

All in all, the local students are the ‘ultimate consumers’ for the learning content generated from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school. To evaluate the learnability of

such content, it is necessary to take the students' views into account, some of which are presented as follows:

It is enjoyable because we got to play stuff. I think it is an interesting learning how we can keep basketball, and the game going in Chinese (Focus Group C, Year 5, 19/06/2017).

Now, Chinese learning is enjoyable and fun. I think it is really good we do like Chinese but Chinese is remote from us, now we could use Chinese and we could understand Chinese (Focus Group B, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

Students themselves are the direct and ultimate 'purchasers' of this learning content and the materials produced from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities. That is to say, students have dual identities in regard to being involved in selecting what to 'buy', and then how to use such 'products' in their daily lives. This can be compared to the Chinese metaphor 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣)³⁶. In this situation, students are not just the 'consumers' who have the power to decide on their suitable stuff - the Chinese learning content, but also have their own preferred way to utilise that stuff in their local context after 'purchasing', such as doing ball sports, singing celebratory rhythms, making mathematical calculations, shopping at the school canteen and playing chess. In this way, the Chinese teacher-researcher as the 'tailor' would supply the 'customised product' - the suitable learning content which fits the 'clients' - the local students, to a large extent. This can contribute to the information transmission (students' views on their preferred Chinese learning topics and content) between the Chinese teacher-researcher and the local students from the perspective of the crucial clients' (students') feedback concerning the learnability and accessibility of such teaching content for their learning of Chinese.

On the contrary, compared with the student-centered pedagogy the selected learning content from the teacher-centered model may lead to the ultimate consumers' (the local school students) dissatisfaction due to a perceived lack of catering to their real interests and daily access. Therefore, the concept of 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣) directs the Chinese teacher-researcher to concentrate on these 'clients' (the local students) concrete needs to 'tailor' such localised products (Chinese learning content) through using the forms of their favoured daily practices

³⁶ The original source of the Chinese version: “卧闲草堂本《儒林外史》评：非子长之才长于写秦汉；短于写三代；正是其量体裁衣；相题立格；有不得不如此者耳。”原指按照身材裁剪衣服。比喻按照实际情况办事。Literally, it refers to tailoring according to a person's actual figure or height. Metaphorically, it means that carrying something out should be based on actual circumstances.

at school, namely the Chinese learning content which is closely connected with these local students' daily uses.

Meanwhile, according to three classroom teachers' comments on utilising such content for their students' learning of Chinese, it has the following features and benefits:

I think it is good. I think they responded well to it. It is something that they are interested in. It is something that is not too abstract (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 19/06/2017).

I think you have done a great job of selecting concepts or ideas that are important to the students. I think that they could connect with. And I think that give[s] their real enthusiasm and purpose to learn the words, because they like playing handball, table tennis, and chess. It is really good how you try to connect the type of activities and the things that they do (Classroom Teacher, Ms Shǐ, Year 4, 19/09/2017).

You have the photos from the basketball court, you have the photos from the handball court. So everything you do relates to the space and environment. When Chinese [concepts are] so abstract to them at home, you know, so it attaches them to the Australian culture (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

It is clear that this learning content and these materials derive from the local students' sociolinguistic activities, frequently performed in English at school, which are so closely associated with their daily lives. Such resources contribute to generating the teaching content for the students' learning of Chinese, which is reflected in a Chinese metaphor 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材)³⁷. 'jiù dì' (就地) means being closely connected to the local area. 'qǔ cái' (取材) refers to obtaining materials and resources. Thus, 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) is defined as obtaining materials from the local area to make full use of the potential potency of local resources. As is shown in the above-mentioned Chinese teaching plans, the learning units range from the popular sporting events, birthday celebratory habits, calculating exercises, school canteen shopping to chess, which cover many of the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in this Australian local primary school. Accordingly, corresponding linguistic terms are elicited from such sociolinguistic activities, as well as those which are selected and utilised as the learning content and materials during the following Chinese teaching practices, to judge

³⁷ The original source of Chinese version: “噫，岂其娶妻必齐之姜，就地取材，但不失立言之大意而已矣”。原指就在原地选取材料，用来比喻不依靠外力，充分发挥本身的潜力。(清·李渔《笠翁偶集·三·手足》) It is defined as obtaining materials from the local area to make full use of the potential potency of local resources.

whether they are suitable or learnable for the local students' learning of Chinese. Specifically, 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) at this point informs the Chinese teacher-researcher of the value in exploring the learning content sources and teaching materials based on the Australian local students' recurring sociolinguistic activities from their daily school lives. Such local resources can make the Chinese language learning closely connected to their everyday practices at school through activating its prospective effectiveness. That is to say, the above-illustrated learning resources, including the sports-related equipment, the well-known tunes and lyrics of the birthday song, the authentic canteen menu, the mathematics-based instructional tutorials and chess instruments from the designed lesson plans are based on material existing in this local public school that is are touchable, perceptible and accessible, which they can experience during their schooling. All these handy elements, with the purpose of educational utilisation, would contribute to making [spoken] Chinese happen naturally and regularly in the real environment of the local school-based community. Guillot (1996) proposed that:

exposure to, and familiarity with authentic texts also helps instil confidence in the face of the target language, an important factor in autonomous language learning, as well as spurring learners towards authentic sources. Authentic sources, in turn, tend to stimulate learners to further independent discovery and learning (p. 152).

Therefore, it is emphasised that the local students' learning of Chinese can benefit from being exposed to the learning content in relation to such real-life activities, as are regularly performed in English during their school time. The students naturally are able to apply such Chinese expressions, as they play their favourite sports activities, sing the celebratory song, make mathematical calculations, buy food and play chess in the school-based community. In doing so, it encourages the speaking of Chinese to happen intrinsically among the local students while they are performing various forms of their preferred activities at school.

When it comes to the process of selecting and generating these Chinese learning topics, as well as content, one classroom teacher compared the learning content generated from these students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities to the main teaching content that a previous Chinese volunteer teacher had adopted in class. He recalled and remarked that:

They really enjoyed it, particularly you are focusing on a lot of the sports and activities this year and last year as well, which was different towards what the previous Chinese teacher [did]. And you can tell that the kids really responded very well towards it. While the previous teaching had been focused on the colours, so the days and weeks they feel like [that is

just] normal school to them. Because you asked the kids ‘what would you like to learn about?’ And you often do that with them, they really like that (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

I think it really helps them feel a sense of ownership and they really want to take that on, because these things they can use every day. And it is not used directing ‘we are doing these, we are doing those’. You gave them the choices [as to what they could do], which really again gives them a sense of ownership. They are really communicating in those lessons, because it is the things they really enjoy doing and they engage in [them] very strongly (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

This classroom teacher’s feedback suggests that the students now have more discourse power to choose their own desired topics in relation to learning Chinese in terms of teaching content and interactive activities through mutual negotiation and construction in class. This classroom teacher’s point of view also proposes that when the students’ self-determination is given full attention concerning deciding on their desired knowledge creation and intake, for example their preferred sports-related learning topics and content through working as the co-constructor, their immediate response in class and enduring learning enthusiasm after class, both demonstrate that they are well-involved and show positive attitudes (Swain, 2006). Being supported to create opportunities for voicing themselves, the students are disposed to reshape their roles in learning Chinese, positioning themselves in a democratic learning community whereby they have the right to make well-informed choices on the formation of their preferred learning content. The Chinese language classroom, by its very nature, is a particularly micro-social context in which these local students are entitled to enact their agency through dialoguing interactively, thereby equalising their learning opportunities in such a cooperative environment (Stromquist, 2015; Rigby, Woulfin & März, 2016). It has been suggested that students’ sense of self-agency would help to develop a sympathetic and participative classroom atmosphere, which is built through the process of dialogical communication in class, rather than a competitive and disengaged one (Clarke, Howley, Resnick & Rosé, 2016).

More importantly, these students’ expectations towards such learning content and preferred activities in Chinese lessons were fulfilled to a certain extent. That is to say, they were not just given the freedom to co-construct their anticipated Chinese language knowledge, but also they experienced a learning process during which that jointly generated content was taught and retained in a creative and enjoyable way. Since students are the ‘ultimate consumers’ of such learning content, being active mediators in discovering their expected learning content would

help them form the ‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí - 主人翁意识’ (a sense of ownership/belonging) in learning Chinese through empowering, instead of restraining their capabilities to take actions. By doing so, these students’ agencies can be mobilised and deployed to help them achieve the anticipated learning outcomes under a negotiable and harmonious learning space (Swain, 2006; Rigby, Woulfin & März, 2016).

5.3 Encounters of ‘liàng tǐ cái yī’ (量体裁衣), ‘jiù dì qǔ cái’ (就地取材) and ‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’ (主人翁意识) in the Process of Generating the Localised Learning Content

This section starts with providing a conceptual link that features the forms of the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, as performed in English at school, through the process of discovering the students’ anticipated learning topics and content. Figure 5.1 illustrates a mapping process that conceptualises diverse forms of students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, which can help make [spoken] Chinese happen as the corresponding local practice.

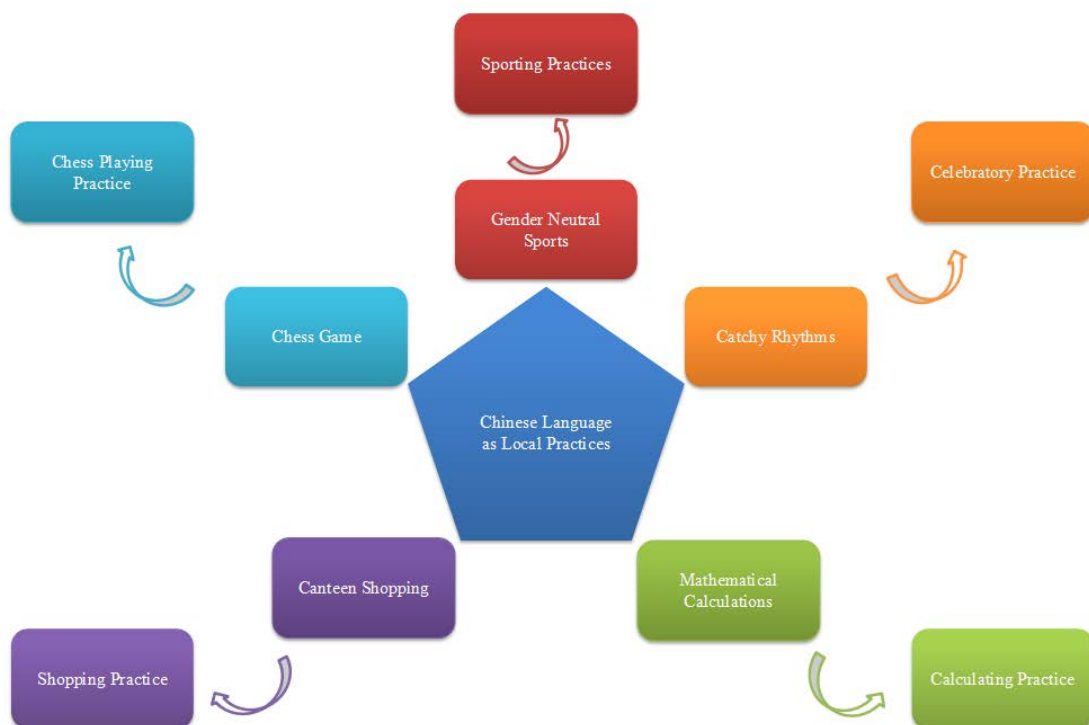


Figure 5.1 Conceptualisation of Students’ Daily Recurring Sociolinguistic Activities to Make Chinese an Embodiment of Local Practices (N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

Local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school are represented in the above chart, including playing gender neutral sports, singing catchy rhythms, making mathematical calculations, shopping at the school canteen, as well as playing chess. Such regularly occurring sociolinguistic activities performed in English constitute five daily practices among these students within this school-based community.

The concept of *language as a local practice* (Pennycook, 2010) deals with three aspects concerning how language works as a series of activities within a certain space and place. Namely, taking into consideration *language*, *locality* and *practice* as the three constituents and investigating the mechanism between them informs us that language arises from the events which it enables. That makes language an embodiment of social and spatial activities in people's daily lives, instead of an intangible object (Lankiewicz, 2014). Any one language is the creation of socially situated happenings, and is part of the action (Karrebæk, Madsen & Møller, 2015). Grounded in the above-mentioned concepts and analysed evidence, [spoken] Chinese happens in these sporting practices, celebrating practice, calculating practice, shopping practice and chess games in the local school context. Such daily recurring practices in school allow the local school students to express their original ideas concerning the selection and construction of suitable and learnable teaching content for their learning of [spoken] Chinese.

However, according to the Australian K-10 syllabus for Chinese language there exists one phenomenon that is the one-size-fits-all stereotype in terms of the selection of learning content. For instance, to cultivate the local students' ability concerning spoken Chinese, the syllabus claims that students should learn to engage in conversations with such sentence patterns as “Qǐng wèn...?” (BOSTES, 2003, p. 30), while it is actually a very typical sentence pattern used in a formal conversation between teacher and student to express some requests in a polite way in China. Meanwhile, its main aim is to develop the Australian students' “communication skills” by “focusing on languages as systems” (BOSTES, 2003, p. 13), rather than focusing on language as a local practice. In this regard, the reference document is essentially designated for constructing the Chinese curriculum, looking at Chinese language learning as a static entity rather than a dynamic and interactive process, and in doing so fails to marry it to the local school-based authentic context (Jørgensen, 2008). Such a stance and focus neglects the essence and importance of the actual uses for learning Chinese (the process for languaging Chinese) in real-world situations (Jørgensen, 2008; Pennycook, 2010; García & Wei, 2014). This also

means over-emphasising the grammatical features and correctness of the target language - Chinese, which can impair the local emergent Chinese learners' interest and confidence in learning it. It is thus very difficult to achieve such a goal by using learning content which is far removed from the students' daily lives, or without any help from contextual factors.

Furthermore, as to the learning outcomes (e.g. for Stage 2) it is required that a student should "recognise and respond to spoken texts in familiar contexts" (BOSTES, 2003, p. 15). This also poses some unasked questions, including what do the familiar contexts to students mean here? And how can the familiar contexts be created? That is to say, the existing Australian K-10 syllabus is inadequate for meeting "the needs and objectives of how L1 English speakers learn Chinese" in the local school context (Zhang & Li, 2010, p. 92). Rather, employing a 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣) concept would adapt Chinese language learning content to the Australian local practices. Such topics and content mutually negotiated and constructed by the local school students in Chinese class would be selected as a 'customised model' to cater for their real interests and needs in terms of learning Chinese with Australian characteristics (Singh & Han, 2014). That entails the production of an inventory of Chinese learning content from "a set of bundled activities that are repeated over time" (Pennycook, 2010, p. 3), which is "embedded in the learners' locality and embodied in their everyday sociolinguistic activities" (Singh & Han, 2014, p. 415).

To make [spoken] Chinese a daily practice of Australian school students in this case study, the co-construction of potentially learnable content between the Chinese teacher-researcher and the local school students must be considered. If the Chinese teacher-researcher ignores the local school students' intellectual dominance and their linguistic repertoires, then such 'valuable resources' would be simply overlooked during the process of generating suitable Chinese learning content. As a result, the alternative angles from the three Chinese concepts in Figure 5.2 should be taken into account for incorporating the local school students' preferences and potential towards creating appropriate content for their learning of [spoken] Chinese.

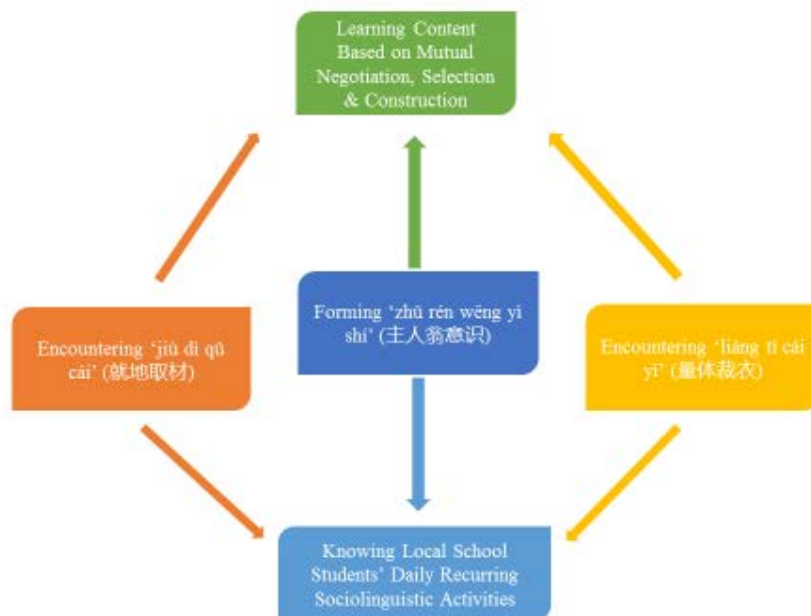


Figure 5. 2 Encountering the Alternative Angles from Chinese Concepts to Know the Local School Students during the Process of Generating the Localised Learning Content (N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

During the process of knowing the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, adopting the Chinese concepts of 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣), 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) and 'zhǔ rén wēng yì shí' (主人翁意识) creates opportunities for localising such learning content for Chinese language teaching based on mutual negotiation, selection and construction. Here, employing 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣), 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) and 'zhǔ rén wēng yì shí' (主人翁意识) helps the Chinese teacher-researcher to identify Australian students' recurring sociolinguistic activities in school, which can encourage students to use [spoken] Chinese in their daily practices within the local environment. This would extend what Pennycook (2010) has proposed, that "language as a local practice is not only repeated social activity involving language, but is also, through its relocalisation in space and time, a process of change" (p. 137). Pennycook (2010) elucidates that "language, locality and practice" (p. 137) - the three constituents make up *language as a local practice*. The relationship between language, locality and practice is relevant in localising Chinese that draws on such students' daily social practices in school, reflecting their local characteristics, to meet their interests and needs in learning [spoken] Chinese (Pennycook, 2010; Singh & Nguyễn, 2018). Meanwhile, the local school students are the 'ultimate consumers' of such Chinese learning content. Therefore, the role of the Chinese metaphors, namely 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣), 'jiù dì qǔ

cái’ (就地取材) and ‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’ (主人翁意识) working as the ‘tour guide’ leads the teacher-researcher to construct the localised, learnable and appropriate Chinese learning content for the local school students.

The proposition is to make [spoken] Chinese an embodiment of local practices. This requires ‘digging out’ diverse forms of daily practices from local students’ school lives, which can help make [spoken] Chinese part of such practices through utilising the localised learning content. Such a proposition is reinforced by language, locality and practice as a means of permeating our awareness of how Chinese language functions as a united social and spatial practice, in view of the shift from language to languaging for second/foreign language education (Jørgensen, 2008; Pennycook, 2010; Leeman, 2012). Put another way, such Chinese concepts as ‘liàng tǐ cái yī’ (量体裁衣), ‘jiù dì qǔ cái’ (就地取材) and ‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’ (主人翁意识) presuppose that the local students’ agency is activated to have an equal discourse power in the co-construction of localised learning content based on their daily recurrent social practices within a negotiable structure in the Chinese classroom. Accordingly, the function of such daily recurring sociolinguistic activities among these students is to make [spoken] Chinese occur naturally as part of the local sporting, celebrating, calculating, shopping and gaming practices, which “takes us away from abstract systems and competencies and focuses instead on language as a social activity” (Pennycook, 2010, p. 124). In fulfilling such a presupposition, apart from generating localised Chinese learning content, the corresponding teaching strategies adopted also play an important part, which will be presented and discussed in Chapter 6.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter explored the forms of the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, as performed in English at school. The analysis section revealed that the five basic students’ daily practices that regularly occurred in this local public school included playing sports, celebrating birthdays, calculating numbers, purchasing food, as well as playing chess. Subsequently, this chapter further explained the potentially learnable and appropriate content for these local students’ learning of [spoken] Chinese through mutual negotiation and construction between the teacher-researcher and the students in class. Accordingly, it is proposed that it is possible to set the conditions to encourage the speaking of Chinese to happen regularly and naturally as part of such local practices, based on Pennycook’s statement (2010) *language as a local practice*. Following such a notion, during the process of knowing the local

school students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, three Chinese metaphors are adopted, including 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣), 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) and 'zhǔ rén wēng yì shí' (主人翁意识) for guiding the teacher-researcher to generate the localised Chinese teaching content for their learning and use of [spoken] Chinese in the local context.

The students' in-class engagement after utilising such localised learning content, and utilising their preferred instruction styles in mastering Chinese will be the focus of analysis in the next evidentiary chapter. Evidence of this engagement will take the form of the teacher-researcher's field notes from weekly Chinese teaching practices in class, as well as the classroom teachers' and the students' views and feedback after class.

CHAPTER 6

HOW TO TEACH? - UTILISING MULTI-DIMENSIONAL STUDENT-CENTRED INSTRUCTION STRATEGIES TO MOBILISE STUDENTS' FUNDS OF KNOWLEDGE

6.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 explored the forms of students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community within the context of an Australian local public school. Based on such students' daily practices in school, the potential content sources that would be suitable for their learning of Chinese were identified by mutual discussion, selection and construction in class. The process of how to subsequently utilise such teaching content to make Chinese learnable for them is presented in this chapter. The analysis of the relevant lesson plans and field notes, as well as the students' and their classroom teachers' comments, facilitated the Chinese teacher-researcher to identify learning activities and teaching strategies that can provide the local students with optimum opportunities for making the content learnable for them. This further provided the teacher-researcher with another route to acquiring a better understanding of the local students in terms of their learning habits and styles. This analysis aims to ascertain how such learning content and teaching strategies can jointly reveal, retrieve and re-use the local students' diverse forms of funds of knowledge in the school-based community to make Chinese learnable.

Therefore, the following section addresses how the Chinese teacher-researcher used the content generated from the above-mentioned students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities to conduct regular Chinese language teaching by creating the relevant lesson plans, and considering his field notes, as well as the standpoints and response informed by the students and their classroom teachers.

6.1 Xǐ Wén Lè Jiàn - 喜闻乐见³⁸ Activities

Various learning activities and teaching strategies were performed and practised through the integration of the content derived from students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities at school. The following themes were derived from information sources, such as the teacher-

³⁸ The original source of Chinese version: 明·王守仁《王文成公全书》：“仆诚喜闻而乐道，自顾何德以承之。” It means what one really loves to hear and see, which is extremely popular among people.



researcher’s daily teaching plans and field notes, as well as the students’ feedback and their classroom teachers’ comments, which are to be discussed collectively as the units of analysis.

6.1.1 Teaching Linguistic Terms Identified from Playing Handball

The lesson plan in Table 6.1 demonstrates the teaching practices in relation to the process of learning the linguistic terms which were identified in playing handball.

Table 6. 1 Chinese Lesson Plan for Teaching Linguistic Terms Used in Playing Handball

Term 1 & Week 3-Week 10	Unit Title: Sports - shǒu qiú - 手球 (handball)	Date: February 14, 2017 - April 4, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Learning Outcomes			
Speaking (Pronunciation)	Initially, this lesson is to make the students familiar with the meanings and pronunciations of the following four verb phrases which occurred frequently in playing of ‘shǒu qiú - 手球’, including, ‘pāi qiú - 拍球’ (bounce the ball), ‘chuán qiú - 传球’ (pass the ball), ‘jiē qiú - 接球’ (catch the ball) and ‘dài qiú - 带球’ (dribble the ball) through conducting an interactive activity entitled <i>Minion Says</i> .		
Listening (Responding)	Subsequently, employing a game entitled <i>Charades</i> helps them enhance their memorisation for the learnt Chinese vocabularies and verb phrases concerning playing handball from the perspective of pronunciations and meanings.		
Familiarity (Daily Usage)	Finally, <i>a Drawing/Designing Activity</i> will be used as an evaluation activity to let the students present their learning outcomes in class.		
	After learning these four commonly used verb phrases in this game, it is hoped that the students will use these Chinese vocabularies when playing handball in the school playground.		

Lesson Outline	Class Learning Activities	<p>Minion Says:</p> <p>In class, when a question is posed, such as “who can remember what we have learnt from the last Chinese lesson and how to say...in Chinese” by acting out “Minion Says”.</p> <div data-bbox="959 277 1350 539" style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; background-color: #FFD700; display: inline-block;"> <p style="text-align: center; color: red; margin: 0;">pāi qiú (拍球) chuán qiú (传球) jiē qiú (接球) dài qiú (带球)</p>  </div> <p>A Game: Charades</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Work in pairs. 2. One student uses his/her language and action to describe the word given, but he/she cannot give any clues about the pronunciation or spelling of that word. 3. The other student needs to speak out that word in Chinese very quickly. 4. After two words are finished, the two students swap roles. <p>Note: the less time you use, the more chances you have to be the winner.</p>
	Class Evaluation Activity	<p>A Drawing/Designing Activity:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. three students work in a group; 2. draw/design a real situation for playing shǒu qiú (手球) as you always do in the playground such as: <p>four players are needed;</p> <p>their different positions/roles;</p> <p>the actions used in playing shǒu qiú (手球).</p> <div data-bbox="1050 1464 1374 1738" style="text-align: center;">  </div>
	Teacher's Role	<p>The teacher's role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.</p>

Afterwards, these students' in-class involvement and feedback concerning such learning content, class activities and teaching strategies were kept in the teacher-researcher's field notes:

In class, when a question was posed, such as “who can remember what we have learnt from the last Chinese lesson and how to say...in Chinese” students acted out the interactive activity - ‘Minion Says’. I noticed that most of the students raised their hands quickly to show their intention to be the ‘minion’ in class through speaking out the four action verbs in Chinese and working as the role of a ‘Chinese teacher’ in class (Field Notes, 07/03/2017).

‘**Minion Says**’ is a fun and popular activity adapted from the original form ‘Simon Says’, which here was used to train the students’ pronunciations and meanings concerning the Chinese vocabularies they have learnt, especially effective in practising such verbs. Furthermore, ‘Minions’ is the local students’ preferred and familiar cartoon which they often talk about, and share with their friends and classmates in their daily school lives. Using their favourite learning activity to teach them content which interests them helps to engage the local students in Chinese lessons in all manner of behavioural, cognitive and affective dimensions (Butler, 2011).

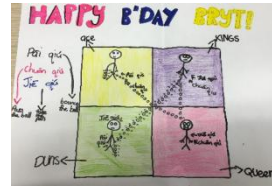
Another popular game was ‘**Charades**’ used in class to help them review the learnt Chinese verb phrases which occurred in playing handball:

In this interactive activity, the students have different tasks to be completed in class, such as acting out the corresponding questions, answering the given questions, recording the gaming time, holding the game cards, being the guides/assistants outside the game, as well as being attentive to the performers and speakers in this game (Field Notes, 21/03/2017).

During the whole ‘Charades’ gaming process, the students need to employ clear expression and communication, as well as meaningful body language/actions. More importantly, the students need to be familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of these Chinese vocabularies. Therefore, through this group activity, both the participants and the audience were actively willing to engage in such learning content and tasks due to the activation of their visual, verbal, bodily, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence modalities in class (Howard, 1983).

As for the evaluation activity, the students’ preferred drawing activity was adopted, helping to them enhance the memorisation and understanding of the learnt terms regarding playing handball. Such activity requires the students to design a handball game by drawing the relevant actions, as well as using the learnt Chinese words. During the whole process, it was noticed that:

The students were really **occupied** when they were drawing and showed **patience** in practising writing the pinyin, pronunciations and meanings of the learnt Chinese words (Field Notes, 28/03/2017).



Their classroom teachers made the following comments on such learning activities:

With the drawing, it is making sure you are allowing all different learning styles to be used in the classroom. It is a very **inclusive** way of teaching. The students prefer through sketching, [like] Yī Nà, Hào Xuān and Yǎ Jìng they particularly love doing sketching. They really find it highly engaging (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

Drawing and designing activities allowed all students, whether female or male, and regardless of their different learning levels and capabilities, to engage in the learning of Chinese vocabulary in class. It was notable that pupils with diverse personalities, such as the shy girls and the mischievous boys, were all active and attentive in completing such drawing and designing activities, thus mastering these Chinese expressions regarding playing handball. During this process, these students can fully exploit their talents in drawing to design a handball competition through using the learnt Chinese words concerning playing handball. It is worth stating that such used Chinese linguistic terms should be written in the form of Chinese pīn yīn (拼音) beside the corresponding movements. Drawing and designing, but also practising their pronunciations through noting the words down in Chinese pīn yīn (拼音), would deepen their memorisation of the meanings. It is well-known that drawing and designing works as an effective strategy to better student engagement and learning efficacy, especially in second language learning, as it is conducive to shaping positive attitudes, improving their concentration and streamlining their learning dilemmas in a comforting and encouraging atmosphere (Rajuan & Gidoni, 2014).

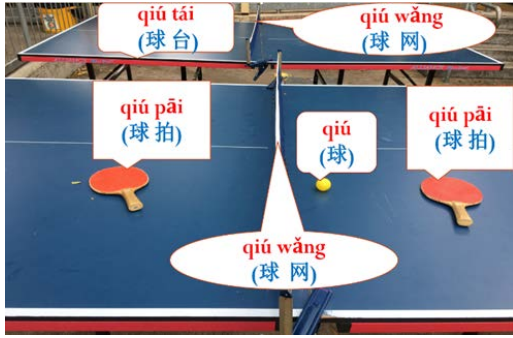
Therefore, from the perspective of knowing generally how students can learn well at school, this technique makes use of their prior knowledge about such popular and familiar class activities and games, to help them review the learnt Chinese vocabulary, and ensuring that the students exercise their literacy skills by writing Chinese pīn yīn (拼音), all within one of their preferred instruction styles. This phenomenon is echoed by Cummins's clarification (2007) that "the role of prior knowledge is particularly relevant to the issue of teaching for cross-linguistic transfer" (p. 232), as such knowledge helps to form the students' "identity and

cognitive functioning” (p. 232) based on the “information or skills previously acquired in a transmission-oriented instructional sequence” (p. 232). The above-mentioned instruction strategies employed in Chinese lessons do not just “explicitly attempt to activate students’ prior knowledge” (p. 232) regarding these popular learning activities in the local educational milieu, but also essentially “build relevant background knowledge as necessary” (p. 232) for effecting the inclusive knowledge transfer from L1 (English) to L2 (Chinese) (Cummins, 2007).

6.1.2 Teaching Linguistic Terms Identified from Playing Ping Pong

A relevant lesson plan was designed to teach linguistic terms used in playing ping pong, which is illustrated as follows:

Table 6. 2 Chinese Lesson Plan for Teaching Linguistic Terms Used in Playing Ping Pong

Term 2 & Week 3 - Week 9	Unit Title: Sports - pīng pāng qiú - 乒乓球 (ping pong)	Date: May 09, 2017 - June 20, 2017	Class: Year 3 & Year 4
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>1. The first teaching purpose will focus on the necessary equipment used for playing ping pong. After the students get familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of such vocabularies in Chinese, the authentic and interactive activities outside the classroom will be adopted to strengthen their memorisation and usage of them.</p> <p>2. It is anticipated that they will then know and be familiar with how to express the scoring of ping pong in Chinese</p> <p>3. The expected learning outcomes are that the students will become familiar with the meanings and pronunciations of ‘cái pàn - 裁判’ (referee), ‘bǐ fēn - 比分’ (scoring), ‘xuǎn shǒu - 选手’ (players) in combination with ‘...bǐ - 比 (:)...’ through the interactive process of playing pīng pāng qiú (乒乓球).</p>		
Lesson Outline	Class Learning Activity	<p>Outdoor Learning Activity:</p> <p>The students will act as the ‘tour guide’ on campus to introduce the equipment used for playing pīng pāng qiú - 乒乓球 by using the following Chinese vocabularies:</p> 	

		<p>Learning an Expression for Scoring - such as '1:2':</p> <p>In Chinese, ':' is read as 'bǐ', we have '1 bǐ (比) 2'.</p>
	<p>Class Evaluation Activity</p>	<p>An Assessment Activity:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Seven students work in a group. Four students act as the 'tour guide' on campus to introduce the equipment used for playing pīng pāng qiú - 乒乓球 by using Chinese like: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◉ This is _____. ◉ zhè shì _____. ◉ 这是_____. ◉ That is _____. ◉ nà shì _____. ◉ 那是_____. One student acts as a 'cái pàn-裁判' (referee) to present 'bǐ fēn-比分' (scoring) in Chinese. Two students act as 'xuǎn shǒu-选手' (players) to complete the competition under Mr. Zhao's instructions. After three rounds of the competition, the 'cái pàn-裁判' needs to present 'bǐ fēn-比分' in Chinese. <p><i>Please note that our classroom teacher, other group members and Mr. Zhao will watch your work, and the group that performed better during the whole process of this activity will be rewarded.</i></p>
	<p>Teacher's Role</p>	<p>The teacher's role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.</p>

During the process of conducting such a learning activity, it was observed that:

After the pupils came to the ping-pong field on the playground, they were asked to stand around the table. Then, I said 'You are going to act as the 'tour guide' on campus to introduce the equipment used for playing pīng pāng qiú in Chinese'. Míng Xù was the first pupil to raise his hand, pointing to the bats and saying 'zhè shì qiú pāi (这是球拍)' - this is the bat. Almost at the same time, Yī Nà, a very active girl in Chinese class, raised her hand, showing her intention to be the next 'tour guide'. The

girl demonstrated her exact pronunciation for ‘nà shì qiú (那是球)’ - that is the ball (Field Notes, 09/05/2017).

In terms of the morpheme ‘qiú-球’ (ball), by its very nature, it necessarily occurs in different kinds of ball sports. Correspondingly, they have learnt ‘zú qiú-足球’ (football/soccer), ‘pái qiú-排球’ (volleyball) and ‘shǒu qiú-手球’ (handball), as well as the relevant actions for them, such as ‘fā qiú-发球’ (serve the ball), ‘pāi qiú-拍球’ (bounce the ball), ‘chuán qiú-传球’ (pass the ball), ‘jiē qiú-接球’ (catch the ball), ‘chǎn qiú-铲球’ (tackle the ball) and ‘dài qiú-带球’ (dribble the ball). Therefore, it was not difficult for them to pronounce the Chinese linguistic expressions for ‘bat(s)-球拍’ (qiú pāi) and ‘ball-球’ (qiú). It was apparent that this Chinese knowledge had been incorporated into their existing knowledge, allowing further fostering of meaningful learning in Chinese class (Duff et al., 2013).

When it came to the subsequent ‘campus tour guides’, their performance in figuring out the two newly-learnt Chinese morphemes left a deep impression on me:

When I asked ‘who would like to be the tour guide to introduce other equipment in Chinese?’ In my eyes, it would be a little difficult for them to pronounce ‘qiú wǎng -球网’ (net). However, Zǐ Xuān can pronounce it correctly, saying ‘nà shì qiú wǎng - 那是球网’ (that is the net). Finally, Shào Yáng got the chance to introduce the ‘table’ for playing ping pong in Chinese. He said ‘zhè shì qiú tái - 这是球台’ (this is the table) (Field Notes, 09/05/2017).

The classroom teacher remarked on such learning activities:

I think that works well. Because you are aiming in phrase, and it is a good way to get a little bit of Chinese happening. So I think it is quite good to have a carrier sentence, you know, ‘here is the bat’, ‘here is the ball’, ‘here is a table’, ‘here is a player’, you know, you are just changing that word at the end. So it shows they can remember the phrase, as well as insert things they need to match to that, to a picture or something (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

The following evidence from the teacher-researcher’s field notes concern the teaching practices regarding how to express the scoring for a ping pong game in Chinese, such as ‘...bǐ (比)...’:

At the beginning, Yī Nà was chosen as the first ‘cái pàn-裁判’ (referee). She can use the learnt Chinese linguistic terms indicating the scoring between two ‘xuǎn shǒu - 选手’ (players), such as ‘Míng Xù got yī fēn

(1 分) - one point', and Yǔ Jiā got èr fēn (2 分) - two points'. After being informed that in oral Chinese 'two points' is read as 'liǎng fēn - 2 分' (two points), when Míng Xù got another point, she can even say 'Míng Xù has got liǎng fēn - 2 分'. Following that, Yī Nà continued using Chinese numbers and expressions to report the scoring by saying 'bǐ fēn (比分) is liù (6) bǐ sān (3) - (6:3)' during the whole process of this activity (Field Notes, 16/05/2017).

During the process of conducting the role-play activities outside the classroom, the students remembered the knowledge learnt from the previous Chinese lessons. They can build on such knowledge to help themselves be engaged in these newly-learnt Chinese vocabularies quickly and correctly. During these Chinese lessons, the students showed great interest and initiative in acting as the 'tour guide' to introduce the equipment used for playing ping pong by using the learnt Chinese expressions. The in-class engagement was reinforced with the help of their familiar sporting activity - playing ping pong, as well as their existing knowledge in relation to Chinese language.

Later on, another girl was selected to be the second referee, saying that:

'I do not know how to express scoring in Chinese'. Instantly, Yī Nà said that 'I show you how to do that'. Then, the girl - Yǔ Tíng followed Yī Nà's demonstration regarding the pronunciations of the frequently used Chinese numbers and the linguistic term '...bǐ(比) ...'. After my encouragement, she tried to present the scoring in Chinese, saying 'bǐ fēn (比分) is yī (1) bǐ (比) sān (3)' (Field Notes, 16/05/2017).

The classroom teacher noticed and mentioned that:

The students are more engaged and active, especially some students who are very shy. More importantly, two students have **become experts** in Chinese lessons. **They have set a good example for other students in class, helping other students engage in Chinese lessons** (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

He also added that:

I guess the big thing in particular in Chinese lessons is that they see the other kids having fun and that makes them want to engage and come down to you, doing a lot of the hands-on activities and turning learning things into games. **They will be resistant and reluctant, but then when they see their friends too normally doing that, like 'Oh, little Jimmy is doing well now and I will have a go as well'. Because when they are doing it, they realise that 'Oh, I did not fail and I did not make a mistake. It is OK, I am an expert as well'. And next time, they want**

to do that more willingly (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

Such students’ existing knowledge retained and consolidated from the previous Chinese lessons contributes to some students’ becoming ‘language experts’ in learning Chinese. That in turn facilitates them to be willing to provide assistance to other students who have difficulty in mastering Chinese in class. As the above information illustrates, undoubtedly, the students’ roles in the whole process of conducting such small group and role-play activities can be identified as “trigger, solver, contributor and observer” (p. 41), which are similar responses to Dobao’s (2016) research concerning peer interaction in small groups contributing to bettering their attainment and retention of L2 vocabularies. Even though the students tend to be “silent observers of their peers’ interaction” (Dobao, 2016, p. 57) in Chinese class, their engagement and performances are outstanding based on these learning events. In particular, the opportunities for listening and speaking were increased for these “silent learners” (Dobao, 2016, p. 46) due to the mutual efforts of others in completing such team collaboration tasks in Chinese.

6.1.3 Teaching Linguistic Terms Identified from Playing Basketball

The lesson plan based on the content generated from playing basketball is presented below.

Table 6. 3 Chinese Lesson Plan for Teaching Linguistic Terms Used in Playing Basketball

Term 3 & Week 3 - Week 8	Unit Title: Sports - lán qiú - 篮球 (basketball)	Date: August 15, 2017 - September 19, 2017	Class: Year 3 & Year 5
<p>Expected Learning Outcomes</p>	<p>Initially, students are asked to search the vocabularies, including ‘backboard, basketball hoop and basketball court’ by using the laptops/iPads in class in the form of working as a team.</p> <p>Subsequently, an assessment activity will be adopted in order to help the students review the sentence patterns ‘zhè shì - 这是’ (this is) and ‘nà shì - 那是’ (that is), as well as the Chinese vocabularies concerning the sports equipment used for playing ‘lán qiú - 篮球’ (basketball).</p> <p>In addition, to make the students familiar with the action words used in playing basketball, the TPR (Total Physical Response) teaching method will be adopted.</p> <div data-bbox="1007 1384 1390 1637"> <p>Sports Equipment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> backboard-lán bǎn (篮板) basketball hoop-lán kuāng (篮筐) basketball court-lán qiú chǎng (篮球场) basketball-lán qiú (篮球) </div> <div data-bbox="1007 1720 1390 1980"> <p>The Basic Actions in Playing Basketball</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> play basketball (打球) → pass the ball (传球) → catch the ball (接球) dribble the ball (运球) → shoot (投篮) </div>		

	<p>Finally, after learning such Chinese expressions in relation to ‘dǎ lán qiú - 打篮球’ (play basketball) the students are expected to be able to use these Chinese vocabularies when playing basketball in school.</p>				
<p>Lesson Outline</p>	<p>Using Laptops/iPads to Search the Vocabularies regarding Sports Equipment Used for Playing Basketball:</p> <p>1. Students will be instructed to work in a team with three or four partners based on their own decisions.</p> <p>2. One student will be selected as the team leader to bring the pencil case and a laptop/iPad.</p> <p>3. After all the preparatory work is done, the following instructions will be given by showing one picture with the vocabularies to be searched, including:</p> <div data-bbox="1034 725 1390 972"> </div> <p>4. While students are searching the vocabularies, they are encouraged to present their ‘discoveries’ in the form of drawing the playing materials, as well as writing down the corresponding Chinese <i>pīn yīn</i> (拼音) on A3 paper.</p> <p>Class Evaluation Activity</p> <p>An Assessment Activity:</p> <p>1. Five students work in a group.</p> <p>2. Four students act as the ‘tour guide’ to introduce the equipment used for playing lán qiú - 篮球 by using Chinese phrases like:</p> <div data-bbox="804 1585 1098 1659"> <p>⊙This is _____. ⊙That is _____. ⊙zhè shì _____, ⊙nà shì _____. ⊙这是_____, ⊙那是_____.</p> </div> <div data-bbox="1123 1585 1385 1756"> </div> <p>3. One student acts as the ‘cái pàn-裁判’ (referee) to give instructions in Chinese such as: …qǐng-请 (please)…</p> <div data-bbox="783 1890 1398 1964"> <table border="1"> <tr> <td>传球 chuán qiú</td> <td>接球 jiē qiú</td> <td>运球 yùn qiú</td> <td>投篮 tóu lán</td> </tr> </table> </div>	传球 chuán qiú	接球 jiē qiú	运球 yùn qiú	投篮 tóu lán
传球 chuán qiú	接球 jiē qiú	运球 yùn qiú	投篮 tóu lán		

		4. The other four students act out these actions in order to finish a mini basketball game.
	Teacher's Role	The teacher's role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.

Initially, the students' in-class engagement and performance through using laptops/iPads to search the vocabularies in relation to the sports equipment used for playing basketball were reflected in the teacher-researcher's field notes, as shown below:

In just a minute, Péng Fēi's team raised their hands and informed me that they had found out 'backboard' was pronounced as 'bèi bǎn'. I responded to him that 'bǎn is correct, so please search it again'. After a second, he showed me again with 'lón bǎn'. This time I said that 'It is completely right' and I gave his team a 'jiā yóu (加油)' sticker as a reward for their good efforts, encouraging them to continue working hard (Field Notes, 15/08/2017).

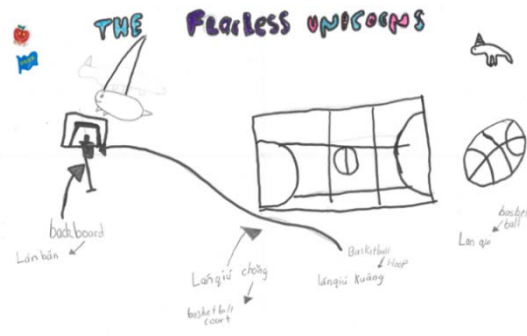
According to one of the classroom teachers:

They love technology, anything that you give them, a laptop, once again they'll love it. Technology is good, because everyone is really engaged in that (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Lǐ, Year 5, 19/09/2017).

It is worth mentioning that Péng Fēi is a really naughty student at school. However, his engagement and behaviour in these Chinese lessons were entirely beyond the teacher-researcher's expectations. Péng Fēi's team was the first group to complete this learning task and under his leadership.

There was also an extremely shy girl - Yǎ Jìng in my Chinese class. She never raised her hand to answer any questions, but she always listened to the lectures carefully in class and was always willing to participate in the activities needed to work as a team, including the drawing, designing, writing, paper folding and cutting activities conducted in Chinese lessons. When being asked to pronounce one of the Chinese vocabularies that she had searched with other team members, the following happened:

She shook her head slightly, indicating her refusal to do that. So I asked Mǎn Ní in her team to speak them out in Chinese. She was active in presenting their search results in front of the class. As for the last word - ‘lán qiú (籃球)’ - basketball, I mentioned ‘Please say it in Chinese together’.



I noticed that Yǎ Jīng opened her mouth and said that word in Chinese with other partners in her team together. At the same time, their team not only showed fabulous writing and skillful speaking of these illustrated vocabularies, but also demonstrated their vivid drawing for these corresponding searched Chinese words (Field Notes, 15/08/2017).

During this entire exercise, it was noted that most of the students were trying their best to pronounce these searched Chinese vocabularies by using the pronunciation function in Google Translation, rather than just ask the teacher how to pronounce them or tell the teacher that they cannot do that before presenting their search results. Their classroom teachers provided the following views regarding such teaching strategy:

Using the technology to incorporate into the Chinese lessons gives them a little independence. And I think every kid no matter who they are, they will get a lot of information from them, they are already engaged in. In these activities ahead, I think it is good to incorporate these laptops and the internet so they could learn more (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

I think they really like that. Using technology is very important. And it also increases students’ engagement. So they are very interested in what they are doing, especially when they are using an iPad. It allows them to find out what they would like to know about, which is really good (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

As the above evidence demonstrates, the local school students have strong capability in using advanced technology to develop their independent learning in various subjects. This local public school also provides easy access for the students to use iPads, laptops and computers, which is aimed at cultivating their learning interests and abilities so that they can undertake future study on their own. The local students at this school are fond of and skillful in utilising such advanced technology to assist them in learning languages, science, history, geography, art and mathematics, so it is no surprise that they employ this kind of learning in Chinese class.

Letting the students themselves shoulder more responsibilities, or ‘be the leaders’, in the fields which they are experts, or with which they are most familiar, can activate and mobilise their powerful knowledge shaped from real-life practices.

Here, that means making the use of their powerful knowledge of using such digital learning devices as the funds of knowledge for bettering their learning of Chinese (Roth & Erstad, 2013; Schuck, Kearney & Burden, 2017). This phenomenon echoes the belief that the utilisation of advanced technology for students’ second language learning can alter the process of their knowledge gaining, due in part to the repeated retrieval of online vocabulary dictionaries on their own, thus impacting their engagement and information retention in terms of greater self-fulfillment and independence (Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson & Freynik, 2014).

Meanwhile, strengthening opportunities to have them work in the form of a team can lessen their sense of lacking security or belonging, and alleviate their shyness to a certain extent. That is to say, allocating different roles for each team member in a group helps them to form a sense of ownership during the process of Chinese language learning. The students in this study certainly exploited their powerful knowledge in using advanced technology, as well as their prior knowledge in drawing and designing, to support and cooperate with each other in a team, which made them more engaged with the learning content.

Subsequently, the total physical response (TPR) teaching method was adopted to help the students learn the action verbs which frequently occurred in playing basketball through giving them instructions in Chinese, such as ‘Please chuán qiú - (传球), jiē qiú - (接球), yùn qiú - (运球) and tóu lán - (投篮)’. After one round, the students were instructed to sit in a circle on the floor in class and one student was selected to give instructions in Chinese standing in the middle of them. When they gradually got familiar with this activity and can give instructions in Chinese fluently on their own, it was apparent that:

They can use the language, such as ‘Please chuán qiú (传球) to...’ making up a complete sentence by their own thinking, not just a verb phrase. When it came to the action ‘shoot’ (tóu lán - 投篮), some students, such as Péng Fēi, Shào Yáng and Míng Xù acted as the basketball hoop (lán kuāng - 篮筐) for the ‘players’ to shoot by crossing their two arms to form a hoop (Field Notes, 05/09/2017).

Their classroom teacher explained:

I think that they really enjoyed their hands-on activities when you got actual, physical, like the cards they can hold and say the words on the cards, throwing the ball around (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Lǐ, Year 5, 19/09/2017).

By its very nature of being an action term, total physical response (TPR) allowed the students to perform and practise such verbs as occurred in playing basketball through their body language. A case in point was that the local students demonstrated their exact understanding of ‘tóu lán - 投篮’ (shoot) by acting as the ‘basketball hoop’ (lán kuāng - 篮筐) for the ‘players’ to shoot. Also, the process of performing such hands-on activity among the students helped to mobilise their existing sports-related Chinese expressions learnt and sustained from the previous Chinese lessons.

In terms of the assessment activity for the topic concerning playing basketball, students were required to act as the ‘tour guide’ to introduce the sports equipment used for playing basketball in Chinese with the two basic learnt Chinese sentence patterns, namely ‘zhè shì - 这是’ (this is) and ‘nà shì - 那是’ (that is). After that, they were asked to apply the four basic action verbs which occurred in playing basketball into a real situation - performing a mini basketball game. Meanwhile, the vocabulary ‘cái pàn - 裁判’ (referee) was again introduced into this assessment activity. One student played the role of a ‘cái pàn - 裁判’, giving different instructions in Chinese. The other students in the same team needed to act out the corresponding actions. In class, it was observed that:

Without using flash cards to remind them of the vocabularies for sports equipment, including ‘lán bǎn (篮板), lán kuāng (篮筐), lán qiú chǎng (篮球场) and lán qiú (篮球)’, a few students, such as Míng Xù, Wén Jié, Jùn Wěi, Xīn Yí, Yī Nà and Yǎ Nán can remember and pronounce such vocabularies in Chinese very well. Now and then, they also gave some hints to their team members on how to say them in Chinese in a whisper (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).

Under the guidance from ‘cái pàn - 裁判’ and assistance from team members, this assessment activity was conducted smoothly and completed successfully, achieving the anticipated learning outcomes to a certain extent. Subsequently, one of their classroom teachers gave the following remarks on such teaching strategy:

The outdoor activity, it is a fantastic way of learning in any subject. And it is worth absolutely using that in Chinese as well. And the children

enjoy that activity. They enjoy the basketball activity. They use that in the playground when they are playing there. You know, they would use the vocabulary as well. So it is really good. Taking children outside, they generally are more engaged, they are excited about the learning, and they enjoyed that more (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

Students commented on such hands-on activity:

(Yǔ Jiā) I think it is very cool, because we actually go outside, and like [to] see the things on the basketball court that we would more say in English. Now we can say them in two languages to show the class how we can say the main two languages. (Rú Xuě) I think it is very fun to play basketball in Chinese words because it is the wholly new things for people who do not know Chinese (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

The expected learning outcomes of this assessment activity were for the students to use the above-mentioned two Chinese sentences to practise the pronunciations of the vocabularies in relation to the basketball sports equipment in a real situation, viewing the concrete objects. Carrying out such a miniature basketball match in Chinese class is also beneficial in getting students familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of the four verb phrases which frequently occurred in playing basketball through acting out corresponding movements. In this regard, to develop pupils' vocabulary learning proficiency in EFL, it is suggested that the role-play activity, as a technique, should be included in any English course construction (Alabsi, 2016). Successfully transferring such a strategy into Chinese language classrooms, by its essential nature, demonstrates its effectiveness and achievement in teaching the local school students such Chinese expressions in relation to playing basketball, which helps to create the joyful learning experiences and outstanding learning outcomes in such an authentic learning environment.

Based on the information from the teacher-researcher's daily field notes, as well as the feedback from students and their classroom teachers, it is clear that the above-mentioned learning activities, such as 'Minion Says', 'Charades', 'Drawing & Designing', 'Using Advanced Technology', as well as 'Outdoor Interactive & Role-Play Activities' are well-known and favoured among the local students for mastering different subjects at school. As the four-character Chinese metaphor 'xǐ wén lè jiàn - 喜闻乐见' suggests, these local students are very engaged in the Chinese teaching content through participating in such school-based learning activities, which they are extremely familiar with and fond of. Undertaking such students' 'xǐ wén lè jiàn - 喜闻乐见' activities can be another essential route for the Chinese

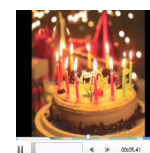
teacher-researcher to gain awareness regarding how to organise and enrich their learning of Chinese in the local educational milieu.

6.2 Lǎng Lǎng Shàng Kǒu - 朗朗上口³⁹ Melody

The relevant lesson plan is with regard to how to teach the expression ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in Chinese, being displayed in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Lesson Plan for Teaching ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in Chinese

Term 3 & Week 4 - Week 8	Unit Title: Singing - zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐 (Happy birthday to you)	Date: August 29, 2017 - September 19, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>Initially, the students are expected to be able to sing <i>Happy Birthday to You</i> in Chinese while a song video with the Chinese lyrics is being played in class.</p> <p>Following that, they are expected to be able to sing <i>Happy Birthday to You</i> in Chinese while the corresponding melody of the birthday song is being played in class.</p> <p>Gradually, students are able to say the Chinese expression ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐’, which they can use for the purpose of giving good wishes during their classmates’, teachers’, friends’ and parents’ birthdays.</p>		
Lesson Outline	<p>Class Learning Activity</p> <p>&</p> <p>Class Evaluation Activity</p>	<p>Firstly, the song video with Chinese lyrics is going to be repeatedly played at the very beginning of each Chinese lesson in order to get them familiar with the Chinese pronunciation and meaning of ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐’.</p> <p>Subsequently, they will be instructed in learning the content concerning how to express ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in the Chinese way.</p> <p>Progressively, after they have become familiar with the pronunciation and meaning of ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐’, the corresponding melody of that birthday song will be repeatedly played at the very beginning of each Chinese lesson to help them practice singing and saying ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in Chinese.</p>	



³⁹ The original source of the Chinese version: 老舍《诗与快板》：“散文就不受这么多的限制，虽然散文也讲究声调铿锵，能朗朗上口。” It refers to a genre with certain rhythms, such as verse or poetry, which is easy to read aloud and remember the content.

Teacher's Role	The teacher's role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.
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During this activity, it was observed that:

At the very beginning of Chinese lesson, the students were informed that they would listen to a Chinese birthday song with both the Chinese lyrics and the English meanings. During the process of listening, I found that some students tended to sing this Chinese birthday song with that video in their low voices. After the Chinese birthday song had been repeated twice in the video, I passed the microphone to Tiān Lěi, and then to Hào Xuān. They can sing it well in Chinese (Field Notes, 29/08/2017).

An impressive moment happened in one of these classes:

As normal, when I entered the classroom, I asked 'Is there anyone's birthday today'? All the students in class responded towards me loudly with 'Today is Jìng Qí's birthday'. At that time, I just was ready to lead them to review how to say 'Happy birthday' in Chinese and sing that song again. Afterwards, I said 'Now please let us say 'shēng rì kuài lè' to Jìng Qí together'. Then, I encouraged them to sing that birthday song to her together in Chinese while such melody was being played. Meanwhile, Jìng Qí was invited to the front, singing with us. To my delight, they really sang it well in Chinese and can still remember the meaning of 'shēng rì kuài lè'. I cannot forget the warm and enjoyable scene in which they sang the song 'Happy Birthday to You' in Chinese (Field Notes, 12/09/2017).

Another unforgettable situation occurred in Chinese class at the end of this term, a performance by the ten boys:

In this lesson, I also led them to review the Chinese birthday song together. The ten boys put their arms on each other's shoulders and waved their body while they were singing the song in Chinese. It was really a warm learning environment in class by using such catchy and well-known song in their daily life (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).

A bond with reciprocal support between the learners of Chinese language and the Chinese teacher-researcher had been created in class. That was a learning environment imbued with warmth, joy and especially with a sense of self-security which can be easily constructed among these students. As for the significance of using songs for language acquisition, it has been stressed by Candlin (1992) that "songs have a place in the classroom for helping create that friendly and co-operative atmosphere so important for language learning" (p. ix). Namely, this rapport and the harmonious class atmosphere were helpful for the local students in promoting

their chances of using ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐’ (Happy birthday to you) during the school celebratory practice. After class, their classroom teachers made such comments on using the well-known birthday melody to engage them in the learning of a Chinese birthday expression, as follows:

It is really a fun and stress-free way. It does not reflect your answers, because they have already sung ‘Happy birthday’. Harmoniously, the shy ones (especially some girls), when they saw the loud group of the boys being silly doing it, they started joining them as well. So it takes the pressure away from them, and it encourages them to engage with the students as well, very participative. They have learnt the song in a sort of singing lesson - it is the Chinese language lesson with the tune they have known (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

The ‘Happy birthday’ it is quite handy, because we do sing ‘Happy birthday’ in class. And it is a kind of a song everyone knows. So it is nice to know it in another language. Because using the same melody...because it is the same melody, it helps them to connect and engage. Because they know, [like] ‘Oh, I know the song, I know that tune, I know the melody’. So they are more interested in learning it, they know it in English. So to them it is really close for them to know in Chinese. ‘So when mum has a birthday I can sing a ‘Happy birthday’ in Chinese.’ It gives them something to connect to Chinese, too. And the tune would often help them remember the lyrics (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

The students really enjoyed learning Chinese in this way:

(Hào Xuān) Because they really, really, know the song fully. So overall, I think it is a good strategy. (Yǎ Nán) I like the birthday song, because the song it is good. It is really catchy (Focus Group C, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

As the above evidence shows, the local school students already have a strong knowledge basis for singing the song titled ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in English due to their daily frequent exposures to that song’s lyrics and tune. That is to say, knowing this world-renowned birthday song’s melody is another embodiment of the local students’ prior knowledge that has been picked up and retained from their daily birthday celebratory happenings. Particularly, such an example of prior knowledge can be considered as one of their funds of knowledge that has been shaped for a long period and derived from the birthday celebration practice. The students’ prior knowledge concerning the catchy birthday melody also suits the birthday song with the Chinese

lyrics. Namely, the Chinese version of that popular birthday song shares the same tune with the English one, which is also memorable.

Accordingly, as the four-character Chinese metaphor ‘lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu’ (朗朗上口) indicates, the Chinese birthday song, with its attractive cadence, is also easy for the local school students to sing aloud, and it is easy to remember the content based on the exploitation of their prior knowledge in relation to the appealing melody. Clearly, during the process of learning how to sing and say ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in Chinese, a novel classroom routine has been established in Chinese class. Explicitly, the singing of the song entitled ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè - 祝你生日快乐’ at the very beginning of each Chinese lesson. Such a classroom routine was established voluntarily, and performed habitually by the students in class, although this had not been planned by the Chinese teacher-researcher. Furthermore, the local school students’ prior knowledge of this catchy melody was not restricted by their gender, as both genders of students had already developed such knowledge of that song. Correspondingly, their built-up knowledge and reinforced confidence in having been familiar with such a popular tune not only contributed to enhancing both female and male students’ mutual engagement in Chinese class, but also constructed a warm space for their learning of Chinese in school.

Therefore, employing the strategy of the ‘lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu’ (朗朗上口) melody enriches the opportunities for the local students to use ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè’ (祝你生日快乐) in their daily lives. By doing so, they can strongly manifest their translanguaging capability between English and Chinese. Such ability is reinforced particularly when their prior knowledge on singing the English birthday song has been activated and transferred for learning the new Chinese expression - ‘zhù nǐ shēng rì kuài lè’ (祝你生日快乐). As their emergent bilinguals become validated and consolidated, the students would unsurprisingly transform their identity in order to engage and maintain such newly-learned knowledge in their habituated circumstance (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Lave & Wenger, 1991). In addition, the friendship among the students is strengthened, helping build a supportive Chinese learning environment in school due partly to their joint involvement in Chinese class. However, it should be mentioned that given the gender influence behind affection for particular music styles, it is important to perhaps re-orientate the content and employ genres of music which both genders enjoy or the more familiar songs everyone enjoys, such as ‘Happy Birthday to You’.

6.3 Róng Huì Guàn Tōng - 融会贯通⁴⁰

The following lesson plan concentrates on the teaching content in relation to making mathematical calculations in Chinese, followed by the collected information from the teacher-researcher's daily teaching practices.

Table 6.5 Lesson Plan for Teaching Mathematical Calculations in Chinese

Term 4 & Week 2 - Week 6	Unit Title: Calculating - jì suàn - 计算 (calculation)	Date: October 17, 2017 - November 7, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
Expected Learning Outcomes	<p>1. Make the students familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of the five basic calculation symbols in Chinese through using the learnt Chinese numbers to complete basic and simple mathematical calculations.</p> <p>2. Adopting a game entitled 'Magic Time' to help the students get more familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of the five basic calculation symbols in Chinese.</p> <p>3. After a period of learning, they are expected to be able to do calculations in Chinese skillfully outside Chinese class or school, in daily lives, or maybe later in China.</p>		
Lesson Outline	<p>Learning Activity</p> <p>vs</p>	<p>Make a Guess for the Chosen Calculation Symbol(s):</p> <p>Use the dice, as well as the flashcards with numbers and calculation symbols.</p> <p>Throw one dice to get one number.</p> <p>Throw another dice to get another number.</p> <p>After that, the corresponding calculation symbols, including 'jiā (加), jiǎn (减), chéng (乘), chú (除) and dēng yú (等于)' will be chosen to complete a mathematical calculation, while using the number flashcards to indicate the final result.</p> <p>Please remember that the numbers you got and the calculation symbols you chose are required to be said in Chinese.</p>	



⁴⁰ The original source of the Chinese version: 《朱子全书·学三》：“举一而三反，闻一而知十，乃学者用功之深，穷理之熟，然后能融会贯通，以至于此。” In the Chinese sense: 融会: 融合领会; 贯通: 贯穿前后。把各方面的知识和道理融化汇合，得到全面透彻的理解。It refers to achieving the mastery of new knowledge through combining it with the existing knowledge comprehensively.

	Evaluation Activity	<p>Magic Time:</p> <p>A piece of cloth will be used to cover all the five flashcards with calculation symbols. Meanwhile, the flashcards with numbers will be put into a big bag. You need to close your eyes while these preparation tasks are being done.</p> <p>Afterwards, one corresponding flashcard will be taken away.</p> <p>Next, you can open your eyes and one of you will be selected to guess which is on the missing flashcard.</p> <p>Subsequently, please use the symbol that has been taken away to complete a mathematical calculation.</p> <p>Please remember that you are required to use Chinese to do all the above-mentioned tasks.</p>
Teacher's Role	The teacher's role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.	

Before conducting the first learning activity, the students were instructed to sit in a circle on the floor. Two different dice, as well as the flashcards with calculation symbols of corresponding pronunciations, were prepared. Firstly, a demonstration from the Chinese teacher was presented to the students to make them aware of the rules of this activity. Afterwards, the students were advised to work as a team to complete the corresponding task. In terms of their involvement, it was found that:

One group of students got two '6' after throwing two dice separately. Then, they preferred to choose 'jiā (加)' as the symbol for such calculation. However, they raised their hands, suggesting not knowing how to express numbers beyond '10' in Chinese (Field Notes, 17/10/2017).



That provided me with a good opportunity for developing their numeracy abilities to say more numbers in Chinese. Subsequently, I added:

Now, please follow Mr. Zhao to count numbers starting from **11 (shí yī)** in Chinese. We counted from **11(shí yī)** to **19 (shí jiǔ)**, showing them how to combine the learnt Chinese numbers into the newly-learnt ones, such as '**10 (shí)** along with **1 (yī)**, we got **11 (shí yī)**'. When it comes to

‘20 (èr shí)’, I said that ‘we are going to learn it in following Chinese lessons’. Immediately, Hào Xuān, a boy said **‘èr shí’**. I continued asking him ‘how do you know that?’ Then, he responded me that ‘you have taught us how to say the numbers from 0 to 10 in Chinese, such as **‘2’** is pronounced as **‘èr’**, **‘10’** is pronounced as **‘shí’**, so I think that it is pronounced as **‘èr shí’** (Field Notes, 17/10/2017).

Subsequently, in order to get students more familiar with the learnt five basic calculation symbols together with the learnt numbers in Chinese the learning activity entitled ‘Magic Time’ was adopted. As for the first round, the flashcards with five calculation symbols were distributed randomly on the floor in the middle of classroom, covering them with a cloth. Meanwhile, students could not open their eyes until one of the flashcards had been taken away.

They raised their hands so quickly, indicating to answer this question actively and confidently. Péng Fēi got the first opportunity to find out the missing calculation symbol, and told us it in Chinese. He said that quickly and exactly ‘It is **chú** (除) that has been taken away’ (Field Notes, 31/10/2017).

Afterwards, all the numbers from 0 to 10 were put into a big bag. One of the students was invited to pick up one number randomly from the big bag, speaking it out in Chinese:

The first number Jīng Qí got was **‘shí (10)’**. The second number was **‘jiǔ (9)’**, which was obtained from Hào Xuān’s random selection. They can pronounce the two numbers in Chinese very well (Field Notes, 31/10/2017).

When it came to the final result, the students encountered a situation: was that **shí (10) chú** (除) **jiǔ (九) děng yú** (等于) ...?

They said to themselves in whispers **‘shí chú jiǔ děng yú...?’** or **‘jiǔ chú shí děng yú...?’**. After thinking for a while, Péng Fēi told me **‘jiǔ chú shí děng yú 0.9’**. Very quickly, he picked up **‘0 and 9’** from these numbers on the floor (Field Notes, 31/10/2017).

In terms of the second round, the students were informed that this ‘Magic Game’ would be played in another way. At the very beginning of the second round, one of the students was selected to give instructions for this game in the middle of the classroom:

This time, the first selected student was Tiān Měi, and it was suggested she put the five flashcards with calculation symbols into that big bag. Then, she asked one of her classmates to randomly take one out of from

the bag, which was 'jiā'. The two Chinese numbers were also got in the same way. Subsequently, such mathematical calculation was completed - 'shí (10) jiā (加) liù (6) děng yú (等于) shí liù (16)' (Field Notes, 31/10/2017).

After the numbers, such as '11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16 repeatedly occurred in the final calculation result, it was found that:

The students tended to be more familiar with these numbers' Chinese pronunciations. At first, they just pronounced them as 'yī yī', 'yī èr'.... Based on several practices of such numbers that occurred in the calculation results, most of them can pronounce them as 'shí yī (11), shí èr (12), ... shí liù (16)' through using the learnt Chinese numbers and calculation symbols to make some mathematical calculations during Chinese lessons (Field Notes, 31/10/2017).

As for the last round, in order to make more students engaged in the learning activity, the five flashcards with calculation symbols were secretly put in front of five students while they were closing their eyes. Before that, the five numbers, including 10 (shí), 2 (èr), 3 (sān), 8 (bā), 5 (wǔ) had been written down on a whiteboard, to be used for making a little complicated mathematical calculation. After the five students got the corresponding calculation symbols, they were invited to the front, mutually negotiating and thinking together to figure out a final result. During the whole process, they were advised to use the learnt Chinese knowledge as much as possible. It was noticeable that in such a process the five students were able to use the learnt Chinese linguistic terms as much as they can remember to discuss them, arranging the different calculation symbols into their proper positions. The students said:

'děng yú (等于) should come to the position in front of the final result', 'jiā (加) should be put to the position before the number 'bā (8)', 'it is better to put 'jiǎn (减)' into the second position for calculation symbol', 'chú (除) must be put to the position before the number wǔ (5)', and then 'chéng (乘) comes to the first position for the calculation symbol - between shí (10) and èr (2)'. They discussed again and again how to complete such a little complicated mathematical calculation in Chinese. Finally, the calculating process and the final result were presented on the whiteboard (Field Notes, 31/10/2017).



The whole process of making such calculations was being conducted and finally completed through their mutual efforts in a team, which not only helped the students advance their individual engagement in practising the pronunciations of the newly-learnt Chinese vocabularies, but also turned out to be effective in mobilising their multi-intelligences, including doing, speaking, as well as thinking, especially when learning Chinese in such an English-speaking space.

Following the students' in-class engagement and performance regarding learning the five basic calculation symbols, and building on the learnt Chinese numbers from 0 to 10, their classroom teachers similarly indicated that:

It is a very effective strategy. Because it allows students to revise things they already know, so it is extra practise. And also it is giving them confidence in learning new things, because they are using vocabulary, words or knowledge they already have to engage with something new which will be challenging for them. It makes that link for them, gives them connection to what they already know (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

Oh, you need to do that, you need to be spring boarding from what they know to learn more. So you should be doing that, building on each thing. So you start by learning, you know the numbers, and once we know those numbers, we can count one to ten, then we can add the math symbols, then we can make little number sentences. So you do need to be using those building steps (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

They learn very well when you build on what they already know. That is very helpful. And with the numbers as well, they were able to...because they learnt the numbers, they learnt the equation so they were able to pick up them [these activities] very well. One thing must build on...ah, so they can continue getting better and better. So that is really good. They found it easier as well. That is to say they are more engaged. It is not too hard for them where...If we just started, just try to teach them sentences straight away, it would be too much. They would not understand it. Because they already knew the numbers, we were able to teach them sentences more effectively (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

The teacher-researcher's practices of teaching mathematical calculation symbols combined with the learnt Chinese numbers, as well as the feedback from the classroom teachers, revealed that focusing on the concept of 'róng huì guān tōng' (融会贯通) can enable the local students to activate their existing knowledge that had been retained from the previous Chinese lessons, thus making it part of their funds of knowledge formed in the school-based community. Here,

it is emphasised that the existing knowledge of the local students is specified as their learnt knowledge on Chinese numbers from 0 to 10. Additionally, the local students' knowledge in relation to doing mathematical calculations with the basic symbols is another embodiment of their prior knowledge that supports them to be engaged in the learning of Chinese calculation symbols and more Chinese numbers (from 11 to 20) in class. Also, to make a balanced link between students' prior and existing knowledge to the mastery of new information, it is argued that teachers not only should offer effective instruction strategies to complete such forward knowledge transfer, for instance, utilising their prior and existing knowledge to obtain the new knowledge, but should also recognise the potential impacts of backward information transfer, namely employing newly-learnt knowledge to enhance their memorisation of the previously-learnt information (Hohensee, 2016).

As the nature of 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通) suggests, the local students' existing knowledge about the learnt Chinese numbers, as well as their prior knowledge on the general calculation rules, collectively prepare them to achieve new and challenging language knowledge, namely the five calculation symbols in Chinese and the Chinese numbers beyond 10. The extent of such student knowledge is not determined by gender. That is to say, both boys and girls have already mastered the basic rules of making mathematical calculations in English, attributable to their daily access to learning activities for cultivating their numeracy expertise in school. At the same time, these groups of students have been exposed to the learning of Chinese for a period of time in school, especially the Chinese numbers. That means not only did these students already know how to make mathematical calculations, but they were also already familiar with these Chinese numbers (from 0 to 10). Consequently, combining the five newly-learnt mathematical calculation symbols into the formerly-learnt Chinese numbers and mathematical equations advances these students' capabilities to attain such new Chinese linguistic terms on calculations and more Chinese numbers, in a way of which minimises pressure.

On the other hand, 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通) becomes a tool for identifying and utilising other forms' of the local students' funds of knowledge in school, such as their prior knowledge of the basic calculation principles, and existing knowledge of the learnt Chinese numbers, that would help to consolidate their learning of the novel Chinese language knowledge relevant to the mathematical calculation symbols. In this way, the students in class are actively absorbed in these learning activities, not being 'ignorant and passive puppets'. Naturally, such

knowledge is essentially in the course of getting the local students to initiate their learning of the new and thought-provoking Chinese knowledge, for instance, the Chinese expressions of the basic calculation symbols. Through employing the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community, the teacher-researcher complies with the notion of 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通) that deepens the understanding of the local students' intellectual repertoires, which can contribute to their further learning achievements in Chinese language.

Therefore, based on the concept of 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通), it is clear that the local school students are capable of pronouncing and making sensing of the five newly-learnt Chinese calculation symbols, together with the learnt Chinese numbers, through making mathematical calculations by themselves in Chinese. It has also been proved that as the students get more familiar with such knowledge, they gradually develop their translanguaging capabilities in mastering more new Chinese knowledge by their own, through effecting the benefits brought by 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通).











6.4 Huì Shēng Huì Sè - 绘声绘色 ⁴¹

This subsection presents a lesson plan in relation to teaching the corresponding Chinese linguistic expressions for the English words which students frequently use for their daily shopping at the school canteen.

Table 6. 6 Lesson Plan for Teaching Shopping in Chinese

Term 4 & Week 4 - Week 9	Unit Title: School Canteen Shopping - gòu wù - 购物 (shopping)	Date: October 31, 2017 - December 5, 2017	Class: Year 3, Year 4 & Year 5
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⁴¹ The original source of the Chinese version: 清·朱庭珍《筱园诗话》卷一：“必使山情水性，因绘声绘色而曲得其真；务期天巧地灵，借人工人第而华传其妙。”本义是把人物的声音、神色都描绘出来。形容叙述、描写生动逼真。绘：描绘，描摹。It means that something is described in a very vivid way and lifelike style through presenting its sound and appearance.

<p>Expected Learning Outcomes</p> <p>(Listening & Speaking)</p>	<p>Initially, a ‘drama performing’ activity is designed and employed to help the students develop their initial cognition towards the pronunciations and meanings of the Chinese linguistic expressions which correspond to the English they employ while shopping at the school canteen.</p> <p>Subsequently, a matching activity is adopted to judge their understandings concerning the pronunciations and meanings of such Chinese sentences used for their daily shopping activity.</p> <p>Afterwards, the following learning activities, namely ‘You Draw, I Guess’ and ‘Picking Mushrooms’ (cǎi mó gu - 采蘑菇) will be carried out to help them get more familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of vocabularies concerning the top three most popular foods at the school canteen, including ‘ròu bǐng [肉饼] - meat pie’, ‘shòu sī [寿司] - sushi roll(s)’, ‘chǎo fàn [炒饭] - Chinese fried rice’, as well as the frequently used Chinese sentence patterns for shopping as the above shown.</p> <p>After a period of learning, students are expected to be able to perform shopping in Chinese class, or in their daily lives outside Chinese class, or maybe later shopping in China.</p> <div data-bbox="826 203 1388 689" style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">  <div data-bbox="1125 409 1388 689" style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;"> <p>A: Hello, Can I have a Sushi Roll?</p> <p>B: Sure, that would be 3 dollars.</p> <p>A: Here you are.</p> <p>B: Here is your Sushi Roll.</p> <p>A: Thanks.</p> <p>B: Bye-bye.</p> </div> </div>				
<p>Lesson Outline</p>	<table border="0" style="width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="width: 30%; vertical-align: top;"> <p>Drama Performing - Shopping in Chinese:</p> <p>Two students work in pairs.</p> <p>One student acts as the buyer.</p> <p>The other student acts as the sales person.</p> <p>Acting out this real shopping situation in Chinese by using the provided menu.</p> </td> <td style="width: 70%; vertical-align: top;"> <p style="text-align: center;">Chinese Menu</p> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>ròu bǐng [肉饼] / shí yuán qián [10 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>shòu sī [寿司] / sān yuán qián [3 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>chǎo fàn [炒饭] / wǔ yuán qián [5 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">vs</td> <td style="vertical-align: top;"> <p>You Draw, I Guess:</p> <p>Two students work in pairs.</p> </td> </tr> </table>	<p>Drama Performing - Shopping in Chinese:</p> <p>Two students work in pairs.</p> <p>One student acts as the buyer.</p> <p>The other student acts as the sales person.</p> <p>Acting out this real shopping situation in Chinese by using the provided menu.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Chinese Menu</p> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>ròu bǐng [肉饼] / shí yuán qián [10 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>shòu sī [寿司] / sān yuán qián [3 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>chǎo fàn [炒饭] / wǔ yuán qián [5 元钱]</p> </div>  </div>	vs	<p>You Draw, I Guess:</p> <p>Two students work in pairs.</p>
<p>Drama Performing - Shopping in Chinese:</p> <p>Two students work in pairs.</p> <p>One student acts as the buyer.</p> <p>The other student acts as the sales person.</p> <p>Acting out this real shopping situation in Chinese by using the provided menu.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Chinese Menu</p> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>ròu bǐng [肉饼] / shí yuán qián [10 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>shòu sī [寿司] / sān yuán qián [3 元钱]</p> </div>  </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="text-align: left;"> <p>chǎo fàn [炒饭] / wǔ yuán qián [5 元钱]</p> </div>  </div>				
vs	<p>You Draw, I Guess:</p> <p>Two students work in pairs.</p>				

	<p>Evaluation Activity</p>	<p>One student needs a draw a picture based on the given instructions/clues from Mr. Zhao.</p> <p>The other student will make a guess about the drawn picture, namely tell us what it is in Chinese.</p> <p>The two students that use the least time to answer it correctly will be the winning group.</p>  <p>Picking Mushrooms (cǎi mó gu - 采蘑菇):</p> <p>According to the instructions that you heard from Mr. Zhao or your classmates, please pick the correct mushroom.</p> <p>A demonstration will be given to you:</p>  <p>e.g. please pick a 'hóng sè' (红色) mushroom for 'nǐ hǎo, wǒ yào yī gè shòu sī' (你好, 我要一个寿司), then please quickly put a hóng sè (红色) mushroom beside that sentence.</p> <p>After finishing picking all the different coloured mushrooms, the students need to put the flashcard with the corresponding English meaning of each Chinese sentence beside each mushroom.</p>
<p>Teacher's Role</p>	<p>The teacher's role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.</p>	

In order to get the students familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of the Chinese linguistic expressions which correspond to the English they use in their daily shopping practice at the school canteen, the following learning and teaching strategy was adopted to construct a real shopping situation in class:

One student acted as the sales person, and another student was invited to be the buyer. Meanwhile, the apron, the Chinese menu, the Chinese currency and the food flashcards were well-prepared. Subsequently, the shopping dialogue began with a sentence, such as “Hello, Can I have a Sushi Roll?” followed by “Sure, that would be three



dollars”. That continued with “Here you are”, “Here is your Sushi Roll”, and ended with “Thanks, as well as Bye-bye”. It was noticed that when being asked to perform this shopping situation in English, almost all the students were active to raise their hands, showing me their preference and willingness to participate in this activity (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

Such drama performances in English were conducted among the three groups. It was then time to transfer their attention to the Chinese sentence patterns while they were concentrating on this activity. After that, they were instructed and encouraged to act it out in Chinese by using the sentences shown to them. The first demonstration was performed by the Chinese teacher-researcher in cooperation with one of the students. On the one hand, this was intended to give students a better understanding of this learning task. On the other hand, it helped them regarding their cognition towards the pronunciations and meanings of the corresponding Chinese sentences used for this shopping practice. During their performances, it was noticed that:

The students were really skilful in pronouncing such Chinese linguistic expressions as ‘nǐ hǎo (你好), xiè xie (谢谢) and zài jiàn (再见)’. They can even say them in Chinese naturally. After two rounds, I said “Now, two students will be invited to the front to act it out in Chinese, the team that performs well will get the stickers as the awards from me”. Just at that point, both boys and girls were really active and joyful to be involved in this learning activity. They were not scared of using Chinese language to perform this real shopping situation in class. Even though Péng Fēi initially inquired that “Can I use English to act it out?” he then asked “Can we do it in Chinese outside class?” (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

Such questions informed the Chinese teacher-researcher that this kind of learning style can really help the students more readily to use Chinese language for shopping activities inside school and outside school. Subsequently, the students were selected to work in pairs to act out the real shopping situation in Chinese with the help of the Chinese money, Chinese menu, the food flashcards, as well as the apron, recorded as follows:

They tended to use ‘shòu sī (寿司)’ as the food they would like to buy. After two rounds, I announced that “shòu sī (寿司) has been sold out, please choose the other food to buy” (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

Later, Yǔ Jiā from the third group, said “**nǐ hǎo (你好), wǒ yào yī gè ròu bǐng (我要一个肉饼)?**” (Hello, Can I have a meat pie?). And then, the boy - Míng Xù in the final group said that “**nǐ hǎo (你好), wǒ yào yī gè chǎo fàn (我要一个炒饭)?**” (Hello, Can I have the fried rice?), adding “I like eating chǎo fàn” (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

As for the sentence pattern ‘zhè shì [这是] - here is/this is’ which occurred in the shopping language, it was observed and worth mentioning that:

The students can pronounce it skilfully and firmly, because they have already learnt it from the previous Chinese lessons (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

After the students completed their drama performances in Chinese for four rounds, they were instructed to sit in a circle on the floor. They were informed that:

“Now, we are going to do a matching activity. On the right side of the floor, the flashcards are the Chinese sentences. On the left side of the floor, the flashcards are the English translations. All of them have been distributed randomly on the floor. You are going to match the Chinese one with the corresponding English one”. At that time, Míng Xù suddenly spoke out “Oh, I know them - the meanings for them”. Other students also seemed confident for this activity (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

Yǎ Nán was selected to match the first sentence - “nǐ hǎo (你好), wǒ yào yī gè shòu sī (我要一个寿司)”. She didn’t have any hesitation to choose “Hello, can I have a Sushi Roll?” Then, Jìng Qí was invited to do the second one. When it came to “hǎo de (好的), sān yuán qián (3 元钱)”, she can pronounce it beautifully in Chinese. However, Jìng Qí was a little confused with the meaning of it, she initially tended to choose “Here you are” for that Chinese sentence. While, at that time Hào Rán immediately stopped her from doing that, advising her to pick up “Sure, that would be 3 dollars”. Then, “Do you agree with that?” I asked. “Yes”, they said together. Jìng Qí also nodded her head to indicate her agreement and understanding on that sentence’s meaning (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

In terms of ‘xiè xie (谢谢) and zài jiàn (再见)’:

“The left ones were much easier”, Zǐ Xuān said, whilst yelling out “me, me, me”. I then responded “OK, please choose the meanings of xiè xie (谢谢) for us”. Immediately, he picked up the flashcard with ‘Thanks’ self-assuredly (Field Notes, 07/11/2017).

During the whole process, the students were encouraged to use Chinese as much as they can, even though this was the first time they had encountered the Chinese sentence patterns - ‘wǒ yào yī gè’ (我要一个) ... and ‘gěi nǐ qián’ (给你钱). Obviously, ‘Drama Performing’ was very popular among the local students for learning Chinese, and they commented:

(Yǔ Jiā) I love it. I think it is really cool, because we get to think of the food that we have in English menu, that is the other way to learn another

language. (Yī Nà) People all have fun and a lot of learning at the same time. (Yǎ Jìng) I like doing the drama performances. Because we have fun, and we get to see the Chinese money, and we get to see how we get the...show the stuff in Chinese (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

What is more, the classroom teachers shed light on their own positive and supportive attitudes and opinions towards such teaching strategies, which engaged the students in learning Chinese in a lifelike situation:

With the shopping, they like the role-play. It is not only the role-play, but because actually they relate to them as you actually took the food we have from the canteen, and the menu from our canteen, and you used them in the lessons. You know, they can relate it to themselves. Otherwise, if they cannot relate the information no matter what it is, Chinese or English, they cannot relate it to themselves. They are not going to care much about it or learn much or be more engaged. So I think the lessons you had on the canteen and the food have been really successful (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

Again it comes back to making connections. It is really a good strategy, because it allows them to connect their own real life experiences with trying to remember or learn, figure out what the new words or content is. That is really a strong way for them to make meaning of what you want them to learn (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

As the above information indicates, teaching Chinese under the guidance of the concept ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色) in the school-based context helps to construct such an authentic learning space for allowing spoken Chinese to occur naturally in the local students’ real-life experiences. Based on this concept, the teaching focus was on how the above-mentioned learning activities were adopted to direct the teacher-researcher to utilise the tangible ‘shēng - 声’ (voice - the oral expressions) and the concrete ‘sè - 色’ (appearance/colour - the stuff) from the local students’ daily school-based learning practices. Initially, in terms of ‘shēng - 声’ and ‘sè - 色’ they were linked to the ‘Drama Performing’, which was intended to get the students to speak and use Chinese in their familiar context within the school-based community by means of utilising such shopping language and materials from their actual lives. This allowed the mutual construction of a ‘miniature’ authentic and localised situation for making Chinese happen habitually. Meanwhile, such an interactive activity acted out in Chinese class was also favoured by the local classroom teachers, who said:

What we have been focusing on at school as well in other learning areas is influencing, and learning to get messages from the situation, and

learning to get messages from the text that is not written (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

The shopping in Chinese is quite effective, because you link them to the things that were available in the canteen. The things they might be able to role play doing in the canteen. So it is relating to the things they actually do, putting them into their real context for them. And it is obvious when they go to the canteen they would be shopping and buying the things they need. They know how to buy things. It is an engaging activity. Also when you do the role to play it, so they role-play being the customer, or being the shop keeper, this is very engaging as well (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

The strategy of ‘Drama Performing’ is also widely used by the local classroom teachers for teaching their students other subjects at school. And this teaching strategy and learning style has been accepted by and is attractive to both boys and girls. Accordingly, the pedagogical belief ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色) serves as a bridge for the Chinese teacher-researcher to reach the local students’ funds of knowledge from their concrete school-based lives. ‘Drama Performing’ was an exact embodiment of ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色), as the local students’ engaged in and demonstrated the relevant shopping language in Chinese. Once again the concept of ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色) has been used to find out more forms of the local students’ funds of knowledge which have accumulated in the school-based community, making Chinese more learnable for them. In this sense, the local students’ prior knowledge from their real shopping experiences at the school canteen supplements the source and embodiment of their funds of knowledge, especially gathered in the school-based community. Their funds of knowledge here are their prior knowledge in regard to the linguistic terms commonly occurring in such shopping activity, such as how to initiate and end the conversation between the seller and the buyer, as well as how to order the food. As the evidence shows, such students’ funds of knowledge are beneficial for them in developing a better understanding of the corresponding Chinese expressions used for this sort of shopping practice, particularly the Chinese sentences’ meanings. The features of the ‘Drama Performing’ technique, as employed commonly in second language classrooms, were exemplified by Winston (2014):

Drama is essentially a multimodal form of pedagogy, offering different points of entry for students’ interests to be engaged. Good language teachers already make use of visual aids, of animation, of sound, of the possibilities afforded by new technologies. Drama, too, offers **visual and auditory signs** for students to make sense of but the difference is that the

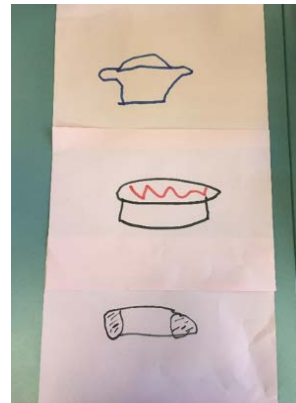
multimodality of drama pedagogy largely depends upon the presence of live bodies (p. 4).

When it comes to the benefits of adopting drama as a teaching scheme for language teachers, Winston also made the following points:

One of the potential strengths of drama for language teachers is its social nature. Students being able and willing to work together, watch and listen to one another, talk through ideas and improvise together, shape material and present it in groups - such is the very stuff of the drama classroom. The spirit that characterises such work at its best is that of the ensemble - where everyone supports everyone else for the benefit of the whole group. Such an atmosphere is necessarily founded on trust and co-operation and will, when achieved, encourage students to **find their own voices, lose their inhibitions, contribute and speak out in class** (2014, p. 5).

Based on the students' in-class engagement in the learning activity entitled 'You Draw, I Guess', it was observed that:

Very soon, the student started the first drawing based on the picture shown to him, which was "ròu bǐng [肉饼]". Then, another team member was thinking for a while, responding "Sorry, I know what that is in English, but I forgot how to say that in Chinese". Then, I asked other students in class "Can you help her?" Simultaneously, they responded "ròu bǐng". I replied "it is correct, let us continue this game". Then the boy continued his drawing after I showed him the flashcard "shòu sī [寿司]". As for this word, this girl made a quick response, saying "shòu sī" exactly. I said "Well done". Naturally, the last word was 'chǎo fàn [炒饭]'. The boy drew a simple bowl with some rice on top of it. That girl - Yǔ Jiā was thinking for a second, answering 'chǎo fàn'. Finally, this took them 2 minutes and 52 seconds (Field Notes, 14/11/2017).



The second group of students encountered a similar situation: the respondent forgot how to say 'fried rice' in Chinese. This took them 2 minutes and 30 seconds. The third group of students not only did a good job in drawing, but also presented a quick and exact reaction towards the pronunciations and meanings of the three food vocabularies. It is worth stating that when they came to the last vocabulary - 'ròu bǐng', even though the boy did not draw the corresponding picture for 'ròu bǐng', another student can speak out 'ròu bǐng' quickly and confidently. That saved some time for this group. This took them 1 minute and 50 seconds (Field Notes, 14/11/2017).

Afterwards, students also revealed their affection for this sort of activity, which was adopted in class for the purpose of reinforcing their familiarity with the pronunciations and meanings of newly-learnt Chinese vocabularies, as follows:

[Hào Xuān] I think the drawing is fun, because I like drawing. And getting into learning and drawing at the same time is fun. [Yī Nà] We have a lot of fun doing it. And we all work together in turns to do it. And we enjoy drawing as well (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

It turned out that the students really enjoyed this learning style in class, which helped them to more easily engage in learning such Chinese vocabularies through the vivid drawing and mutual cooperation.

Another learning activity entitled ‘Picking Mushrooms’ was conducted in the following way. Firstly, the students were instructed to sit in a circle on the floor. Then, they were required to read the rules together loudly. Subsequently, an instruction and a demonstration were given to them, namely ‘Please pick a hóng sè (红色) mushroom for nǐ hǎo (你好), wǒ yào yī gè shòu sī (我要一个寿司), then please quickly put a hóng sè (红色) mushroom beside that sentence’. It is worth stating that the foundation for this learning activity is not only the students’ knowledge about the three newly-learnt Chinese food vocabularies and those Chinese sentences. More importantly, the Chinese colour vocabularies are the very essence in supporting their completion of this learning activity. Thus, at the very beginning, the learnt colour vocabularies were reviewed to make sure that they can still remember their pronunciations and meanings. To my delight, most of them were still able to pronounce them very well and be clear in their meanings. Next, after all the ‘mushrooms’ and flashcards with the Chinese sentences’ pronunciations had been distributed randomly on the floor, the first instruction was given:

Please pick a ‘zǐ sè (紫色)’ mushroom for ‘zhè shì nǐ de shòu sī (这是你的寿司)’. Then, I asked ‘who wants to be the first one’? The first student - Tiān Yòu actively and highly raised his hand. Then, I chose him to answer this question. I saw that he can quickly pick up a purple mushroom. After he was thinking for a while, then he put it beside the sentence ‘nǐ hǎo (你好), wǒ yào yī gè shòu sī (我要一个寿司)’. Subsequently, I tentatively asked him ‘are you sure of this choice’? He looked at me, nodding his head firmly to indicate his confirmation. After that, I asked other students that ‘do you agree with his choice’? They said ‘No’ together. Then, I repeated the sentence twice. Very quickly, Tiān Lěi raised his hand, and was invited to make another choice. He told me that ‘zhè shì nǐ de shòu sī’ means ‘Here is your Sushi Roll’. I said ‘it is right’ (Field Notes, 21/11/2017).

As for picking the second and the third mushrooms, I said:

Please pick a ‘lǜ sè (绿色)’ mushroom for ‘hǎo de (好的), sān yuán qián (3 元钱)’. Míng Xuān chose the right colour for such a Chinese sentence quickly. I responded to him ‘Well done’. The following instruction was ‘Please pick a lán sè (蓝色) mushroom for gěi nǐ qián (给你钱)’. Then, I invited Yǎ Nán to choose one. When noticing her hesitation concerning that Chinese sentence, I repeated the sentence - ‘gěi nǐ qián (给你钱)’. Immediately, she made a right decision on it (Field Notes, 21/11/2017).

Upon noticing that the students were already familiar with this learning activity, I announced:

‘Now, Mr. Zhao needs an assistant to give instructions like that in Chinese. Who is going to be the Chinese teacher now?’ I asked. Then Měi Jìng was invited to give instructions in Chinese and select students to answer her question. Subsequently, she said ‘please pick a hóng sè (红色) mushroom for zài jiàn (再见)’. I



responded towards her ‘sorry for that, Mr. Zhao lost the hóng sè (红色) mushroom’. So she said ‘please pick a bái sè (白色) mushroom for zài jiàn (再见)’ clearly, as well as invited Yǔ Nà to do this. After finishing that correctly, Yǔ Nà was advised to choose the more difficult one among the two Chinese sentences left, including ‘xiè xie (谢谢)’, and ‘nǐ hǎo, wǒ yào yī gè shòu sī (你好, 我要一个寿司)’. Hence, she gave the instruction ‘please pick a fěn sè (粉色) mushroom for nǐ hǎo, wǒ yào yī gè shòu sī (你好, 我要一个寿司)’. After that, the girl Jìng Xiāng picked a ‘huáng sè (黄色)’ mushroom for the last Chinese expression ‘xiè xie (谢谢)’, but she forgot how to say ‘yellow’ in Chinese. At that moment, their classroom teacher spoke to all the students that ‘everybody should know how to say yellow’. Then, they said ‘huáng sè (黄色)’ together. Due to her mutual efforts with other classmates, Jìng Xiāng did it well (Field Notes, 21/11/2017).

After finishing reviewing the sentences, there were two different coloured mushrooms left, namely ‘hēi sè (黑色) and zōng sè (棕色)’. However, there were three food vocabularies left. Therefore, I then encouraged them to pick one mushroom to represent two food vocabularies at once. It was observed that:

Yǔ Xún gave an instruction ‘pick a ‘hēi sè (黑色)’ mushroom, and then put it beside ‘ròu bǐng (肉饼)’, together with ‘chǎo fàn (炒饭)’. After hearing that, Jìng Yí completed it quickly and exactly (Field Notes, 21/11/2017).

As soon as they finished picking all the different coloured mushrooms for each Chinese sentence, the students were required to make a response towards the English meanings of such Chinese sentences. In doing so, it was noticed that:

Even though the students were rather slow to respond to the English meanings, they can still provide an exact feedback on understanding the English meanings of such Chinese sentences (Field Notes, 21/11/2017).

Therefore, through conducting this activity the students not only became familiar with the pronunciations and meanings of the learnt three food vocabularies, as well as the corresponding Chinese sentences used for shopping at the school canteen. They also came to associate the learnt Chinese colour vocabularies with such newly-learnt Chinese knowledge.

Later on, a group of students expressed their fondness for the in-class activities employed for learning the relevant linguistic terms used for daily shopping at the school canteen:

(Yǔ Jiā) I think the drama one that I learned more, because we get to learn new food and things in Chinese. So if we want to go to China, what I can do is to ask something for food. (Rú Xuě) I like ‘Picking Mushrooms’ very well, because we also get to learn colours in that. And we also get to pick the colour mushrooms. So we can also get to learn (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

Additionally, employing the concept ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色) in designing and practising the learning activities, such as ‘You Draw, I Guess’ and ‘Picking Mushrooms’ assists the teacher-researcher to concentrate on the function of ‘sè - 色’ (appearance/colour) for engaging the local students in getting more familiar with the Chinese shopping language, through drawing on their existing knowledge concerning the colour vocabularies learnt and retained from earlier Chinese lessons at school, as well as incorporating their preferred drawing activity. Originally, in Chinese ‘sè - 色’ means ‘colour’ without the help of any context in ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色). Here, making use of the students’ learnt Chinese colour vocabularies sets up a vivid situation for employing Chinese in the representation of ‘sè - 色’ (colour vocabularies and the drawn images). Furthermore, one of the classroom teachers provided the

following remarks in regard to such learning activities contribution to the students' learning and using of Chinese shopping language:

I think it works quite well, because they should have been reasonably familiar with the colours, the names because I record them, being told the colours in Chinese Year 1 and Year 2. So that should have been [their] *existing knowledge* that has been sort of reactive activities. So hopefully, they would remember it. And when you go back to the previously learnt words and stuff, it just helps to consolidate it for them (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

Most of the students in this local public school have transferred some of their personal time to learn Chinese at school, even after school due to the support for Chinese learning from the local Department of Education. This modification to course arrangements gives the local students wider and more convenient access to learning Chinese in the school-based community. Large groupings of these students had been exposed to learning Chinese colour vocabularies in Year 1 and Year 2, and most of them have retained such knowledge. The Chinese teacher-researcher has activated such students' funds of knowledge (here especially referring to their existing knowledge concerning the learnt Chinese colour vocabularies) to engage them in a 'knowledgeable' role in mastering the new Chinese knowledge - enhancing their shopping language and food vocabulary by the instruction of the 'sè - 色' (appearance/colour) from the concept of 'huì shēng huì sè' (绘声绘色). Such knowledge is beneficial for enriching their familiarity with the newly-learnt Chinese expressions used for shopping at the school canteen, conceivably establishing a genuine learning environment for their absorbing of the localised Chinese language.

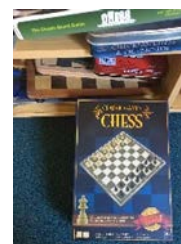
Following the above analysis, 'shēng - 声' (voice - the oral expressions), accompanied by 'sè - 色' (appearance/colour-the actual materials) jointly interacts in 'huì shēng huì sè' (绘声绘色) during the process of teaching the Chinese linguistic terms in relation to shopping practice. Meanwhile, the actual learning materials, such as the apron, the Chinese paper money, the updated Chinese menu, as well as the food flashcards, were essentially adopted for mobilising, and then utilising their valuable funds of knowledge, thus making Chinese happen as part of the localised shopping activity in a real-life environment and reducing their unfamiliarity with the learning of Chinese in class.

6.5 Wù Jìn Qí Yòng - 物尽棋(其)用⁴², Rén Jìn Qí Cái - 人尽棋(其)才⁴³

The following lesson plan relates to teaching the linguistic terms which occurred in playing chess.

Table 6. 7 Lesson Plan for Teaching Linguistic Terms Used in Playing Chess

Term 3 & Week 3 - Week 8	Unit Title: Playing Chess - xiàng qí - 象棋 (chess)	Date: August 15, 2017 - September 19, 2017	Class: Year 3 & Year 4
Expected Learning Outcomes	Initially, students are expected to search the vocabularies, including ‘King’, ‘Queen’, ‘Knight’, ‘Castle/Rook’, ‘Bishop’ and ‘Pawn’ through using the iPads in the form of working as a team, and then draw them on A3 paper with the corresponding Chinese pronunciations.		
	Then, the students will be instructed to present their search results in Chinese through combining them with simple Chinese sentence patterns, such as ‘zhè shì - 这是’ (this is) and ‘nà shì - 那是 (that is)’.		
	Afterwards, the activity entitled ‘Let’s Rap’ will be adopted in order to help the students get more familiar with the sentence patterns, including ‘zhè shì - 这是’ (this is) and ‘nà shì - 那是 (that is)’, as well as the Chinese vocabularies concerning the pieces used in playing xiàng qí - 象棋 (chess).		
	Subsequently, the devised game ‘Do What I Said’ will be employed to get the students familiar with the action words which occurred in playing chess, namely ‘hold’ (ná - 拿), as well as ‘move’ (yí dòng - 移动).		
	Finally, the popular game ‘Try Your Luck’ will be used as the assessment activity for evaluating the anticipated learning outcomes.		
Therefore, after learning such Chinese expressions related to playing xiàng qí - 象棋 (chess), the students are expected to be able to use these Chinese expressions when playing chess at school.			

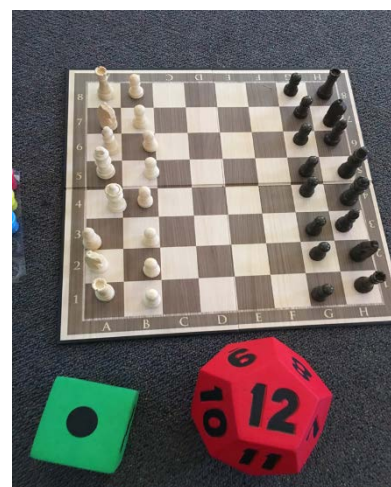


⁴² The original source of the Chinese version: 马烽《典型事例》：“这倒是人尽其才，物尽其用，两全其美。” It refers to making the best use of everything available, such as materials or resources in order to get them to serve their proper purpose.

⁴³ The original source of the Chinese version: 《淮南子·兵略训》：“若乃人尽其才，悉用其力。” It means that everyone can do their best to complete some tasks or deal with some difficulties through fully utilising their own advantages and abilities.

<p style="text-align: center;">Lesson Outline</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Class Learning Activities</p>	<p>Using iPads to Search the Chinese Pronunciations of Vocabularies regarding the Role Names of Chess Pieces:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Students will be instructed to work in a team with six or seven members based on their own decisions. One student will be selected as the team leader to bring the pencil case and an iPad. After all the preparatory work is done, the following instructions will be given by showing one picture with the vocabularies to be searched by their own, including: <div data-bbox="1018 510 1396 790" data-label="Image"> </div> While the students are searching the vocabularies, they are encouraged to present their 'masterpieces' in the form of drawing these roles of chess pieces, as well as writing down the corresponding Chinese pīn yīn (拼音) and hàn zì (汉字) on a pre-given A3 paper. <p>Let's Rap:</p> <div data-bbox="774 987 1396 1346" data-label="Complex-Block"> <table border="0"> <tr> <td>o Yo, yo, dà jiā hǎo, wǒ de míng zì jiào...</td> <td>o Yo, yo, hello, everybody, my name is...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>o 哟, 哟, 大家好, 我的名字叫。。。</td> <td>o This is the knight and black bishop.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>o zhè shì qí shì hé hēi xiàng.</td> <td>o That is the small pawn and white rook/castle.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>o 这是 骑士 和 黑 象。</td> <td>o This is the king and queen.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>o nà shì xiǎo bīng hé bái jū.</td> <td>o I like chess, go, go, go!</td> </tr> <tr> <td>o 那是 小兵 和 白 车。</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>o zhè shì guó wáng hé wáng hòu.</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>o 这是 国王 和 王 后。</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>o wǒ ài xiàng qí, go, go, go!</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>o 我 爱 象 棋, 去, 去, 去!</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> </div> <p>Review Activity - 我 (I) 说 (Say) 什么 (What), 你 (You) 做 (Do) 什么 (What) 'Please Do What I Said':</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Six students work in a team. The first round: three students will give instructions in Chinese one by one by using the flashcards, the other three students do what they heard from them one by one. <div data-bbox="935 1518 1385 1863" data-label="Image"> </div> The second round: they swap the roles to complete the same task. 	o Yo, yo, dà jiā hǎo, wǒ de míng zì jiào...	o Yo, yo, hello, everybody, my name is...	o 哟, 哟, 大家好, 我的名字叫。。。	o This is the knight and black bishop.	o zhè shì qí shì hé hēi xiàng.	o That is the small pawn and white rook/castle.	o 这是 骑士 和 黑 象。	o This is the king and queen.	o nà shì xiǎo bīng hé bái jū.	o I like chess, go, go, go!	o 那是 小兵 和 白 车。		o zhè shì guó wáng hé wáng hòu.		o 这是 国王 和 王 后。		o wǒ ài xiàng qí, go, go, go!		o 我 爱 象 棋, 去, 去, 去!	
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o 这是 国王 和 王 后。																						
o wǒ ài xiàng qí, go, go, go!																						
o 我 爱 象 棋, 去, 去, 去!																						

	<p>Class Evaluation Activity</p>	<p>Note: the team that spends the least time and does it correctly will be the winning group.</p> <p>Assessment Activity: ‘Try Your Luck’</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Four students work in a group; 2. Firstly, please tell Mr. Zhao on which side do you want to try your luck. 3. According to the number on the dice you have got, you can choose the times you want to try in the chatterbox. <p>3. Please act out the action you have got from the chatterbox.</p> <p>Note: please remember you need to say the number you got, as well as read and answer the question from the chatterbox in Chinese.</p>
<p>Teacher’s Role</p>		<p>The teacher’s role will be as an instructor and a facilitator during the process of giving a lecture and conducting the class activities separately.</p>



Concerning the students’ reaction towards the first learning activity, it was found that:

One team had a fabulous drawing and labelling for these vocabularies. Each of them was responsible for each Chinese vocabulary that was searched and drawn. Two girls were a little shy in this group, however, one girl was extremely outgoing and active, and can perform class activities very well, no matter whether she was alone or worked with other classmates in class. She was the team leader for this



group who can create a very active and passionate learning environment for team members (Field Notes, 22/08/2017).

The students and their classroom teacher separately observed:

(Yǎ Jìng) They helped us so we like finding out the meaning of the role of chess pieces, and we typed the Chinese chess pieces on a board and it told us how to say the names of the ‘king’, ‘queen’, and all the other ones. And I do know how to use iPad. I have one. (Yī Nà) Yeah, [it helps]. Because we do not just get to learn [Chinese language] one way. We can like learning Chinese in different ways. You can just get them to learn from the iPads easily. And most kids know how to use iPad (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

I think obviously it is very effective as well. The kids, they love using the technology, giving them that independence to kind of search for themselves what they want to do. It is an effective strategy (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

Apparently, using advanced technology, especially the portable digital learning devices, for instance the iPads, intrinsically engages these students’ learning of Chinese in class through allowing their own independent searching, drawing and writing in the form of working as a team. Such autonomous learning styles for Chinese language teaching, are hugely popularly among the local school students, as this gives them independence and they do diversified tasks. Given these students’ various characteristics, it is stressed that in knowledge-based society teachers should be aware of students’ learning experiences from their own daily exposure to using digital tools with educational purpose, such as laptops or tablets inside and outside school (Lai, Khaddage & Knezek, 2013). It is better for teachers to differentiate their teaching pedagogies through linking such students’ “technology-enhanced informal learning experiences” (p. 421) to their formal learning at school, thereby building a shared and inspired learning space in class (Lai, Khaddage & Knezek, 2013). Another technique this teacher-researcher employed was the use of ‘rapping’ to help the students memorise the learnt Chinese sentences and vocabularies used for playing chess. Some vocabularies with certain rhymes were added to the end of each sentence, taking the advantage of the possible similarities in pronunciations between Chinese and English. However, as to the activity entitled *Let’s Rap*, boys and girls indicated their different preferences in class.

Hào Xuān is a little shy boy, while he is a very attentive student in any of my Chinese lessons. Sometimes, I preferred to ask him whether or not to participate in a class activity, he always shook his head, indicating his

refusal to participate in it. Today, when I was asking him ‘Do you like rapping?’ he nodded happily and confidently, responding with ‘Yes’. As it was his show time, Hào Xuān walked to the front of classroom confidently and calmly. He was completely absorbed in his performance, without any hesitation and shyness. At the end of his rapping performance, he even showed us an action just like a real rapper. More importantly, Hào Xuān also demonstrated his fluent and fantastic pronunciations for the Chinese linguistic terms used in this rap (Field Notes, 29/08/2017).

Meanwhile, a quiet boy, Bó Chāo from another class also revealed his great talent and interest in this rap activity. Compared with his previous participation in Chinese lessons, this time he did give me a deep impression of his amazing rapping expertise:

When being asked ‘Who would like to be the first one to give us a demonstration?’ Bó Chāo was the first student to raise his hand quickly and actively in class. In my memory, this gentle boy was always sitting quietly at the back of his classmates in Chinese lessons, concentrating on the learning content. However, he was scarcely willing to take part in activities in front of other classmates. Previously, a similar activity was conducted to introduce the food and the colours that they liked. In that rap activity, Bó Chāo was active and confident enough to show it in front of other classmates and teachers. No matter whether it was previously or today, that boy was trying his best to be a real rapper by using the learnt Chinese expressions with the help of his preferred singing form - rap (Field Notes, 29/08/2017).

The teacher-researcher recalled other incidents from the particular day’s teaching episodes in the following field notes:

Some girls just refused to attempt the rapping at the front of the classroom. Because some girls did not show much interest in this style of music, whereas many boys enjoyed the rapping activities. Even though initially many of the students were too shy to act it out in front of class, they would wave their hands and open their mouths to follow the students who were rapping (Field Notes, 29/08/2017).

Particularly among the girls, it was found that:

They preferred to rap with another partner/girl classmate in front. Namely, girls were more willing to complete this sort of activity in the form of a team cooperation in order to overcome their anxiety and fear from performing rapping individually (Field Notes, 29/08/2017).

Conversely, during recess on campus two boys informed me that:

They really like rapping in their daily life, while showing me their body movements and gestures that commonly occurred in a rapping performance, just like a real rapper. The two boys also indicated their intention to be involved in such a kind of activity again in class (Field Notes, 29/08/2017).

Furthermore, the students voiced their own ideas concerning the rapping activity used for learning such Chinese linguistic terms:

(Hào Xuān) I like doing the rapping, because it is funny and we got to learn in groups. (Yī Nà) I am not really a big fan of liking doing it. But then watching people doing it is fun (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

(Yǔ Jiā) More boys like it, in my opinion. But I think both genders can do it, because I only do see many girls rapping, so I think more girls should try, give them a try. (Yǎ Nán) I think I learn a lot because I am listening to some Chinese raps and I understand that. Because sometimes I might want to know rapping in English, then I can rap in another language. (Rú Xuě) I like it because we get to learn like we understand the language to different languages and we get to rap. So what they can rap like we can rap different English songs, rap in Chinese. My favourite rapper is DJ Kelly (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

Rapping as a learning activity to engage male and female pupils in learning of Chinese in the Australian local classroom encountered different reactions, such as active participation, enjoyable appreciation and a neutral attitude. Clearly, different styles of singing and musical encounters resulted in various classroom interactions, sometimes according to gender. Classroom engagement and disengagement happened differently between individuals, small same sex groups and within the larger grouping of genders.

Currently, the more popular genre of choice is ‘hip hop’, and young students are having great fun with it. Its popularity is strengthened when it is performed as a rap, which has a very strong cadence and has lyrics which have good repetitive language features. Nevertheless, it was noticed that this kind of musical form which created a learner ‘buy-in’ mostly attracted the boys, and only a small number of girls were willing to be involved in the rapping activities in class. Historically speaking, the musical genre of hip hop is traditionally dominated by male rappers, which originally reflects that it is rooted in African American culture, particularly the younger generations (Mohammed-baksh & Callison, 2015). This teacher-researcher had to be careful that when using this style of Rap music in teaching Chinese, he did create disengagement as a

result of using a popular music style which historically sits within a strong male gender orientation.

At the same time, the teacher-researcher's conversations with their classroom teachers with regard to the integration of rapping in Chinese language teaching reflected that:

Yeah, the rapping is great. Some of them may be too shy to do that, but they still would like to watch the others get up and do it. So I even really enjoy watching that. As for fun, it is even to say, you know, in China there are eastern rappers, they say what it sounds like to them, they compare it to their own, western rappers. So [that is] engaging them (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

It is very engaging, especially for the boys who are very interested in that activity. And music is really a fun way to get the children to remember that vocabulary. They really know well when they are singing, and they enjoy that, too. So again doing something that is fun and doing something helps them learn the vocabulary we can repeat lots of, lots of that kind of thing. Later on, we can use it in the classroom every day to practice (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

According to the classroom teachers' feedback, even after class utilising rapping as a teaching strategy can effectively involve the students in the learning content through the cadent rhythm characterised by the hip hop music. By doing so, the local students can also immerse themselves in a familiar cultural style as a language carrier for attaining Chinese knowledge in an entertaining and stress-free way. The actual benefits of employing rapping to another completely novel learning domain far outweigh its drawbacks. Such a phenomenon was also noticed by a classroom teacher in Chinese class, who said that:

It just helps connect their own interest and their own modern day culture. And to connect with something new helps them retain the information, the world's language a lot better. I guess it comes down to they are probably learning without realising they are learning, because they just think they are having fun. But actually when they go back the next week, they can remember all the stuff you were doing in the rap, because 'Oh, I did not realise absorbing this, I just have fun with the microphone around', actually said some kids (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

It also has been noted by Hanan (2014) that hip hop, for the purpose of educational use, can potentially increase students' academic achievements through deploying their multi-faceted intelligences, for example, body movements which match the attractive beat. Meanwhile, it is

widely favoured by the youth, because such a musical style assists the students who are otherwise confronted by trying to express tunes accurately, who can now ‘sing’ in a casual and relaxing manner (Hanan, 2014). Crucially, rapping allows young students to more easily build up their self-assurance and lessen their anxiety via constructing a socially-appropriate and expressively-encouraging atmosphere in class (Segal, 2014).

Another activity, entitled *Do What I Said* was developed to help the students review the vocabularies which occurred in playing xiàng qí (象棋). Before conducting this activity, one student, Zǐ Xuān who is the language expert in Chinese class, was invited to work with the Chinese teacher-researcher, demonstrating how to complete this activity in the form of a team. Students were required to choose team members (around six students in a group) quickly. In the first round, three students gave instructions in Chinese one by one via using the flashcards. The other three students enacted what they heard from their team members one by one. In the second round, they were required to swap the roles to complete the same task. Meanwhile, they were informed that the team that spent the least time and did it correctly would be the winning group. Because of the different students’ characteristics in different groups, both expected and unexpected learning outcomes were observed in this activity:

The first group was made up of six boys. They completed the task almost exactly, based on the designated rules for this activity. They practiced the pronunciations and meanings of ‘**ná (拿) for hold**’ and ‘**yí dòng (移动) for move**’, as well as the names of qí zǐ - 棋子 (chess pieces) in xiàng qí - 象棋 (chess) without my assistance or others’ help. The students in this group tended to think by their own or had minor discussions with team members, even though when they were not sure of which ‘qí zǐ’ they needed to ‘ná’ or ‘yí dòng’, namely in Chinese it is described as ‘**jǔ qí bù dìng - 举棋不定**’ (Field Notes, 12/09/2017).

As for the second team, they were more willing to negotiate with others in a group to make a right or exact decision before they spoke them out in Chinese. As Zǐ Xuān is a ‘Chinese language expert’ in this class, he can pronounce the vocabularies on the flashcards quickly and precisely, as well as get the exact meanings of them. In this group, he really set a good example for other students, playing a role as a team leader (Field Notes, 12/09/2017).

It is worth noting that Zǐ Xuān always liked to instruct other students to complete this learning task well. This phenomenon also occurred with Hào Yǔ today, a boy from the first group, when it was noticed that:

When the girls in the third group were conducting this activity, Hào Yǔ said that ‘the girls did not speak these words out in Chinese, they just put the qí zǐ - 棋子 (chess pieces) on the top of each flashcard’. At once, he showed these girls how to do this activity while saying the Chinese vocabularies in his mouth fluently and correctly. Then, the girls’ team knew how to complete this activity and did it again (Field Notes, 12/09/2017).

After class, some of the students provided the following feedback and their views on this learning activity:

(Hào Xuān) I like working in a group, because when I am working with my friends, if you get stumped they can help you out. (Yī Nà) The same [with Hào Xuān]. And also you and your friends can like learning together and have fun (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

Their classroom teacher then informed the teacher-researcher of the following information:

It allows them to support each other, particular in our class there are kids who are more advanced, become experts, and having those students be able to work with other students. It quite advances, allows them to share their knowledge really...yeah become expert learners (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

On the whole, when the students were instructed to perform such class learning activities that needed their joint efforts, they were always more active and did it much better than when they worked individually. Namely, the power of a team’s cooperation is always stronger than that of the individual, due to the encouragement and positive influences from their peers, as well as the power of role models.

As for the assessment activity, a well-known game ‘Try Your Luck’ was used in the form of the chatterbox to help the students recall the knowledge learnt from the previous Chinese lessons, ranging from the learnt Chinese numbers, and colours, to the vocabularies concerning playing chess. To play this game, the students were directed to work as a team. Two dice with numbers were prepared to meet the different ability levels of the students. Most of them can say the numbers from 1 to 10 in Chinese, while a few of them can even speak them out from 0 to 30. Subsequently, once the chatterbox was opened, they would see four different colours inside and requirements on the back/opposite side which they were required to complete. The students from the first group did a very good demonstration for the other teams. This group’s

students performed this activity completely, according to the rules shown to them on the screen, which are described as follows:

The students selected the dice with numbers from 1 to 12, which means they were likely to speak out some numbers beyond 10 in Chinese. That undoubtedly added a little bit of difficulty for this group in this game. Finally, they got the number '12'. Beyond my expectation, they can speak out 'shí (10) ... shí (10) ... èr (2) ... èr (2) ...' simultaneously, which impressed me deeply. Afterwards, they chose 'lǜ sè - 绿色' (green), and got the instruction - 'qǐng ná guó wáng - 请拿国王' (Please hold the king). Then, one student acted out this corresponding action by using the prepared qí zǐ - 棋子 (chess pieces) on the qí pán - 棋盘 (chess board) (Field Notes, 19/09/2017).

The classroom teacher later made these comments:

It was once again, a game where they don't realise that they are being assessed. So that's quite good for you to see whether or not they can, what they have retained, what they can do. Obviously, once they had made a little chatterbox, and then using the colours in Chinese, you know, whatever the words, you can see whether or not people have that, or you can see who supports each other. But they are really engaging, because it is a game (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 19/09/2017).

Being a gender inclusive game-based learning task, by its very nature, the above-mentioned activities attracted most students' attention and were entertaining learning styles and experiences for them. Research has shown that real game-based learning activities help learners to easily concentrate on the gaming content in relation to English expressions, especially when interacting with advanced learners during the process of playing games (Ryu, 2013). Here, various chess gaming-related learning activities were constructed and applied to the Chinese language classroom for the purpose of cultivating the local students' Chinese linguistic awareness and familiarity with these necessary expressions which occurred in playing chess. Gradually, the local students became capable of using such Chinese words, verb phrases or simple sentences while engaging in this recurrent gaming practice with their peers, who are both expert at playing chess and learning Chinese in the school-based community, thereby boosting their daily usage of Chinese and advancing their Chinese speaking abilities.

Therefore, these data, in the form of observations, showed the local students' learning experiences, as well as the students' opinions and their classroom teachers' perspectives concerning teaching the linguistic terms which frequently occurred in playing chess. Targeting

the tangible learning content and effective teaching happenings, for instance, as measured by the metaphor ‘wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽棋(其)用, rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才’ is required to make full use of the local conditions, especially the materials and resources in the school-based community, as well as to thoroughly exploit the local students’ aptitudes for the purpose of making Chinese a local and learnable language. In terms of the concept of ‘wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽棋(其)用, rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才’ engendered from the data illustrations, the school-engaged program helped the Chinese teacher-researcher to build a school-based intellectual community, blending the learning resources available in school, as well as the local students’ various forms’ knowledge retained from their daily learning into making the localised and student-centred teaching plans for Chinese language learning.

As for ‘wù jìn qí yòng’, the authorised written form is ‘物尽其用’, instead of ‘物尽棋用’. While they share the same pronunciation, they function as a pun. Here, the first aspect of ‘wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽棋用’, is manifested in the convenient access to the chess-based gaming gadgets in the school campus and classroom for these local students, where they can easily expose themselves to using chess pieces and chess boards during their school time. As for the second aspect of ‘wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽其用’, it specifically refers to completely utilising such digital learning tools, including iPads, laptops or computers that are well-resourced in each classroom in this local public school. In this sense, the technology-based knowledge co-construction focuses on triggering, recruiting and applying the handy learning tools in school for the local students’ learning of Chinese through the collaboration-based learning form. To be exact, each classroom in this school is equipped with a certain number of iPads, laptops or computers for the students to learn and have fun at the same time. Furthermore, the receivers and kit used for connecting wireless are available in each classroom. That is to say, having easy access to these learning devices and this equipment in school facilitates the student-students’ collaborative learning of Chinese happening on a regular basis. Recognising these ‘wù - 物’ (things) from this local public school, including the chess playing resources and the digital educational instruments, drove the Chinese teacher-researcher to incorporate these reachable learning resources into Chinese language teaching, thus enabling their potentially valuable ‘yòng - 用’ (applications) to be thoroughly activated and appropriately served for making Chinese a local and learnable language.

Another applicable Chinese metaphor is ‘rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才’, and the original written form for ‘qí cái’ in ‘rén jìn qí cái’ is ‘其才’. Here, firstly using ‘qí cái - 棋才’ (knowledge/skills about playing chess), rather than ‘qí cái - 其才’ (wit/talents in different fields) suggests that the local students already have abundant information concerning how to play chess, as they play it at school. In particular, this sort of students’ universal knowledge formed in the school-based community in regard to properly playing chess shares the characteristic of gender inclusiveness, hence neutralising the impact of the sex differences that exclusive knowledge can engender. At this point, the students’ general knowledge about playing chess has become part of their firm and positive prior knowledge that was retained from the previously interactive learning process within the school-based setting.

Another role of ‘rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才’ lies in ‘其才’ (wit/talents in different fields), in preference to ‘qí cái - 棋才’ (knowledge/skills on playing chess). For example, having the students in class utilise iPads, laptops or computers, and their preferred drawing activity as their independent learning tools, is effective in generating a vocabulary inventory regarding chess gaming. This learning process depends heavily on pooling their wisdom regarding the use of advanced technology and art designing talent. Encouraging their collaborative learning takes advantage of the students’ communal intellectual repertoires, including their powerful knowledge of using that advanced digital learning equipment, as well as their prior knowledge of sketching skills, correspondingly minimising the side effects caused by individual learning in an unfamiliar subject.

Likewise, with the introduction of rap into learning of Chinese, an additional manifestation of the local students’ powerful knowledge was identified, namely their rapping endowments and competencies, as a significant discovery of a different form of their funds of knowledge. As noted by Roth and Erstad (2013), the art genre related to the hip hop music is deeply rooted in young people’s community-based lives, being embodied as their funds of knowledge and cultural traits. Furthermore, it is stressed that adopting students’ interest-based knowledge is conducive to developing their inclusive powerful knowledge in a holistic way, as they are equipped with the opportunities for becoming ‘experts’ within their acquainted domains (Maton, 2014; Kinchin, 2016). This type of students’ funds of knowledge (here referred to as their powerful knowledge on rapping) takes on some gender variances, as rap is appreciated mostly by male students. In this study, even though most of the girls in class were reluctant to

perform rap individually, they tended to be involved in it through peer-to-peer alliances or by enjoying watching other students' rapping performances.

Finally, the integration of the paper game entitled *Try Your Luck*, using a chatterbox to enhance the students' learning of the linguistic terms used in playing chess, is also deeply reflected in the metaphor 'wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽棋(其)用, rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才' through their two reciprocal dimensions. On the one hand, when it comes to 'wù - 物', the chatterbox is a game gadget made simply of sheets of paper at hand. On the other hand, reflecting the concept of 'qí yòng - 棋(其)用', inside the chatterbox are relevant, carefully prepared questions, aimed at assisting the students to go through the learnt Chinese expressions concerning playing chess. Following 'wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽棋(其)用, rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才' articulates the local students' intellectual contributions regarding not only knowing how to make and play a chatterbox game, but also keeping the learnt Chinese number and colour vocabularies in mind. Tapping into such inclusive students' funds of knowledge produced in the school-based community, such as making and playing a chatterbox game (their prior knowledge), as well as knowing the Chinese number and colour vocabularies (their existing knowledge) can both help them to reach their optimal learning outcomes in regard to the Chinese linguistic terms used for playing chess.

These metaphors 'wù jìn qí yòng - 物尽棋(其)用', and 'rén jìn qí cái - 人尽棋(其)才' suggest that searching the local students' intellectual storage can allow the Chinese teacher-researcher to retrieve the multi-layered embodiments of their funds of knowledge, here particularly referring to their powerful knowledge of using advanced technology and rapping expertise, their prior knowledge of drawing and playing the paper-made game - chatterbox, together with their existing knowledge of the learnt Chinese vocabularies concerning the numbers and the colours. Therefore, realising all the-above mentioned forms of the local students' intellectual repertoires helps to create and maintain a well-developed relationship for knowledge co-construction between the Chinese teacher-researcher and the local students in the school-based community.

6.6 Students' Funds of Knowledge-Oriented Instruction Strategies

As indicated by the aforementioned, employing the instruction strategies in combination with the local students' diverse knowledge bases, such as their prior knowledge, existing knowledge

and powerful knowledge, will reinforce engagement and learning efficacy in Chinese class. The corresponding knowledge foundation is established and consolidated during the process of their interacting with their peers in the local school-based community. The concept of students' *funds of knowledge* focuses on their home-based "perspectives and methods of inquiry that led to that knowledge" (González et al., 2005, p. 19). In this regard, through the process of interacting with the local school students' learning of Chinese, the teacher-researcher gradually finds that the local students are not agents who passively receive the information, as they learn different subjects at school. Actually, they possess their own preferences in choice-making about learning content and activities to suit their diverse learning levels and abilities at school. Consequently, the class learning activities are designed and carried out from the perspective of being pupil-directed and self-initiated. The well-resourced learning activities are built on the local students' available funds of knowledge, which they have picked up and retained from their daily school experiences. To utilise the knowledge formed in the school-based milieu as much as possible requires the Chinese teacher-researcher to work as an 'enabler' and a 'sensor', to furnish the students with discourse power in terms of deciding on their suitable and preferred learning tasks and activities in Chinese class. Furthermore, when it comes to the advantages of employing such popular class learning activities, a group of students mentioned:

[Yǎ Nán] I like it [Minion Says], because we got to learn it in English, then we get to learn it in Chinese. [Yǔ Jiā] I like drawing, because when we get to draw we can also learn at the same time, like we did this [drawing] one (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

At the same time, classroom teachers expressed their own opinions regarding such diverse interactive activities adopted in Chinese class, which engendered multi-layered values in terms of students' engagement and learning achievements as follows:

Yeah, for lots of them, they like to, you know, sketch down their ideas, it can be creative. So I think that is engaging, so once we were talking more, getting them to write, getting them to create can be really beneficial. It allows them to be proud of their own work. For them, they do reflect upon their work. And then for you to assess them, you know, in that whole group's area which is the only time you get real access (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

So they really enjoy a variety of activities. It really needs a variety [of activities]. It cannot be just the same thing over and over. But when we use things, like drawing, the games they really enjoy. That increases

learning. They learn better in that way (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

Characteristically, all the above-mentioned learning activities and instruction styles utilised for engaging the local students in learning Chinese share the joint feature that they abound with resourceful and available funds of knowledge obtained during their school time, including their prior knowledge, existing knowledge and powerful knowledge, which are presented in different styles. That is to say, the various forms of their funds of knowledge are mostly relevant to and accumulated from their previous learning experiences in the school-based community, such as knowledge concerning acting out ‘minion says’, playing the ‘charades’ game, ‘drawing & designing’ works, doing role-play activities and singing the English birthday song (their prior knowledge), knowledge regarding the formerly-learnt Chinese language for the number and colour words (their existing knowledge), as well as knowledge on utilising advanced technology and performing hip hop music (their powerful knowledge).

Through mobilising and deploying such knowledge, some students emerge as the language ‘experts’ in this school-based learning community. Initially, that is visibly reflected in the situated learning practices, such as the sporting-related, the shopping-related and chess gaming-related role-play activities. It is not surprising to observe that these ‘expert pupils’ are willing to use their learnt Chinese language knowledge to help and encourage their peers who have difficulty or who are shy in engaging with learning Chinese in class. Such a phenomenon implies that the ‘peer demonstration’ or ‘class model’ should be encouraged and exploited as a positive influence on these students’ attainments of novel Chinese language knowledge. Such situatedness creates the essential condition and resource for achieving a student-centred Chinese curriculum construction via symbolising the legitimate peripheral participation in this school-based community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). To be exact, through participating in such situated learning activities, the students tend to reshape their original identities (from being silent bystanders to active participants) in this real learning community of Chinese language practices. Being the ‘legitimate members’ in such a Chinese learning community also helps to reduce their inner tension and conflict, as these students naturally involve themselves in interactions with their peers, friends and classmates through being exposed to their joint social practices, rather than being restricted to individual learning exercises.

Employing teaching tactics, such as art-oriented, music-based, action-oriented, technology-related collaborative activities effectively triggers the local students' potential bilingual identities (shifting between the English domain and Chinese sphere) for effecting their translanguaging aptitudes which were developed in the Chinese classroom. Such a situation reflects a Chinese metaphor, namely the local students are well 'shēn tǐ lì xíng - 身体力行' (earnestly practising and experiencing what has been learnt) their already obtained different forms of knowledge in a flexible and sustainable manner in Chinese class. García and Wei (2014) argued that "translanguaging enables emergent bilinguals to enter into a text that is encoded through language practices with which they're not quite familiar" and "to truly show what they know" (p. 80). Grounded in the current research context, the utilisation of learners' translanguaging capabilities is here linked and committed to making (spoken) Chinese a localised and learnable language for the Australian students through exploring their various embodiments of funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community. In this sense, the significance of adopting such learning activities in Chinese class on the one hand lies in constructing a real situation-based learning space where the students are able to retrieve their prior, existing and powerful knowledge for mobilising their translanguaging competencies. On the other hand, this real learning community for implementing their localised social practices positions the local students into a tangible place and space for making Chinese (L2) happen in the form of various local practices through mediating their L1 knowledge (English). In this way, this deepens our understanding of the notion of translanguaging (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Wei, 2014) and language as a local practice (Pennycook, 2010), and broadens its practical application to the field of Chinese language education.

Employing multi-dimensional student-centred instruction strategies contributes to facilitating the emergence of these students' dynamic bilingualism through activating their potential translanguaging capabilities in Chinese class. Meanwhile, these contextualised learning activities are attached as important to the sustainable learning of Chinese from the ecological perspective. Progressively, such a tangible Chinese learning community in school tends to develop into a place where the local students are encouraged to study as a team for knowledge co-production, thereby enabling the *pupil-directed translanguaging* to happen naturally through their being continually exposed to the self-regulated language learning practices and their retained knowledge (García, 2009; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012b; García & Wei, 2014). The turn to such bilingual pedagogy mainly concentrates on utilising the local students' already established knowledge base to make connections for their absorbing of new information.

Comparatively, such student-centred learning activities are not only very popular among the local school students in terms of making Chinese learnable for them, but also stimulate the natural occurrence of learner-directed translanguaging in the Chinese classroom. Therefore, integrating these multi-faceted students' funds of knowledge-oriented instruction strategies into such localised learning content can mutually make Chinese a learnable language for the Australian local school students. Figure 6.1 displays the trajectory for examining the local students' diversely shaped funds of knowledge accumulated within the school-based community, and how such bodies of knowledge can generate the students' funds of knowledge-oriented instruction strategies for enacting their potential translanguaging aptitudes in the learning of Chinese.

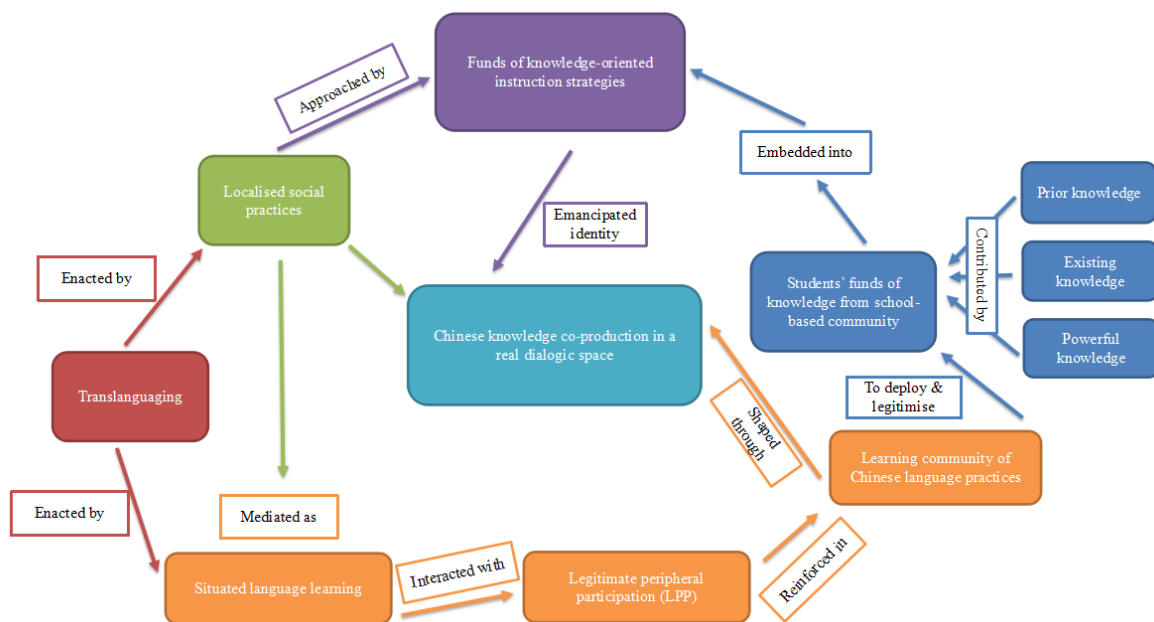


Figure 6.1 Trajectory for Developing Students' Funds of Knowledge-Oriented Instruction Strategies

(N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter illustrated and analysed the Chinese teacher-researcher's practical teaching experiences, incorporating the concepts of 'xǐ wén lè jiàn (喜闻乐见)', 'lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu (朗朗上口)', 'róng huì guàn tōng (融会贯通)', 'huì shēng huì sè (绘声绘色)' and 'wù jìn qí yòng (物尽其用), rén jìn qí cái (人尽其才)' into learning the sports activities-based content, celebratory song-based content, mathematical calculation-based content,

canteen shopping-based content, chess playing-based content separately. Meanwhile, such pedagogical strategies derived from the corresponding Chinese metaphors altered the teaching pattern from the teacher-directed style to the mode of student-focused and peer-peer collaboration-based knowledge co-construction. This harmonious confluence helped the Chinese teacher-researcher to establish an authentic and interactive learning space and place in which the local students were endowed with rewarding conditions for nurturing their emergent bilinguals as translanguaging abilities, by virtue of experiencing those situated learning practices in Chinese class.

To examine the influences of such localised learning content and student-centred teaching strategies, the following chapter will display the evidence relevant to the achievements of the anticipated learning outcomes by these local school students, correspondingly proving them to be potentially effective and valuable strategies for the Chinese learners from wider learning communities.

CHAPTER 7

FEEDBACK ON LEARNING OUTCOMES: INFLUENCES OF LOCALISED CONTENT AND STUDENT-CENTRED INSTRUCTION STRATEGIES ON THE LOCAL STUDENTS' CHINESE LEARNING ACHIEVEMENTS

7.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 explored the various forms of the students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community which is situated in a local public school of Western Sydney. Based on such findings, the corresponding teaching content for their learning of the Chinese language was elicited and generated through mutual discussions in class. Following that, in order to deliver such Chinese teaching content via the local students' preferred learning styles, Chapter 6 illustrated the practical teaching experiences, which incorporated diverse instruction strategies that were popular and suitable for their learning of Chinese in the local school-based educational context. By doing so, delivering such localised learning content in their favoured educational styles reciprocally made Chinese a learnable language for them.

Accordingly, this chapter presents the students' learning achievements in Chinese language after employing the localised learning content and student-focused teaching strategies during a period of Chinese learning practices in this local public school. Analysis of the data relevant to the students' and their classroom teachers' feedback, as well as the teacher-researcher's reflections, confirmed the positive influences brought about by such instructional materials and pedagogical concepts. Meanwhile, to clarify the effectiveness of the content sources from this local school for the learners of Chinese from the wider community, a Chinese metaphor 'yīn dì zhì yí' (因地制宜) was elicited as a concept to describe the potential suitability of transferring these techniques to different sociocultural settings. In doing so, the teacher-researcher recommends that Chinese language education should employ custom-made learning resources and teaching activities that aptly cater for those learners from different geographical situations.

7.1 Dominant Impacts on Students' Chinese Learning Outcomes

Beginning in July of 2016, the teacher-researcher started implementing his formal and independent Chinese language teaching in a public school of Western Sydney with the principal

task of constructing a series of localised and student-centred learning materials to enrich the learnability of Chinese for these local students. The teacher-researcher completed Chinese his teaching practices in December of 2017 in this local school. The subsequent section demonstrates and analyses the influences of these practices on the students' learning outcomes after a period of learning Chinese at school.

7.1.1 Sharing with Families

When it comes to these students' learning achievements, such teaching periods contributed to progressively building a certain number of knowledge capacities of Chinese language through exploring and utilising their preferred learning content and teaching activities. Namely, they gradually started to use Chinese in their daily lives since becoming engaged in such teaching and learning in Chinese class. They even chose to share what they had learnt from the Chinese lessons with their families, which is reflected in the following students' statements:

[Yǔ Jiā] I think I am pretty familiar with Chinese, because I keep going to have a go with my mum and say in Chinese lessons what these things and these words are called. Because I like to share what I have learnt with my mum, when I go home and tell my mum, and she will get on the internet and talk to me in Chinese. [Jùn Wěi] It helps me answer at school as well. Because sometimes I tell my mum what I learnt in Chinese (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

[Yǎ Nán] Now I know how to spell some words from the basketball court in Chinese. And I think I am familiar with Chinese words, because my poppa, he has a Chinese wife. And we talk Chinese with each other. [Yī Nà] I have a Chinese aunt and I really know how to speak to her by using Chinese. I think I am more familiar [with Chinese], because now I know heaps of more things used in the study of these terms and now I can communicate with my Chinese aunt properly (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

The above data reveals that certain groups of the local students were more willing to tell their families about the Chinese language knowledge that they had gained from the Chinese lessons, including the key members in each family - their mothers, as well as some close relatives - their uncles and aunts. Sharing various kinds of information with parents, especially with mothers, was an indispensable routine in most of these households. On the one hand, the local students tended to make their parents aware of what they had mastered from their daily learning of Chinese at school. Through such a process of interchanging information, parents can both have a better understanding of what their children have already achieved from the Chinese lessons,

and also enhance the children's learning enthusiasm for Chinese. For instance, one mother, upon being informed of her child's attainments from the previous Chinese lessons, would search and utilise online Chinese learning resources to engage herself in a conversation in Chinese with her daughter at home.

On the other hand, these students were also active in communicating with their family members who had Chinese backgrounds. On their own initiatives they used Chinese, talking at home with their close relatives who can speak Chinese. Importantly, they were able to express themselves in Chinese in an appropriate way, building on what they had already learnt in school. In addition, a bond between family members from different cultural backgrounds was established in the form of Chinese knowledge sharing. In turn, these enjoyable experiences of using Chinese in their daily lives encouraged and stimulated these students to continue learning Chinese at school with confidence. This impact on these students' Chinese learning attainments resonates with Johnson and Johnson's (2016) discovery that allowing language learners to construct their desired learning content and tasks, as well as to adopt their preferred learning styles, promotes the productivity of the educational process, suggesting it should be invested with more time for deep learning, and shows that students do utilise students' funds of knowledge formed in the school-based context for making the connection between home and school.

In summary, sharing knowledge of the learnt Chinese language regarding their daily school-based social practices with their mothers, together with exchanging such information with their relatives, shows the positive influence of the teacher-researcher's efforts on their learning achievement, which was reflected in the household-based community. Such learning outcomes happened during the process of interacting with their family members, enabling the Chinese teacher-researcher to build the relationship between the parents' agency and the students' agency, thus obtaining more support for Chinese language teaching from the local students' families. That relationship is anticipated to be supportive, sustainable and collaborative for the purpose of enriching the local students' learning of Chinese, especially after school hours.

7.1.2 Communicating with Friends

Communicating with friends was another aspect of their learning outcomes that was influenced by the teacher-researcher's practices, which was revealed in the following comments:

[Yī Nà] I mostly like and am familiar [with Chinese], because I have a friend who is Chinese, Malaysian. [Yǎ Jīng] I like Chinese lessons, because we know, learnt new things, and new words, new meanings, and how to say them in Chinese. I used to have a friend. I know, she did move to another school. And she likes Chinese, Asian person[s]. And we used to always catch the bus together. [Hào Xuān] And I've got a friend that is Chinese. And it helps me like to talk to him more (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

One classroom teacher recalled that:

They are able to use that...integrate that [knowledge] when we are speaking English as well. And it also helps them to communicate with Zǐ Lín, with the children who do speak Chinese. They find it very valuable as well (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

It was revealed that the students tended to be capable of using the learnt Chinese language knowledge to facilitate their communication with those peers who can speak Chinese. Everyday communication with classmates at school or friends after school is considered as a very basic means among students to allow different sorts of information to be distributed and to flow rapidly and effectively. Communicating with friends who are almost the same age directly helps to construct an exterior space in which Chinese language can be spoken as part of their daily practices, due mostly to their common educational backgrounds and favoured topics. Namely, after learning the elementary language knowledge from the Chinese lessons in school, they can apply such information to help themselves survive the daily message exchanges with their peers after school. Simultaneously, communicating with friends in Chinese enriches their opportunities to use Chinese in daily life and develops their translanguaging competencies in further learning of Chinese.

Another noticeable characteristic found from the above evidence was that the local students gather on a public school bus to go to school together. It is a place where these children constantly keep talking all the way to school. Such a phenomenon contributes to creating an environment which provides the students with occasions to use their knowledge of Chinese under the influence of peer-to-peer reciprocal contact in daily life. Meanwhile, it provided a setting in which those children who can speak some Chinese can practise speaking Chinese naturally with the help of peer-to-peer interaction in a pressure-free setting. Peer-to-peer communicating is efficient in deepening students' understanding of various forms of mastered knowledge, as they tend to find out a common topic through which they can retrieve their existing information in their own way, such as talking, playing or singing during free time,

thereby naturally improving their learning achievements (Hwang, Hsu, Shadiey, Chang & Huang, 2015). Therefore, the students' tendency towards communicating with their friends through using and practising the learnt Chinese language knowledge encourages them to carry on their interest in further learning Chinese.

7.1.3 Maintaining Interest

When it comes to the influence of these teaching practices in sustaining the students' learning interest in the ongoing Chinese lessons at school, the subsequent data excerpts indicate two classroom teachers' perspectives concerning three 'tricky' pupils' in-class performances:

The major impact is their interest. That is NO.1. What they find interesting like we were speaking about they can relate to. Even once I did not think who would pick up the Chinese as well as others. For instance, Péng Fēi, he is..., you know, in [my] English academic [score], he is low, but he retained information quite well in Chinese. I am very surprised (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

I think that they are more engaged in the Chinese lessons, because it has been pitched at an interest of theirs. So there are some '*tricky kids*' in my class that always do quite well in Chinese, because it is about handball, chess or something. So Zǐ Xuān, is one of the people, very keen to participate and respond. Hào Yǔ is another student who participates really well. And those are students who often are difficult to engage but you have picked something that they are interested in. It improves the fact that they are willing to participate and engage in those activities (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 19/9/2017).

The above vignette describes three representative students in Chinese class. Such in-class deep and intense involvement was possible, because their learning interests in Chinese had been developed and preserved. As the aforementioned, there were some mischievous students in almost each Chinese class, particularly some boys. However, this group of students always showed very positive, smart and quick reactions towards learning Chinese in class. That is to say, their familiarity with and affection for Chinese language have come into existence during the process of linking the content closely to their daily lives. It is notable that selecting learning resources situated within the students' daily tangible lives tends to provoke their "situational interest" (Krapp, Hidi, & Renninger, 2014, p. 8), which in turn can nurture their active learning in class.

The three boys, Péng Fēi, Zǐ Xuān and Hào Yǔ, were usually labelled as the ‘tricky’ students in school. Being amazed at their learning engagement, performance, attitude and attainment in Chinese class, their classroom teachers suggested that such learning content and activities rightly catered for these students’ learning interests and learning habits. It appears that such ‘tricky’ learners were inclined to modify their original mindsets and behaviours in the process of gaining knowledge. At this pivotal juncture, this alteration allowed them to overcome their difficulties in learning Chinese, building up their confidence, and then sustaining their learning interests in Chinese. In terms of such impacts on students’ learning outcomes, in particular focusing on those learners whose learning interest in one specific field needed to be completely activated, employing content closely connected to the local students’ daily lives within the school-based community was thus effective in maintaining their passion and bettering their engagement towards learning Chinese in class.

7.1.4 Continuing Engagement

What is more, the far-reaching influence on the local students’ future engagement in learning of Chinese was mentioned by a classroom teacher:

I think the thing that influences the acquisition of Chinese learning outcomes is how engaging you made the lesson. Because they are learning it, sort of as they are learning it for fun. Whether any of these students take that knowledge and extend on that and decide that... You know, later years, they want to learn Chinese in high school. You know, take it further. But at the moment, I think the main influences, or the thing that has a big impact on learning those Chinese things you are aiming at, it is the engagement. It is how engaging you make it; how much fun it is for them to do, because when they are learning they do not realise. So I think their engagement is that fun element that you have been putting into them, makes it effective. That impacts on how much they would gain and retain (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

Apart from sustaining the students’ current learning eagerness for Chinese language in class, utilising the localised learning content and student-centred teaching tactics can also promote their potential willingness to continue learning Chinese after they enter a secondary school. To emphasise the importance of learning a second language for the local students in primary and secondary schools, the Australian Department of Education in NSW has already set a goal to provide students with various opportunities for learning different languages in school-based communities, especially focusing on the learning of Asian languages (Chinese) (ACARA,

2013). That is to say, most of the students will have ongoing access to Chinese language in secondary school. However, in high schools of NSW Chinese language is not a compulsory course for Year 11 and Year 12 students; it is just an alternative choice for those students who would like to enter university, to satisfy the requirements of academic credits in a second/additional language (ACARA, 2013). Correspondingly, as this classroom teacher indicated, the prospective contributions made by using such students' real life-related learning content and learner-initiated instruction styles will also be reflected in whether they select Chinese as their second language in secondary school.

In addition, the foundation the local students laid from their previous learning of Chinese will in turn have a determining effect on whether they develop more capacities in mastering more knowledge in relation to Chinese language. Any learning achievement they obtained from participating in learning Chinese during this period in this public school will be conducive to catalysing their persistent engagement in having a better understanding of Chinese in high school, and possibly further in university. In this sense, the impact on the local students' learning outcomes is potentially extensive.

7.1.5 Contextualising Applications

The classroom teachers and the teacher-researcher have found further examples of these students' putting their learnt Chinese knowledge into the real context outside Chinese class, as follows:

Absolutely I found that they are learning and remembering the content much more than they have the previous years. I mean even not during the Chinese lessons, but during when we play chess, I would be hearing the kids use the language of these pieces that they use that kind of language doing in the Chinese (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

The last couple of birthdays we had in class, a big group of the boys were singing the Chinese version song 'Happy Birthday to You'. We are always doing it, because they have learnt from the lessons. Actually, it put into practice those things you have taught them (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

Concerning the daily practical applications of such learnt Chinese language knowledge, the classroom teacher was conscious that these students can even 'export' such learning 'products' on their own initiative after their 'buy-in' from the Chinese lessons. As the Chinese metaphor

‘huó xué huó yòng - 活学活用⁴⁴’ indicates, for instance, given the hands-on use of the learnt Chinese expressions relevant to playing chess, those children were eager to speak aloud the Chinese words for the chess pieces while playing it with their peers and classroom teachers after Chinese class at school. As described in Chapter 5, the course concerning how to instruct the local students to play chess skilfully is set as part of their learning activity in school. On the one hand, these students were habitually exposing themselves to such authentic circumstance, which encouraged their use of spoken Chinese naturally on a daily basis. On the other hand, when speaking Chinese and using the learnt Chinese knowledge in such a local practice, playing chess in the school-based community, a majority of students were gradually disposed to construct their identity cognition in learning Chinese, thus forming a close bond with each other in a shared learning space.

Singing the Chinese version of ‘Happy Birthday to You’, especially for their classmates’ birthdays, especially when this occurred during school time, created an extremely tangible situation for enabling the speaking of Chinese to happen effectively in a low pressure setting in the school-based community. Having been taught how to sing and say ‘Happy Birthday to You’ in Chinese several times, these students have formed the instinct to celebrate such events in Chinese with their peers, singing that birthday song jointly and harmoniously in class. Importantly, they were able to create their own meaning via their own mindsets and apply it to appropriate contexts.

Another classroom teacher pointed out that:

They do become more familiar with Chinese. And they use the vocabulary if somebody has, you know, rice for lunch so they talk about that in Chinese. Somebody, you know, passed me the lǜ sè - 绿色 (green) pencil, and things like that. So they do use [Chinese] outside Chinese lessons as well, which is really good. I think because it becomes part of their knowledge base, something they understand (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

The teacher-researcher also found that:

One day, when I saw some students from my Chinese class playing bounce ball in the playground, I asked one boy, Míng Xù to see if he can still remember how to say ‘ball’ in Chinese. He was tentative to answer my question - ‘qiú’. Because we have learnt how to say ‘handball’ in Chinese. Now he still knows that ‘qiú’ means the ‘ball’ in his memory

⁴⁴ It refers to when learning some knowledge, flexibly applying such knowledge to practice.

when he plays bounce ball at school. He can transfer that knowledge to express his daily activity in Chinese (Field Notes, 05/09/2017).

As observed in school, the local students would gather together at a corner of the playground to have some snacks and lunch during recess and lunch time, and while they were eating they kept talking constantly. Pertinently, such daily eating and talking habits help to establish a mini, but an authentic, space for them to share the learnt Chinese knowledge after class with others, including their classmates, friends, even their brothers and sisters from different classes in this school. As a result, the already learnt Chinese knowledge, such as the food vocabulary, can become a common topic and channel for eliciting discussions in Chinese.

The learnt Chinese vocabularies in regard to colours and ball games were turned into part of the local students' intellectual repertoires. Due to the students' repetitive exposures to the learning content, with different colours and learning materials in classroom every day, such as pencils, papers, pencil cases, schoolbags, scissors, various balls and so on, the integration of the learnt Chinese vocabularies relating to these colours and materials deepens their understanding concerning both the pronunciations and meanings in their familiar milieus. Accordingly, drawing on these facts, the local students were capable of using their developed knowledge regarding Chinese language in diverse concrete situations within the school-based community, which had a direct impact on their learning outcomes. It has been argued by various researchers that appropriately utilising authentic learning materials can serve as a lever in language classroom for balancing the learners' output inside classroom, with their actual uses of such language knowledge outside classroom, having been equipped with learning experiences from the actual world (Al Azri & Al-Rashdi, 2014).

7.1.6 Building and Transferring Identity

The wider influence on the local students' learning attainment due to such localised learning content and student-centred instruction strategies, can establish a connection to accomplishing their prospectively communicated purpose that they may someday travel to China, which was inferred via the following comments:

[Yǔ Jiā] The major impact is on if I go to China one day, I could ask for some food, like sushi. I could easily just ask for two dollars over here. In China I know there are a lot of sushi rolls. I would know how to say it in Chinese. [Jùn Wěi] And the major impact is, one day I might go to China then I can communicate well. Well, there I can ask for a Tuna and Avocado Sushi roll (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

Such students' views revealed that they not only situated themselves to learn and use Chinese in Australian daily school-based situations, but also they considered employing their learnt Chinese language knowledge in the real Chinese society in the future, if they are ever shopping in China. Namely, these students assumed themselves to be 'real Chinese' people while they were learning Chinese within the environments of the local school-based community. Taking advantage of the learning content from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities helps the local students shape and transfer their identity to concentrate on future utilisations of the learnt Chinese language knowledge. More and more international students nowadays choose to go to China for learning Chinese, or as a holiday, which has become a fashionable trend. These local students have set a target of possibly utilising such learnt Chinese language knowledge one day in China.

Likewise, the power of such learning content was such that it put the local students into a real space where their knowledge about Chinese language was being produced from the Australian school-based community, to be later on 'imported' to China for actual use. Given that characteristic, adopting the learning content and instruction activities related to the local students' daily school-based social practices will be beneficial for the students, as they adjust themselves for achieving their forward-thinking learning purpose in Chinese language. As suggested by Lasan and Rehner (2016), language learners' "expressive and receptive abilities" (p. 12) are well-developed, attributing this to the extracurricular contact with the target language through positioning themselves in their tangible contexts, thereby providing them with more opportunities for constructing their identity in second language learning. On the whole, the benefits brought in by utilising the localised learning content and student-centred teaching approaches rightly echo the other major influences on the local students' learning accomplishments - constructing identity for the purpose of better employing Chinese in the future.

7.2 Accessible Forms of the Localised Chinese Learning Resources for Learners from Wider Communities

Data in the following section will be investigated to determine the prospective ways and influences, as well as gauge the aptness, of sharing such localised Chinese learning materials with other learners from wider Chinese learning communities.

7.2.1 Digital Format-Based Learning Resources

The initial strategy concerned with the function of digital formats for making the localised learning content and self-directed teaching approaches easily accessible to other learners from wider Chinese learning communities, which was summarised by a classroom teacher and his students:

So the way you use the technology is very skipping. The kids really like them. Everything they do at home is all pretty much technology-based. The powerpoint is interactive, and the slides and the videos you have allowed them to build on that, with the concrete materials like the balls, the bats, the actual table tennis equipment. It is a really engaging way for them to try to learn that content. I guess it really strong focuses on the technology sort of things, maybe getting the kids to make their own videos, and having them show their learning and demonstrate their learning in that way. If you use the interactive slides, make different activities, then you can make more **interchangeable knowledge**. Using that knowledge, I guess, would be another way to connect with all the students in the world. Because in Australia there is a very big focus on sports, different kinds of games, in England and other countries as you mentioned that is also popular and played in the playground a lot of time. All the kids would have that need, they want to take technology, so you do make resources and use interactive technology in that way. So the electronic version can be accessed on line for other overseas Chinese language learners (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 20/06/2017).

[Hào Xuān] It is good. Because it could help them, if they have friends they could talk to them. And they can show people how to talk in Chinese. As their friends do not know how [to talk in Chinese], they can show them. [Yī Nà] It is good, because I could go as a self-learner at the same time, like learning and having fun at the same time. [Yǔ Xún] I think it is good. Because you put it in a way that kids can understand it (Focus Group B, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

The classroom teacher strongly recommended that turning these localised learning resources into digital forms should be a better route to give more learners of Chinese access to them conveniently and extensively. The rapid development of the internet has led to too much convenience and accessibility for learners of different levels to attain their desired learning materials on line via using iPads, laptops or computers, no matter whether they are in school or at home. Under the influence of that macro sociocultural background, students have been equipped with a very strong ability to use advanced learning tools to assist them in searching through multi-faceted educational information.

There is currently a phenomenon whereby instructive documents are prone to being pooled and shared publicly on specifically-designed educational websites. As mentioned by this classroom teacher, the interactive slides that included the learning content from the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and their preferred teaching strategies would better be made into digital formats online for use by other Chinese language learners around the world, rather than just confining these learning materials to the Australian school students. It was also suggested that the children should be encouraged to visualise their learning resources, for example making educationally purposeful mini videos by themselves. By doing so, the local school students can not only interchange their favoured materials for learning Chinese, but also attach themselves to other learners of Chinese around the world, thus sharing their topics of interest and appropriate resources regarding Chinese language education, such as sporting activities, favourite foods and so forth.

According to Erbaggio, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs and Liu (2016), the incorporation of technology-based means into making authentic learning resources extensively available online would effectively prepare pupils to be calm and confident, as they become independent learners during the course of mastering a new language. The students in this study believed that such localised Chinese learning content can also help other peers around the world who would also like to learn in a calm and confident manner. On the one hand, they definitely considered that the learning content itself is both informative and enjoyable enough to develop their autonomous learning expertise after class, as well as to attract other learners of Chinese from the broader learning community. On the other hand, they informed the teacher-researcher that the teaching styles of Chinese presented to them accord with their intellectual repertoires as well. Therefore, converting these localised Chinese educational resources into such digital-based documents would increase their frequencies of use and re-use for larger groupings of Chinese learners around the world.

7.2.2 Paper Format-Based Learning Resources

Another suggestion about making the localised learning materials well-informed was to design some paper-based vocabulary lists and booklets for students' reviewing of the learnt Chinese language knowledge after school, which is described as follows:

I think these resources are really good. I think these sort of activities and vocabularies are very good. The only thing I would like to add as I said is a list of words for teachers so they can practice during the week. And

perhaps, even the booklets for the children they could write out the things as well, and they can take them home for practice or even just some pictures, you know, with different labels, like fruit to practise colours (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 13/06/2017).

[Yǔ Jiā] I think it will be very important and effective, because it could be very useful if they go to China or something. And it is very effective, because if you have a Chinese friend, you could really communicate with her. Or somehow you can easily enjoy learning it. [Yǎ Nán] It is useful, because you can learn a different language (Focus Group A, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

Another classroom teacher proposed that the learnt Chinese linguistic terms and the relevant learning activities should be presented in the form of vocabulary lists or booklets so that the students can bring such learning materials back home for continuous practices outside Chinese class. It was observed that the classroom teachers who are working in this local public school prefer to summarise the English words that their students are learning on a piece of A4 paper with some margins. The newly-learnt vocabularies are typed in the leftmost side of an A4 sheet of paper. Then on the top of that paper, it is required that students should master these words from the perspectives of spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Obviously, that is a very traditional paper-based approach for the local school teachers, yet it helps the students become familiar with the learnt English expressions through repetitive writing on the word-list papers.

It was also noticed that the local classroom teachers tended to design a variety of booklets always with very eye-catching and lifelike pictures for their students to understand different English words better, while they are studying at home. Here, the helpfulness of such localised learning materials accurately matched the local students' learning interests and levels, and they showed great fondness towards this content. With the accumulation of such vocabulary lists and booklets, the paper-based portfolio is assembled progressively. With the help of this portfolio for mastering vocabulary in EFL, it was found that learners can clearly see their own learning improvement from the very initial stage to the ultimate learning outcome, thereby enhancing their vocabulary competencies (Nassirdoost & Mall-Amiri, 2015). Hence, by taking the good points of the paper-based learning materials into account, and incorporating localised Chinese teaching content into the instructive brochures, for instance, the vocabulary booklets with their colourful images allow more local learners of Chinese to gain corresponding knowledge in a conventional way, no matter whether they are at school or at home.

7.3 Yīn Dì Zhì Yí (因地制宜)⁴⁵: Mobilising the Suitability of the Localised Chinese Learning Resources for Learners from Wider Communities

In this section, ‘yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)’ plays a prominent function in connecting the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and learning habits in this Australian public school to mediate its interactions among the wider intellectual communities of Chinese language learning. Such a concept can be paralleled as a ‘guidepost’ to accommodate the Chinese teaching and learning materials with the specific Australian features to be widely accessed by larger groups of Chinese learners across the world. To mobilise that wider and profound appropriateness and influence for such learners, the function of ‘yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)’ was accordingly reflected through the following evidence excerpts:

I think definitely these activities would be definitely translated. I think they could enjoy that well. I think they would work. They are valuable and important for the children to learn another language. That helps them communicate effectively with others. And that helps them learn more about their own language as well. And doing it this way, using the information they already have, learning about the things they use in their everyday life. It is very valuable and important. Or the activities could be modified. If at different schools, they did not play basketball, but they played soccer, you could use the same sort of ideas that you use for soccer, football, cricket or something else, adapt in that way to suit each class, each school (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shěn, Year 3, 07/12/2017).

I would say most of what you have done would slip into Canadian, or American schools quite well. It is not particularly Australian. If you did and got some Australian animals, I think you can do a little bit of Australian animals, you would tweak it there. You would make it Canadian animals - moose, you know, beaver. Or American you might have different animals there. You would tweak that slightly to relate it more towards what the students know there. I am pretty sure in America they sing ‘Happy Birthday’ the same as us. And they may not have the canteen, but they would have a...cafeteria. But I think the majority of those lessons would slip into the Canadian or American classrooms with little difficulty, so they would be very suitable for students in Canada or America. And I think the fact ... because they are beginners, it is the beginning phase. The information is very basic. And everybody needs to

⁴⁵ The original source of the Chinese version: 汉·赵晔《吴越春秋·阖闾内传》：“夫筑城郭，立仓库，因地制宜，岂有天气之数以威邻国者乎？” Literally, it means taking suitable measures or making reasonable decisions to deal with something should be based on the local specific conditions, especially as they occurred and applied in the field of agriculture.

say basic information to start off (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Shǐ, Year 4, 05/12/2017).

The two local classroom teachers were aware that the learning content and teaching activities adopted for the Australian local school students' learning of Chinese were very effective in engaging them and suitable for their learning interests and levels. However, when being further asked about the usefulness and worth of such learning materials for other learners of Chinese from different regions of the world, they both tended to express a similar viewpoint - 'yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)'. When it comes to the topic in relation to the sporting activities, including the handball, ping pong and basketball, this was particularly relevant to the Australian Chinese language classroom, whereas in different countries their native ball sports, such as football or cricket can be adapted and re-used to suit those students' interests and needs in learning Chinese there.

Similarly, the other classroom teacher's suggestion that different learning topics, such as animals or school shopping should concentrate on the typical and actual phenomena that exist in those particular areas. At the same time, she held the positive and supportive attitude that the learning resources offered to her students in the Australian local school-based setting would be also valuable for other learners of Chinese around the world, such as American or Canadian pupils. That is because such learning material is very fundamental in achieving communicative purposes for emergent second language learners of Chinese, no matter whether in Australia or in other parts of the world. Furthermore, the idea of 'yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)' was identified and demonstrated in another two perspectives:

I guess that they would be [suitable] for the same age group. Because what you are doing is... if you were trying to engage Canadians or Americans, I think because you definitely make the activities related to them. So everything you do from the canteen, or the games they play. I think they would be suitable for those kids with the same age for them. But I am not sure. I guess so (Classroom Teacher, Ms. Mù, Year 5, 21/11/2017).

I think any...any kind of similar school systems, like America, even England. These different types of strategies have been shown to work with these types of learners. I know a lot of Asian countries use different styles of teaching, but these kinds of activities are creative. I think they will be very effective in similar schools since they learn about these. It works very well for those students in terms of their learning the content. I think that would be very effective (Classroom Teacher, Mr. Kē, Year 4, 28/11/2017).

Obviously, the pre-condition for reaching the optimal outcomes from the localised Chinese learning content and teaching activities is that learners need to be from similar age groupings, as well as comparable schooling environments. When applying such Australian localised Chinese learning content to other learners from diverse educational backgrounds, it is necessary to be alert to the real age of these ‘actors’ and the actual ‘places’ where learning and use of Chinese is likely to happen. Given these two essential elements, the potential value and efficacy of such localised Chinese learning resources can be activated to a certain extent in order to exactly satisfy similar learners’ desires in learning Chinese. For example, because of the cultural differences between Western countries and Asian countries, such student-centred teaching strategies may not be suitable for emergent second language learners of Chinese in the Asian school-based setting, which is likely to result in conflicts between dissimilar teaching beliefs and learning styles. That means such localised learning resources produced for enriching and sustaining children’s learning of Chinese are rooted in the Australian in-built sociocultural traits.

Nevertheless, the current learning material provided online for overseas learners of Chinese is confronted with the urgent issue of lacking “authenticity, appropriateness and affordability” (p. 41) as highlighted by Erbaggio et al. (2016), thus failing to engage various learners who have the desire to choose Chinese as their second language. Here, the concept of ‘yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)’ helps to mobilise the potential learnability and suitability of such localised learning materials shaped in this Australian school-based community for other learners of Chinese from wider communities around the world. The importance of ‘yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)’ guides other teachers of Chinese who would like to transfer and utilise those localised learning resources to take their students’ specific characteristics and existing realities from different educational traditions into consideration. In this case, the flow and exchange of these obtainable and suitable Chinese learning materials would be effected flexibly and perceived as adaptable in an intellectual hybrid space which caters for more exterior actors’ (other emergent second language learners of Chinese) keenness and need to share and gain access to the handy and valuable Chinese learning resources. Figure 7.1 demonstrates the mapping process for achieving the ultimate purpose of sharing such localised learning content and student-centred instruction strategies among more emergent second language learners of Chinese from wider learning communities around the world.

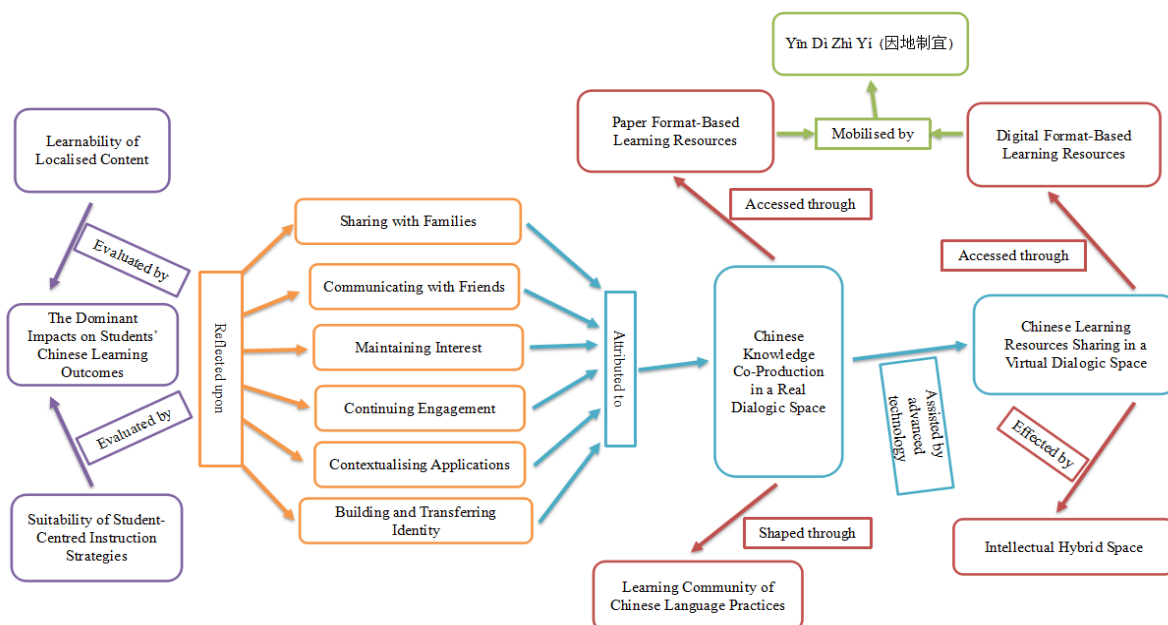


Figure 7. 1 Mobilising the Suitability of such Localised Teaching Content for Resource Sharing among Wider Learning Communities of Chinese

(N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

7.4 Conclusion

The primary evidence analysed in this chapter suggested that the prevailing power of such localised learning materials was mainly represented via these students' learning achievements throughout the whole process of learning Chinese in this Australian public school. As such, the students tended to share the learnt information with their families in Chinese, use Chinese to communicate with their friends, sustain their learning interest in Chinese, keep engaging in learning Chinese, apply the learnt Chinese language knowledge into appropriate contexts, and construct their identity in future learning and using Chinese.

Following that, two corresponding recommendations were proposed that can make such valuable and effective learning resources more accessible for other Chinese learners from wider communities around the world. Firstly, given the convenience of up-to-date internet services, it was advised that the Chinese learning materials which were presented in the form of interactive slides on the PowerPoint program should be shared, retrieved and re-used comprehensively online, particularly on those websites that are committed to offering educational resources of high quality. In terms of the second recommendation, it considered the availability and practicality of the paper-based word lists and booklets in school, which can

not only facilitate the students' handwriting skills on paper, but also enhance their memorisation of the learnt Chinese vocabularies via their repeated use.

Finally, this chapter also indicated that the learning content sources and corresponding teaching strategies generated and developed within the Australian school-based community have the potential to be adapted and adopted by other learners and teachers of Chinese from wider communities across the world. Being appropriately led and precisely evaluated in light of 'yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)', the learnability and suitability of such Australian localised and student-centred Chinese learning materials can be further mobilised for making resourceful contributions that would build a pool of co-constructed knowledge on Chinese language globally. Therefore, the notion of 'yīn dì zhì yí (因地制宜)' as a 'director' instructs more and more native speaking Chinese educators to form and maintain liàng tǐ cái yī (量体裁衣)-based and jiù dì qǔ cái (就地取材)-based pedagogical beliefs when selecting the learning content and constructing the instruction activities for the learners of Chinese from different places in the world.

CHAPTER 8

STUDENTS' SOCIOLINGUISTIC ACTIVITIES-BASED AND FUNDS OF KNOWLEDGE-ORIENTED CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION FOR MAKING CHINESE LEARNABLE

8.0 Introduction

This research explored the potential educational uses of the local students' English language expressions as they occurred in their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community to select curriculum content and develop pedagogies for English-to-Chinese transfer to improve the learnability of the Chinese language. The primary focus has been on whether and how such content sources from the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities have engaged them in learning Chinese and made speaking Chinese part of their everyday practices through mobilising their funds of knowledge concerning curriculum co-construction. To justify such focus, the local students' discourse power has been empowered in terms of selecting their preferred and proper learning content and teaching activities, thus identifying their more intellectual and linguistic repertoires that contribute to making Chinese a localised and learnable language for them.

This research firstly depicted the five forms of the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities that they perform in English at school by observing, categorising and conceptualising them during the process of conducting teaching of Chinese language in this local public school. Based on such findings, the English linguistic terms that frequently occurred in these activities were elicited by way of these students' mutual discussions in class. They jointly selected and constructed the potentially suitable learning content for Chinese language on their own. This endeavour, as shown in Chapter 5, re-developed the original concept of *language as a local practice* (Pennycook, 2010). To be precise, investigating the embodiments of the local students' daily practices that frequently happened in the school-based community enriched this concept in the process of developing Chinese language education. This was in preference to verifying and theorising such everyday regular sociolinguistic activities that can encourage the speaking of Chinese as a localised and learnable language. What became subsequently significant in this study was to provide an analysis (Chapter 6) concerning how to make such Chinese learning content reach its optimal effect on students' learning outcomes. Accordingly, to present the learning content in a widely understandable and preferable manner and style, the teacher-

researcher combined it with relevant instructional strategies partly derived from indigenous Chinese metaphors for mobilising their knowledge base shaped in the school-based community, thereby extending the notion of *funds of knowledge* (González et al., 2005) to the field of Chinese language education. After a period of Chinese language learning, the students' outstanding learning achievements were observed, which were deeply influenced by utilising the localised learning content and their favoured instruction strategies in class. Chapter 7 proposed that a hybrid learning mode (Carrasco & Johnson, 2015; Schuck et al., 2017) offers a basis for making it possible to extensively disseminate such suitable and learnable Chinese resources to more learners of Chinese from wider communities around the world. In doing so, different students' features from dissimilar educational backgrounds and places should be taken into consideration and addressed during the process of adapting and adopting such Australian localised learning materials.

The empirical findings and theoretical influences of this investigation itself will be elucidated in depth in the subsequent sections of this chapter. The teacher-researcher has demonstrated the analysis of the evidence collected from his Chinese teaching experiences through appropriately employing such Chinese metaphors as 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣), 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) and 'zhǔ rén wēng yì shí' (主人翁意识) for improving on Pennycook's (2010) statement concerning 'language as a local practice', as well as through enacting these students' funds of knowledge formed within the school-based community based on González and others' (2005) concept of the children's 'funds of knowledge' learned through participation in household-based community practices. The teacher-researcher intended to pursue and validate a foundation for his arguments through analysing and theorising about the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and their funds of knowledge at school, as well as such corresponding Chinese learning content sources and instruction strategies jointly constructed among the students in class. That is to say, the teacher-researcher was particularly keen to use instructive tactics deriving from those Chinese metaphors. Such Chinese concepts were of value in guiding the teacher-researcher to effectively conduct the Chinese lessons for the local school children, as well as identify the intellectual treasures hidden within them. In this regard, the localised learning resources, together with the student-centred teaching strategies reciprocally made Chinese learnable, as the local students' potential to translanguage between English language and Chinese language (Canagarajah, 2011; García & Wei, 2014) became powerful through participating in the situated Chinese learning practices in the school-based community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Informed by the evidence from the students' and their

classroom teachers' feedback, the localised learning content and appropriate instruction approaches had multi-faceted influences on these students' learning achievements in Chinese language in this Australian local public school. This also led to the further analysis regarding how to make these learning resources and relevant teaching activities generated from this local school comprehensively available and helpful for other learners of Chinese from wider communities. Then, a corresponding prerequisite for utilising such Australian localised learning materials for Chinese language education globally was proposed: that they should be adjusted according to Chinese learners' educational and cultural backgrounds. Consequently, the conceptual analysis of the collected evidence was via the theoretical lenses in relation to the hybrid learning in a virtual dialogic space (Carrasco & Johnson, 2015). The findings accordingly pointed out the prospect and condition for mobilising the suitability of such learning materials produced within an Australian school-based community for other learners of Chinese from manifold areas around the world. Figure 8.1 displays the interactive and interconnected relationship between the elements which were central to this study, the figure being used as the evolving trajectory for theorising the localised and student-centred curriculum construction of Chinese language learning in this thesis, which is to be expounded in depth in subsequent sections.

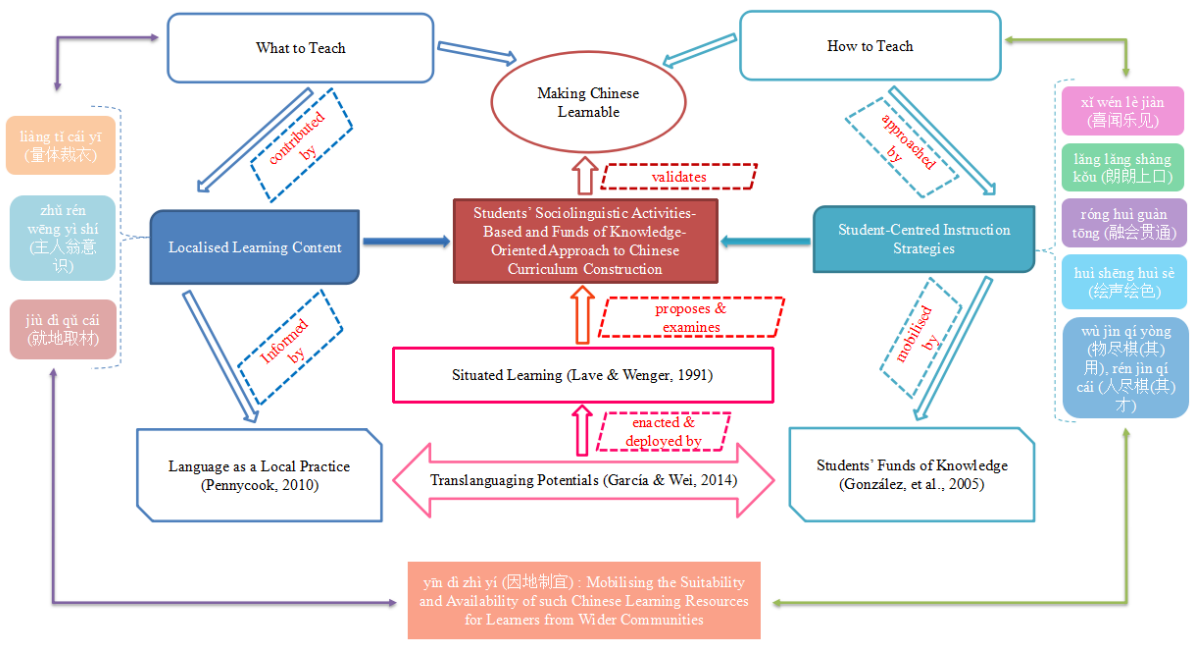


Figure 8.1 The Developmental Trajectory of this Thesis

(N.B. Please use the zoom slider to enlarge the font size of this Figure)

Therefore, the above-mentioned research discoveries have been applied to explore the learnable content sources and effective instruction strategies for constructing a localised and student-centred Chinese language curriculum, an approach which is formulated as the *students' sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented curriculum construction for the learning of Chinese*. The following sections provide detailed descriptions of such concepts and the approach through a demonstration of the significant findings from this investigation.

8.1 Key Findings: Forms of Local Students' School-Based Daily Recurring Sociolinguistic Activities and Funds of Knowledge Utilised as Content Sources for Chinese Curriculum Construction

This research revealed that the forms of the local students' daily social practices which frequently happen in school abound with retrievable linguistic repertoires and intellectual treasures, which can be utilised as content sources for curriculum construction of Chinese language learning. The research and teaching process has been focusing on how such learning resources influenced the students' engagement and learning outcomes in terms of making Chinese a localised and learnable language for them. The details of such findings from the evidentiary chapters are presented as follows.

What forms of the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community can the Chinese teacher-researcher utilise as content sources for curriculum construction?

'Knowing the local students' started with discovering their daily recurring sociolinguistic practices at school. At the very beginning of conducting Chinese lessons for the students in this local public school, 'what to teach' became a crucial question for the beginning Chinese teacher-researcher from China. The local students' daily activities were necessarily involved, in varying degrees, in their learning of Chinese within the Australian context. The students' knowledge, which was partly derived from their daily popular social practices in the school-based community, was beneficial for producing a student-centred curriculum based on their mutual construction. That is to say, the localised curriculum construction for the learning of Chinese took the local students' features and perspectives into account in gauging its appropriateness and learnability. The shared knowledge from these students' daily recurring activities was mediated by, and partly integrated into, Chinese learning content through the process of knowledge co-construction. Nonetheless, the native speaking Chinese teachers are

faced with the challenge of adopting “collaborative teaching and learning for the co-construction” (p. 2) of new knowledge, due to the influence of “Confucian heritage culture” (p. 2) on their educational beliefs (van Schalkwyk & D’Amato, 2015). Furthermore, as required by the existing Chinese Syllabus K-10, it seems that Chinese teachers should concentrate on completing the communicative learning purpose by adopting the sentence patterns and expressions more suitable for the native learners of Chinese. Namely, the current Australian K-10 Syllabus for teaching and learning of Chinese is confronted with the problem of failing to recognise the local students’ roles in creating localised Chinese learning resources for themselves. By contrast, this teacher-researcher believes that the potency of the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities should be seen as an effective mediator for making Chinese happen naturally as part of their school-based social practices. The learning content from such students’ daily repeated practices can then facilitate the speaking of Chinese in concrete contexts, thus achieving the specified communicative aim of learning Chinese.

Progressively, the proposition of *Chinese as embodiments of different local practices* is made possible through exploring the diverse forms of the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community. It is the goal of the Chinese K-10 Syllabus (2003) from the Department of Education in NSW of Australia that the local students can identify and make a response to spoken Chinese messages accurately in their daily real lives. Such specific teaching and learning expectations need to be effected with the help of the sociolinguistic activities-based curriculum constructed for their learning of Chinese. The local students’ daily practices frequently performed in English in this public school include *sporting practices*, *celebrating practice*, *calculating practice*, *shopping practice*, as well as *chess practice*, which has been confirmed by the findings in Chapter 5 concerning having a well-informed understanding of the local students’ activities during their school time.

Based on such findings, the Chinese teacher-researcher classified and designed the five corresponding learning topics and lesson plans to elicit educationally purposeful information for producing potentially learnable Chinese content. During the process of jointly constructing the learning content with the local students in class, the instructive messages conveyed in several Chinese metaphors, including ‘liàng tǐ cái yī’ (量体裁衣), ‘jiù dì qǔ cái’ (就地取材) and ‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’ (主人翁意识) led the Chinese teacher-researcher to search for and identify the intellectual treasures hidden within the students, as well as to make use of the other valuable resources in this local school. Such Chinese concepts have nurtured the teacher-

researcher's awareness concerning the local students' tendencies towards learning Chinese, an awareness which he used to strengthen the connectedness between Chinese language and their daily school-based lives. Through mutual negotiation, selection and construction of the Chinese learning content, the relationship between the Chinese teacher-researcher and the local students has also been reinforced, thus achieving the initial objective of 'knowing the students'. Following that, in terms of deciding 'what to teach' to the local school students, their collective knowledge regarding such daily recurring sociolinguistic activities at school offered a range of available resources which were used as suitable and localised Chinese learning content.

The significance of knowing 'what to teach' from the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities is important in two respects: the children's hidden knowledge which is discovered can be utilised in Chinese language education, and such knowledge can be developed into localised and learnable Chinese content for learners of Chinese from the same age groups and similar educational backgrounds globally. The learning content derived from these students' daily recurring sociolinguistic practices had a deep influence on teaching Chinese in the Australian context, which also contributed to building an actual context-based learning space, as well as to constructing a student-centred curriculum for learning Chinese that incorporated different forms of students' funds of knowledge accumulated in the school-based community. Meanwhile, the students' learning achievements were profoundly impacted by the teacher-researcher's choices made in delivering the learning content. The next section casts light on the findings in regard to the practical teaching process of employing such learning content for engaging the local students in learning Chinese.

How can the Chinese teacher-researcher mobilise the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community through the process of interacting with their learning of Chinese?

The findings in Chapter 6 demonstrated that some indigenous Chinese notions guided the teacher-researcher to transform potential pedagogical threats resulting from the instructor-directed manner, into pedagogical opportunities for importing the learner-focused mode for their learning of Chinese to suit the local educational styles and characteristics.

Knowing how the local students learn and how to teach the content is required by the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (AITSL, 2012). However, as the research problem stated such teacher-directed approaches have given rise to discomforting and disengaging the local

students in Chinese class. The students at this school felt constant anxiety and frustration arising from the learning content unrelated to their daily lives. They perceived the learning of Chinese as a tremendous challenge in such an English learning environment, without the help of their familiar language contexts and preferred learning approaches, causing this teacher-researcher to reflect profoundly on the teaching concepts and methods adopted for the local school students in learning Chinese. Their anxiety about learning Chinese revealed that they were anticipating the proper teaching strategies that were applicable to their learning styles and habits at school. According to the teacher-researcher's practical teaching experiences in this local public school, the integration of the following Chinese metaphors into his teaching practices as pedagogical directions, including 'xǐ wén lè jiàn' (喜闻乐见), 'lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu' (朗朗上口), 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通), 'huì shēng huì sè' (绘声绘色) and 'wù jìn qí yòng, rén jìn qí cái' (物尽其用, 人尽其才) has helped to elicit these local students' different embodiments of their funds of knowledge reserved in the school-based community, which has allowed the students to more easily engage in the learning content jointly produced. Such learner-centred teaching concepts and strategies occurred during the process of interacting with the local students in Chinese class, and were intended to identify their funds of knowledge (knowledge base) formed and retained in the school-based community, and re-develop and extend the original concept of focusing on the students' funds of knowledge obtained and reserved in the household-based community. Therefore, based on the findings in Chapter 6, these Chinese concepts were transferred to teach these local pupils Chinese language in this English-speaking school-based community in a way that allowed the teacher-researcher to enable the local students' various forms of funds of knowledge to be activated and utilised for their learning of Chinese, which is composed of their prior knowledge of the popular learning activities, their existing knowledge of the formerly-learnt Chinese language, as well as their powerful knowledge in using advanced technology and rapping competence. By doing so, the practical teaching process of interacting with the local students altered the teacher-researcher's attention, from mediating their veiled translanguaging potential as emergent bilinguals, to internalising their learning processes and outcomes with reference to Chinese language within the local setting. Such Chinese concept-based pedagogy has the potential to formulate the transfer of pedagogy between the Chinese and English, a formulation that can be applied to an English-speaking environment for enabling the speaking of Chinese as a localised and learnable language.

The transfer of pedagogical concepts is also a teaching approach that can activate the Chinese teacher-researcher's existing knowledge from Chinese culture to critically blend it into teaching Chinese to the Australian local students. Such a process of pedagogical concept transfer involves being aware of how the local school students can learn effectively with the help of their funds of knowledge. However, this does not mean that all Chinese pedagogical notions can be transferred and are appropriate for instructing the local school children in learning Chinese, especially when encountering the cultural conflicts which can arise from clashes between entirely different teaching beliefs.

Chapter 6 illustrated the evidence relating to what kind of pedagogical concepts and teaching strategies, partly derived from the Chinese metaphors, can be transferred and adopted to facilitate the better engagement of the local school students in such localised Chinese learning content. Initially, a focus was on exploring the local students' prior knowledge of their familiar and popular learning activities during the school time, when assessing and shifting such aptness and usefulness to serve as the learning activities. This entailed that the first embodiment of their funds of knowledge, accumulated within the school-based community, should be concentrated upon and utilised as the resource for Chinese teaching pedagogy. Another effort was made to investigate the local students' existing knowledge of their learnt Chinese language from their previous Chinese lessons at school, to enhance their further understanding and engagement in the newly-learnt Chinese language knowledge. This involved the second representation of their funds of knowledge obtained during the process of learning Chinese at school, which can be drawn on for developing their deeper knowledge of Chinese language. The third aspect was targeted at incorporating the local students' powerful knowledge in the fields where they had mastered strong skills and shown great enthusiasm. This included their proficiency in using digital learning tools, iPads, laptops and computers, and their abundant knowledge of and eagerness for rap music, especially among the boys. This reflected the third form of their funds of knowledge developed from their daily learning experiences, which was also worth exploiting as an assisted approach to better engage them in learning Chinese and increase its learnability, even though it was studied independently after class.

Taking all the above-mentioned into consideration, a Chinese concepts-based teaching process was established and described in Chapter 6 concerning how to make the local students engage in such mutually constructed learning content which was based on their sociolinguistic activities, as frequently occurred in their school-based community. That is to say, the whole

process of Chinese teaching practices was focused on the content and category of the local students' funds of knowledge attained and reserved within the school-based community, which are made up of their prior knowledge, existing knowledge and powerful knowledge. Also, this process was concentrated on the Chinese to English pedagogical transfer in terms of making Chinese a localised and learnable language through a process of mobilising these students' evolving and dynamic translanguaging capabilities in learning Chinese.

How can students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge be conducive to the generation of suitable learning materials for the emergent second language learners of Chinese?

The local students' and their classroom teachers' feedback analysed in Chapter 7 indicated that the localised Chinese learning content had a dominant impact on the students' learning outcomes. Such findings identified the six main influences on the local students' learning achievements in Chinese language. The outstanding learning outcomes began with sharing with families, followed by communicating with friends, and then using Chinese contextually in daily lives. Importantly, the significance of utilising such localised learning content lies in keeping their learning interest and ongoing engagement in Chinese, no matter whether they are learning Chinese in a primary school or later in a secondary school. As a result, all the above-mentioned influences on their learning attainments in turn helped them to construct positive identities in learning Chinese in the school-based community.

Another major finding was in relation to how the localised and student-centred learning content can be distributed to other Chinese learners from the wider global community. It was suggested that such student-preferred Chinese learning materials would best be shared on public websites, particularly on educational resource websites, given that advanced technology has made online learning materials extensively accessible. The global students' robust capabilities in using advanced digital learning tools for their independent learning also makes this an obvious choice. Additionally, paper-based booklets were recommended to be employed in the school-based learning community for reinforcing students' memorisation concerning the learnt Chinese language knowledge, especially the learnt Chinese words. Such a method can also be beneficial for building a well-balanced connection between the Chinese teacher-researcher and the local students' parents, thus gaining more support from their families.

Thus, being informed by such effective impacts, this chapter proposes that the utility of those Chinese learning materials can be extended further. Namely, such learning resources tend to

properly serve other more learners of Chinese from wider communities internationally. However, with the guidance of the Chinese metaphor - ‘yīn dì zhì yí’ (因地制宜), it was suggested that by widening the utilisation of such Australian featured Chinese learning content and activities, and attempting to suit them to the characteristics of learners with diverse educational and cultural backgrounds worldwide, this might slightly and correspondingly modify the essence of these activities and content. The long-term effects of such modified localised learning content and student-centred instruction strategies are still to be tested and explored, although at the moment they necessarily contribute to making Chinese learnable to a certain extent.

8.2 Conceptualising Students’ Sociolinguistic Activities and Funds of Knowledge for the Learning of the Chinese Language

This section offers a discussion of the fundamental components to add to the notion of students’ sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge for the learning of Chinese, given the necessity to elucidate the relationship between the localised social practices and the students’ funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community. It is worth exploring the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities for the purpose of constructing the localised and learnable curriculum for their learning of Chinese. Teaching Chinese in the form of students’ tangible sociolinguistic activities provides an opportunity for enabling it to happen naturally and regularly in their daily lives.

The concept of using students’ sociolinguistic activities for developing learnable content sources in learning Chinese reflects this teacher-researcher’s encounters with the ‘liàng tǐ cái yī’ (量体裁衣) mind, ‘jiù dì qǔ cái’ (就地取材) mind and ‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’ (主人翁意识) mind in the process of knowing the local school students. To be exact, conceptualising students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community means endeavouring to validate the proposition that the speaking of Chinese can occur as the embodiment of various localised social practices in terms of the relationship between locality, practice and language. Consequently, encounters with the above guiding notions would reveal the interrelationships among them, thereby embodying the process in regard to how Chinese can be made a localised language through enacting such social practices in the school-based community. The natures of ‘locality’ and ‘practice’ are particularly exemplified through the process of ‘jiù dì qǔ cái’ (就地取材), which mainly suggests that handy resources in this local public school can be

exploited as assisted learning tools for Chinese teaching. Based on the teacher-researcher's daily observations, different types of balls for sporting activities are provided in this school, such as handballs, ping-pong balls, and basketballs. The corresponding sporting fields and equipment are well-prepared on campus for these children to play with during recess. Likewise, it was noticed that there is an abundance of the instruments used for the students' chess gaming, both in the playground and in the classroom. Also, the internet is available in each classroom, along with electronic and multimedia teaching and learning devices, such as iPads, laptops, desktops and projectors for these students to retrieve and master their desired knowledge quickly and efficiently. Accordingly, during the school time the students' frequent use of such resourceful materials to perform their corresponding activities while speaking English symbolise the very essence of 'locality' and 'practice' from the perspective of the notion of *'jiù dì qǔ cái'* (就地取材). That is to say, the popular sporting practices in this local school, including playing handball, ping-pong and basketball are regularly enacted by these students via their daily repeated exposure to such sports-related equipment. The traditional practice of chess is played on a regular basis, no matter whether they are learning to play it properly for a competition, or just doing it for fun at school. Birthday celebrations, mathematical calculations and canteen shopping are characterised by recurrent practices in this local school-based community. Given the above-mentioned, the internal link between 'locality' and 'practice' is reflected by two of its purposes. One is to make use of the existing educational resources within this local school. The other is to discover the multi-faceted forms of these local students' daily recurring activities, performed in English, as the students involve themselves in employing such chess and sporting-related equipment and participate in other habitual practices at school. These two constituents are mutually labelled as 'locality' and 'practice' for teaching Chinese in the local school-based context, thus localising Chinese language education from the angle of constructing such localised learning content in the school-based community.

Following *'jiù dì qǔ cái'* (就地取材), *'liàng tǐ cái yī'* (量体裁衣) is another concept employed, during the process of knowing the local students, by the Chinese teacher-researcher to appropriately apply these potentially educational resources and intellectual treasures with 'locality' and 'practice' to teaching the local children Chinese in the school-based community. As the original meaning of *'liàng tǐ cái yī'* (量体裁衣) suggests, when utilising such localised learning materials from students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in this school-related context, the appropriateness and learnability of such resources should be considered in terms of these students' ages, cultural and educational backgrounds, previous learning experiences

of Chinese, as well as their capacities for receiving and mastering new information. As a whole, the notion of *‘liàng tǐ cái yī’* (量体裁衣), accompanied by *‘jiù dì qǔ cái’* (就地取材) jointly specifies and shapes the ‘locality’ and ‘practice’ for learning and using Chinese in such a tangible localised context. As *‘jiù dì qǔ cái’* (就地取材) and *‘liàng tǐ cái yī’* (量体裁衣) mutually interact with ‘locality’ and ‘practice’, they produce the perception of *‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’* (主人翁意识) with regard to utilising these valuable resources from that ‘practice’ with such ‘locality’ to construct a localised curriculum for Chinese language learning, being focused on these local students’ interests and characteristics in the school-based context. Hence, in considering the *‘liàng tǐ cái yī’* (量体裁衣) mind, *‘jiù dì qǔ cái’* (就地取材) mind and *‘zhǔ rén wēng yì shí’* (主人翁意识) mind in the process of knowing the local students, the three components reciprocally facilitate the use of Chinese in such familiar environments from the school-based community, namely making Chinese an embodiment of students’ daily recurring school-based social practices. Such a process of completing second language socialisation (SLS) has been described as:

It does not look at language or development in a social vacuum, but sees it as inextricably linked with issues connected with identity, community (a sense of belonging), ideologies, and tensions of structure and agency...That is, unlike traditional SLA studies that focused principally on aspects of linguistic development and the increasing sophistication of a learner’s proficiency, social approaches examine the relationships (or indexicality) between linguistic forms and practices, on the one hand, and the learner’s social world, on the other, and also how those practices position the learner, and how identity is enacted in interaction (Duff & Doherty, 2018, p. 86).

Clearly, school is seen as a miniature society wherein students play a role as ‘actors’ inborn with diverse personalities, such as being active, being passive, being smart and quick, or even being slow. However, they do shoulder correspondingly different kinds of ‘tasks and responsibilities’. Here, teachers or educators undertake the role of a ‘director’ or a ‘facilitator’ to be carefully aware of these actors’ various ‘performances’, which are put on based on their own preferences and capabilities during daily school life. Such ‘acts’ are imbued with intellectual and linguistic resources for localising and socialising Chinese in the Australian context. That is to say, the school-based community is an ideal place for the Chinese teacher-researcher to explore these local pupils’ actual linguistic expressions, as are frequently used in their recurrent practices within the structure of the local school, thereby authorising these ‘actors’ to ‘draft’ such ‘actable scripts’ on their own.

Therefore, with the help and support of the three inter-related concepts from the Chinese metaphors, Chinese as a second language for these local students has experienced its socialisation through being exposed to those situated language learning practices in Chinese class. This also entails that the concept of utilising sociolinguistic activities for constructing learnable Chinese materials is aimed at becoming deeply aware of the local students' learning styles and habits, as well as their own ideas on the expected Chinese learning tasks and activities, thus being conducive to enabling their agency and building positive identity in the learning of Chinese. Attributable to the enacting of Chinese as a second language through employing such authentic content sources from these local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community, their bilingual identity and communicative ability in learning and using Chinese have been built and enhanced to a certain extent, which has been demonstrated in Chapter 7.

Subsequently, the verification of the proposition of *utilising students' funds of knowledge through participating in daily learning practices within the school-based community* aims to activate the local students' different forms of funds of knowledge accumulated in the school-based community. With such a starting point, what the local students can anticipate to achieve from Chinese class in terms of the learnable content would go beyond that which is abstractly suggested by the Australian K-10 Chinese Syllabus (2003) in non-localised settings. The local students' diverse forms of funds of knowledge reserved in the school-based community tend to easily engage them in learning Chinese, to enable the speaking of Chinese to happen in their familiar sociolinguistic activities and learning experiences.

A conceptualisation of the sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge utilised for generating the localised and student-centred learning content sources for Chinese language education can be considered with respect to their contributions to deploying the local students' emergent translanguaging abilities (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011; García & Wei, 2014) in Chinese class. In this regard, sociolinguistic activities can be regarded as an 'agent', articulating a process of knowing the local students' linguistic repertoires to exert potential impacts on the construction of the learnable content of Chinese. This leads to the localisation of curriculum construction for the learning of Chinese. At the same time, the local students' funds of knowledge are formed and reserved by engaging in their daily learning practices within the school-based community. Considering that, the current Chinese syllabus and curriculum for the Australian school students are ignorant of the significance of these

students' hidden intellectual treasures. In shifting the attention from the teacher-directed approach to the student-focused approach during the process of conducting Chinese language teaching, opportunities for better understanding the local students' daily school lives and their learning styles emerge. In terms of the evidence analysed from the teaching practices, the roles of students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge are crucial in generating such localised learning content and student-centred instruction strategies, thus facilitating the emergence and application of the local school students' translanguaging propensities to make Chinese learnable for them.

Another question to be addressed in conceptualising students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge employed for developing the localised and student-centred learning materials for Chinese language education is: can the local students be provided with learning opportunities to express their own ideas on constructing the favoured learning content and activities in learning Chinese? In other words, do Chinese language educators or Chinese curriculum designers tend to create a space where Chinese learners with different characteristics can equally and actively share their thoughts on selecting the appropriate Chinese learning resources? In that case, the notion that sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge mutually create the conditions by which these young Chinese learners can establish their agency, thus offering them an opportunity of speaking for themselves in making Chinese learnable.

The concept of sociolinguistic activities in promoting the development of Chinese language education is accompanied by making the use of pupils' diverse funds of knowledge in the school-based community, especially for constructing the localised, learnable and appropriate content sources for those overseas Chinese learners who have divergent learning backgrounds. Therefore, curriculum construction of Chinese language learning needs to be slightly adjusted to meet the different and specific educational conditions for learners in other parts of the world.

8.3 Students' Sociolinguistic Activities-Based and Funds of Knowledge-Oriented Approach for Constructing the Localised, Student-Centred Chinese Curriculum

This research has proposed a students' sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented approach to construct a localised and student-centred curriculum for making Chinese learnable, that refrains from the 'one-dimensional' style that neglects different learners'

features and needs in learning Chinese. Directed by such a process of curriculum construction, the internal attributes of knowledge co-production for learning of Chinese lie in two dimensions: one is being ‘self-directed’ (output from students), and the other is being ‘self-enacted’ (input by students), which are expected to be transferred to wider communities for benefiting overseas Chinese learners in different places in the world. In the case of teaching Chinese to Australian school students participating in the ROSETE Program, this study has probed into the local students’ five daily recurring sociolinguistic activities at a public school in Western Sydney in NSW (Chapter 5). That allowed these students’ diverse forms of localised social practices from the school-based community to be activated for effecting the situated learning of Chinese in the local classroom, thus potentially contributing to making Chinese learnable from the perspective of producing the localised learning content for them. Furthermore, the corresponding Chinese teaching practices deliberately employed the student-centred and learner-directed instruction strategies and styles that have been deeply rooted into the local students’ learning habits during their schooling, such as ‘xǐ wén lè jiàn’ (喜闻乐见), ‘lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu’ (朗朗上口), ‘róng huì guàn tōng’ (融会贯通), ‘huì shēng huì sè’ (绘声绘色) and ‘wù jìn qí yòng, rén jìn qí cái’ (物尽其用, 人尽其才) to better their engagement in learning such localised content in class.

In terms of making Chinese learnable, a prospective localised and student-centred curriculum construction tends to be implemented from two dimensions. The beginning dimension is the exploration of the local students’ daily sociolinguistic activities frequently performed in English at school; to be precise, identifying and making use of those recurring and common English linguistic terms uttered during such local students’ daily practices, for generating the appropriate Chinese learning content. The second dimension focuses on how to enhance the local students’ engagement in mastering the co-produced content through adopting their preferred teaching strategies and learning styles; that is to say, finding ways to make such localised Chinese learning content merge into these students’ real-life experiences, as their potential translanguaging competencies are stimulated in class. In this way, interweaving the above two elements, namely ‘what to teach’ and ‘how to teach’, helped the beginning native Chinese teacher-researcher in his very initial stage towards striving for shaping a culturally-appropriate and content-learnable curriculum based on the local students’ daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge within the school-based community. However, students’ daily sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge can vary from place to place, embodying a range of regional and cultural differences to a certain extent. When applying the

tactic of students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge to wider learning communities for Chinese curriculum construction, the very natures of 'locality' and 'practice' need to be carefully considered when producing the properly localised and student-centred Chinese learning materials.

The pedagogical concepts in relation to *localisation* and *student-centredness* are essential for constructing the students' sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented curriculum for learning Chinese in different educational contexts worldwide. Specifically speaking, the student-centred notion here encompasses knowing the school students' daily sociolinguistic activities for generating the localised learning content, as well as enacting their prior knowledge, existing knowledge and powerful knowledge accumulated from different fields as their school-based funds of knowledge for employing the pupil-directed instruction strategies, alternatively offering another direction from which to better know the diversified characteristics among the potential Chinese learners. The purpose is hence to make various students' hidden linguistic and intellectual treasures 'surface above the water' and give them sound priority through generating the localised learning content, as well as employing the learner-focused teaching approaches. Therefore, the application and development of the student-centred pedagogy in Chinese language education is not only confined to generating students' learnable materials, but also the focus is on discovering their preferred instruction styles in the local educational environment during the process of interacting with their learning of Chinese in class. By doing so, the local students' evolving bilingualisms as their powerful translanguaging skills are stimulated, which in turn is conducive to building and shaping their positive identities and attitudes towards enriching their learning of Chinese.

Given the aforementioned, to make Chinese learnable for emergent second language learners of Chinese in other parts of the world, a principal mission is that Chinese teachers and educators, as well as policy makers should be devoted to looking at the students' daily sociolinguistic activities and various funds of knowledge accumulated in different sociocultural contexts, which would have the potential to be developed into localised and student-centred Chinese learning materials and instruction approaches. The teacher-researcher in this case study has access to teaching Chinese to students who are studying in this Australian local public school. That provides an opportunity for pooling such intellectual and linguistic resources available in this school-based community to generate localised learning content and properly student-centred instruction methods for curriculum construction of Chinese language, ultimately

making Chinese learnable for the Australian local school students. The students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented curriculum construction is an essential constituent in terms of minimising the Australian school students' sense of unfamiliarity with Chinese language in the local context. This can enhance their learning of and opportunities to use Chinese, as they perform their daily recurring social practices and learning activities in the school-based community, thus making Chinese a localised and learnable language for them. However, the model of utilising and constructing a students' sociolinguistic activities-based and funds of knowledge-oriented curriculum for Chinese language education has been proposed only for this one, single site case study in an Australian local public school. It would therefore be necessary to further examine and improve it to determine its applicability and practicality for transfer to the wider Chinese learning communities around the world.

8.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The time for data collection was less than one year as per the restrictions of the ethical application process and the teaching period, which has limited the sample size of the data. Meanwhile, in terms of the major sources of data, the teacher-researcher's fieldwork journals were triangulated with the feedback from the students and the interviews with their classroom teachers, but this can be done more extensively in future research. Here, it is worth mentioning that an alternative approach - video elicitation interview is recommended, especially among younger participants, as that can better capture the dynamic moments of their recalling what had happened during the holistic process of learning Chinese in a vivid manner. This would elicit more unexpected and interesting information that would contribute to research findings, under the condition of being approved with the necessary ethical documents.

Furthermore, the research outcomes in Chapter 7 were narrowly sourced, not the 'measurable' evidence of knowledge acquisition, only coming from the specific learning environment and achievements in this school within the particular teaching period, as well as with the limited class numbers and a range of participants. Dissimilar teaching and learning contexts, as well as participants, may produce different results. And the language repertoires of the children in the case study school were not ascertained, namely their linguistic diversity was not taken into account. Therefore, further research can be designed and carried out to engage more learners from a wider variety of learning communities locally and internationally, paying extra heed to

their language repertoires, which may yield and verify other aspects that are influential on the Chinese mastery.

More importantly, due to the teacher-researcher's own lack on in-depth professional knowledge, and limited teaching experience in Australian schools, this study was deficient of systematised curriculum design on language acquisition in terms of achieving the sequenced linking of vocabulary over each school term, across each Year level. Significant limitations were identified and acknowledged here include (a) linking structures were not provided, to enable complete simple utterances in Chinese; (b) although there was great vocabulary acquired, there were so few useful structures which were transferable; and (c) there were no linguistic connections between the activities in order to create intellectual mastery. Therefore, there is a great need for further research to generate follow-up evidence of sustained interest and mastery, and depart from the bigger perspective of Chinese language education in Australia based on *Quality Teaching Framework* (DET, 2003). Under the direction of QTF, three key elements, including *Intellectual Quality*, *Quality Learning Environment*, and *Significance* (DET, 2003, p. 9) were recognised as a basis for future research to reflect a lack of the professional knowledge of common language education practices in Australian schools.

8.5 Theoretical and Practical Contributions and Implications of this Study

The current research project provided some contributions and implications from the perspective of being theoretical and practical, which were illustrated as follows.

Initially, this research extended the notion of 'language as a local practice' (Pennycook, 2010) based on the proposition and understanding concerning how to make spoken Chinese the embodiment of the localised social practices through exploring the students' everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities in a local public school. Following that, those regular social practices which occurred in this school-based community were believed to abound with suitable content sources for constructing a localised and learnable Chinese curriculum. In this regard, to further conceptualise how the daily recurring sociolinguistic activities can be developed into potential Chinese learning content, indigenous Chinese metaphors were encountered, such as 'liàng tǐ cái yī' (量体裁衣), 'jiù dì qǔ cái' (就地取材) and 'zhǔ rén wēng yì shí' (主人翁意识) during the process of knowing 'what to teach'. In this way, the 'locality' and 'practice' (Pennycook, 2010) can be fulfilled by means of mobilising the local students' agency in terms of negotiating, selecting and constructing their own preferred Chinese learning content in class. Such Chinese

concepts helped the teacher-researcher to enable the local students' discourse power in a democratic and dialogic class structure. By doing so, these collected students' recurrent sociolinguistic activities performed in English in the school-based community were conducive to producing the localised Chinese learning content. Based on that, it was proposed that Chinese can be the embodiment of various local practices, which is an effective approach for constructing a localised curriculum for making Chinese learnable in the Australian educational environment. Previous work has mostly focused on applying the sociolinguistic activities to the field of teaching English as a second language, particularly through engaging in adults' daily social practices from the real world. This study formulated a novel approach, to bring in the students' (children's) daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in school for Chinese language education. In practice, this offers some insights for the native speaking Chinese teachers and educators, as well as for policy makers and Chinese syllabus makers, in also making Chinese learnable for diverse emergent second language learners of Chinese around the world.

At the same time, this study took a new look at students' funds of knowledge accumulated in the school-based community by way of deepening and re-developing the original concept of González and others (2005). In doing so, it was positioned in the context of teaching Chinese to Australian students through activating and deploying their various forms of funds of knowledge shaped in this local school-based community, which contributed to the generation of their preferred instruction strategies for constructing a student-centred Chinese curriculum. Being guided by indigenous Chinese metaphors with pedagogical meanings, such as 'xǐ wén lè jiàn' (喜闻乐见), 'lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu' (朗朗上口), 'róng huì guàn tōng' (融会贯通), 'huì shēng huì sè' (绘声绘色) and 'wù jìn qí yòng' (物尽其用), 'rén jìn qí cái' (人尽其才), this research further identified three major students' knowledge categories, formed and preserved from their daily exposures to the learning experiences which happened in the school-based community, including their prior knowledge of those popular learning activities, existing knowledge of the formerly-learnt Chinese language knowledge, as well as their powerful knowledge on using the advanced technology and rapping skills. Taking this into consideration, the current research project not only widened the notion and domain of 'funds of knowledge' (González et al., 2005) through engaging in those Chinese metaphors, but also supplied practical guidelines for teaching Chinese as a second language for those emergent language learners, especially employing inclusive and learner-directed teaching strategies. In this regard, this study proposed students' funds of knowledge-oriented instruction strategies in terms of

how to teach Chinese to the Australian local school students, with the adoption of their preferred teaching styles and learning habits in mind. Such an approach attempts to incorporate the students' favoured and habituated instruction manners and tactics into the student-centred Chinese curriculum construction, eventually making Chinese a localised and learnable language for them within the local educational milieu.

Afterwards, seeing the feedback from the local students' learning performance and outcomes in class and after class, the learning content from their daily recurring sociolinguistic activities, and the instruction strategies from their various shapes of funds of knowledge accumulated in the school-based community, mutually facilitated the students' 'translanguaging proficiency' to occur as their 'emergent bilinguals' (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011; García & Wei, 2014) for building their encouraging attitude and positive identity, and enriching their learning of Chinese within the local educational context. The learning content from their localised social practices, along with their familiarised teaching approaches, was collectively beneficial for creating the situated learning practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991), making Chinese language teaching happen in a real, dialogic space in class, where they were allowed to put what had been learnt into practice, and for regular retrieval and authentic use, and gradually capturing fresh Chinese knowledge. Here, it is worth mentioning that the notion and practical application of translanguaging were extended to the field of teaching Chinese as a second language to the Australian school students. Such a concept was further elucidated and embodied through the process of interacting with the local students' Chinese learning practices, as well as cultivating and theorising the localised and student-centred Chinese curriculum construction.

Accordingly, these localised and effective Chinese learning materials produced from such a real learning community tend to be transferred and dispensed to more emergent second language learners of Chinese from wider learning communities around the world with the support of advanced technology, such as the digital media and electronic learning devices, in a virtual, dialogic learning space. However, it was pointed out that such Australian localised Chinese learning resources need to be modified to suit Chinese learners with diversified cultural and educational backgrounds. The notion of 'yīn dì zhì yí' (因地制宜) should be given the priority regarding mobilising its suitability for learners from wider communities.

In summary, this research project is significant in two main aspects. On the one hand, it deconstructed, synthesised, and then reconstructed the discursive concepts that can be applied

to the field of Chinese language education, based on the teacher-researcher's evolving translanguaging capabilities in terms of theorising the localised and student-centred curriculum construction for enriching the learnability of Chinese. On the other hand, this study informs the native speaking Chinese teachers and educators, as well as Chinese curriculum designers, concerning selecting and deciding what to teach, and how to teach, the emergent second language learners of Chinese when considering their diverse learning needs and educational characteristics from different places around the world, thereby making Chinese learnable for them. To be exact, in the whole process of conducting this school-engaged and research-oriented program, the teacher-researcher has not only developed his Chinese teaching skills, but importantly the experience has shaped his research capabilities to a certain extent, which is presented in the next section.

8.6 Teaching and Research Capabilities Developed

Given the aforementioned, the teacher-researcher has developed both his teaching and research competencies through engaging and working on this research project. For instance, as the researcher he has mastered the abilities to propose the intended research questions based on the existing research problem, as well as adopt the informed methodology and the proper research instruments to collect the needed data for making a sound evidentiary-conceptual analysis. As the data analysis developed, the researcher also achieved the capability to synthesise and broaden the existing concepts from different domains for constructing an interactive theoretic-pedagogical framework, by virtue of mobilising and shuttling his translanguaging aptitudes between the indigenous Chinese metaphors and the Westernised concepts. By doing so, the built theoretic-pedagogical framework not only directed the teacher-researcher to carry out the teaching practices of Chinese smoothly in the local educational environment, but also to make major contributions to the field of Chinese language education through engaging and utilising traditional Chinese concepts for theorising the localised and student-centred curriculum construction. That is to say, such an established model guided the teacher-researcher's daily Chinese teaching experiences, which in turn facilitated its further improvement in practice.

Meanwhile, the research capabilities developed were reflected in his critical thinking during the course of addressing the research problem, as well as answering the proposed research questions and propositions. For example, his argumentative ability was reinforced, especially when encountering counter-evidence from corresponding counter-statements. This was conducive to making the analyses, discussions and arguments more concentrated and reliable

in a logical and academic manner. In addition, considering the context of the study, he needed to apply for corresponding ethical documents and get them approved before conducting the data collection. That informed the teacher-researcher that educational research necessarily involves dealing with human beings and their actions. In this regard, the educational researcher had to keep ethical and secure 'eyes' on the research site and participants during the whole process of the research project.

More importantly, as a Chinese volunteer teacher, such teaching experiences in this Australian local public school were undoubtedly beneficial for his following teaching career. In particular, the Chinese teaching and communication proficiencies he attained had the major influences on being aware of what and how to teach the differentiated emergent second language learners of Chinese from the wider learning communities, thus ultimately making Chinese a localised and learnable language for them despite the various educational milieus. Therefore, such a great and memorable teaching and research journey in this local primary school and at Western Sydney University will definitely be useful for his teaching and research career in the future, and will always be regarded as an everlasting treasure in his life.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Glossary: Listed in Order of Appearance in Thesis

鱼与熊掌不可得兼 (yú yǔ xióng zhǎng bù kě dé jiān) literally refers to when choosing between a fish and a bear paw, they cannot both be obtained or owned at the same time, and we need learn to choose the proper or the necessary one (e.g. the bear paw), and correspondingly abandon the other one (e.g. the fish). Metaphorically, here it means that when the teacher-researcher cannot include every facet in relation to the current research topic, he defines this study by restricting it to a certain perspective and dimension for proposing the suitable research questions.

由浅入深 (yóu qiǎn rù shēn) means from being shallow to deep, gradually deepening.

迂回战略 (yū huí zhàn lüè) literally refers to an effective tactic used for military purposes to besiege enemies and defeat them in a wider space, while avoiding the direct or face-to-face conflict with the hostile armed forces in a battle.

学以致用 (xué yǐ zhì yòng) means putting what has been learned into practice during the process of learning some abstract knowledge.

量体裁衣 (liàng tǐ cái yī) literally refers to tailoring according to a person's actual figure or height. Metaphorically, it means that carrying something out should be based on actual circumstances.

就地取材 (jiù dì qǔ cái) is defined as obtaining materials from the local area to make full use of the potential potency of local resources.

主人翁意识 (zhǔ rén wēng yì shí) means a sense of ownership and belonging.

喜闻乐见 (xǐ wén lè jiàn) means what one really loves to hear and see, which is extremely popular among people.

朗朗上口 (lǎng lǎng shàng kǒu) refers to a genre with certain rhythms, such as verse or poetry, which is easy to read aloud and remember the content.

融会贯通 (róng huì guàn tōng) refers to achieving the mastery of new knowledge through combining it with the existing knowledge comprehensively.

绘声绘色 (huì shēng huì sè) means that something is described in a very vivid way and lifelike style through presenting its sound and appearance.

物尽其用 (wù jìn qí yòng) refers to making the best use of everything available, such as materials or resources in order to get them to serve their proper purpose.

人尽其才 (rén jìn qí cái) means that everyone can do their best to complete some tasks or deal with some difficulties through fully utilising their own advantages and abilities.

活学活用 (huó xué huó yòng) refers to when learning some knowledge, flexibly applying such knowledge to practice.

因地制宜 (yīn dì zhì yí) literally means taking suitable measures or making reasonable decisions to deal with something should be based on the local specific conditions, especially as they occurred and applied in the field of agriculture.

Appendix 2 Confirmation of Candidature

From: Matthew Spencer <M.Spencer@westernsydney.edu.au> on behalf of GRS Higher Degree Research <grs.hdr@westernsydney.edu.au>
Sent: Tuesday, 24 January 2017 11:38:50 AM
To: Kunpeng Zhao
Cc: Michael Singh; David Wright; Jing Qi
Subject: Confirmation of Candidature - Kunpeng Zhao

Dear Kunpeng,

We are writing to you regarding your recent Confirmation of Candidature.

All the relevant documents from your School/Institute have been duly processed by the Graduate Research School.

Please retain this message. You will need to provide a copy of this email to the Human Ethics Committee, if you require ethics approval to continue your studies.

This means that your Confirmation of Candidature has been successfully completed and we wish you all the best with your continuing research.

Best regards,
Matt.

Appendix 3 Ethics Approval⁴⁶

Locked Bag 1797
Penrith NSW 2751 Australia
Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI)



REDI Reference: H12110
Risk Rating: Low 2 - HREC

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

1 May 2017

Professor Michael Singh
School of Education

Dear Michael,

I wish to formally advise you that the Human Research Ethics Committee has approved your research proposal H12110 "Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities: Theorizing Student-Centred Curriculum Construction for Learning of Chinese Language", until 31 August 2019 with the provision of a progress report annually if over 12 months and a final report on completion.

In providing this approval the HREC determined that the proposal meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research.

This protocol covers the following researchers:

Michael Singh, David Wright, Kungeng Zhao

Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report will be due annually on the anniversary of the approval date.
2. A final report will be due at the expiration of the approval period.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee prior to being implemented. Amendments must be requested using the HREC Amendment Request Form: https://www.westernsydney.edu.au/_data/assets/word_doc/0012/1098995/FORM_Amendment_Request.docx
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events on participants must be reported to the Human Research Ethics Committee via the Human Ethics Officer as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the Committee as a matter of priority
6. Consent forms are to be retained within the archives of the School or Research Institute and made available to the Committee upon request.
7. Project specific conditions:
There are no specific conditions applicable.

Please quote the registration number and title as indicated above in the subject line on all future correspondence related to this project. All correspondence should be sent to the e-mail address humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au as this e-mail address is closely monitored.

Yours sincerely

A black rectangular box redacting the signature of Professor Elizabeth Deane.

Professor Elizabeth Deane
Presiding Member,
Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee

⁴⁶ It is here worth stating that a minor adjustment has been made to the thesis title based on the actual research process and findings, the research problem and focus, however, it is still consistent with the title originally proposed in this study. Such a situation is applicable to the following documents, including the invitation letter, participant information sheet, student consent dialogue sheet, participant consent form and interview protocol.

Mr Kunpeng Zhao
1/39 Great Western Highway
KINGSWOOD NSW 2747

DOC17/487191
SERAP2017212

Dear Mr Zhao

I refer to your application to conduct a research project in NSW government schools entitled *Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities: Theorizing Student-Centred Curriculum Construction for Learning of Chinese Language*. I am pleased to inform you that your application has been approved.

You may contact principals of the nominated schools to seek their participation. You should include a copy of this letter with the documents you send to principals.

This approval will remain valid until 22-May-2018.

The following researchers or research assistants have fulfilled the Working with Children screening requirements to interact with or observe children for the purposes of this research for the period indicated:

Researcher name	WWCC	WWCC expires
Kunpeng Zhao	WWC0839114V	28-Oct-2020

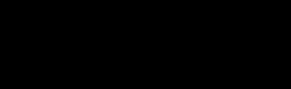
I draw your attention to the following requirements for all researchers in NSW government schools:

- The privacy of participants is to be protected as per the NSW Privacy and Personal Information Protection Act 1998.
- School principals have the right to withdraw the school from the study at any time. The approval of the principal for the specific method of gathering information must also be sought.
- The privacy of the school and the students is to be protected.
- The participation of teachers and students must be voluntary and must be at the school's convenience.
- Any proposal to publish the outcomes of the study should be discussed with the research approvals officer before publication proceeds.
- All conditions attached to the approval must be complied with.

When your study is completed please email your report to: serap@det.nsw.edu.au
You may also be asked to present on the findings of your research.

I wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely



Dr Robert Stevens
Manager, Research
22 May 2017

School Policy and Information Management
NSW Department of Education
Level 1, 1 Oxford Street, Darlinghurst NSW 2010 – Locked Bag 53, Darlinghurst NSW 1300
Telephone: 02 9244 5060 – Email: serap@det.nsw.edu.au



Appendix 4 Invitation Letter

Invitation Letter for Classroom Teachers

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Kunpeng Zhao. I am a PhD candidate at the School of Education of Western Sydney University. I hereby cordially invite you to participate in my research project entitled “Exploring the Australian School Students’ Sociolinguistic Activities for Learning of Chinese Language”.

My study aims to explore the activities (such as playing handball, football and volleyball) that students regularly engage in at school while using their everyday ordinary language. Such resources will be worthy for generating learnable materials in Chinese language teaching.

For more details, please find participant information sheet, and consent form.

If you would like to know more about the project, please feel free to contact me via email: 18486634@student.westernsydney.edu.au.

Your response will be highly appreciated.

Best regards,

Kunpeng Zhao

PhD Candidate

School of Education

Western Sydney University

Invitation Letter for Students' Parents/Caregivers

Dear Parents/Caregivers,

On behalf of my mentee Mr Kunpeng Zhao, I am writing to invite your child/children to participate in a study entitled "Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities for Learning of Chinese Language".

Kunpeng is a PhD candidate from School of Education, Western Sydney University. He will be volunteering in teaching Chinese in our school throughout 2017.

His study aims to explore the activities (such as playing handball, football and volleyball) that students regularly engage in at school while using their everyday ordinary language. Such resources will be worthy for generating learnable materials in Chinese language teaching.

For more details, please find participant information sheet, and consent form.

Your response will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Laura Williams

Appendix 5 Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet for Classroom Teachers

Project Title:

Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities for Learning of Chinese Language

Project Summary:

You are invited to participate in a research being conducted by Mr Kunpeng Zhao, a PhD candidate in School of Education, under the Supervision of Professor Michael Singh and Dr David Wright in School of Education, Western Sydney University.

This research aims to explore the activities (such as playing handball, football and volleyball) that students regularly engage in at school while using their everyday ordinary language. Such resources will be worthy for generating learnable materials in Chinese language teaching.

What will I be asked to do?

You will be asked to participate in individual interview. You will be asked to describe photographs shown to you that demonstrate the researcher's teaching activities in the Chinese lessons. The questions will focus on your perspectives on the uses of students' recurring everyday sociolinguistic activities in making Chinese learnable for them.

How much of my time will I need to give?

30 minutes.

What benefits will I, and/or the broader community, receive for participating?

This research will have no direct benefits to the wider community. However, the research outcomes may help the school where this research will be conducted to improve their teaching of Chinese.

Will the study involve any risk or discomfort for me? If so, what will be done to rectify it?

Participating in this study will not cause any risk or discomfort for you. All information collected for this research will be kept in confidential. All the interview data will be de-identified by using pseudonyms for analysis, reporting and storage. This research is not evaluative and your participation will not affect your teaching career.

If you do feel uncomfortable in the participation, you may withdraw at any time without any consequences or giving any reason.

How do you intend to publish or disseminate the results?

It is anticipated that the results of this research project will be published and/or presented in a variety of forums. In any publication and/or presentation, information will be provided in such a way that the participant cannot be identified, except with your permission.

Will the data and information that I have provided be disposed of?

Please be assured that only the researcher will have access to the raw data you provide. The information will be disposed of after 5 years of the completion of this project. This is a mandatory period for storing data in Western Sydney University.

Can I withdraw from the study?

Participation is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged to be involved. If you do participate you can withdraw at any time without giving reason.

If you do choose to withdraw, any information that you have provided will be deleted, the hard copies will be shredded and electronic ones will be deleted completely from where there are stored.

Can I tell other people about the study?

Yes, you can tell other people about the study by providing them with the Principal Researcher's contact details. They can contact the Principal Researcher to discuss their participation in the research project and obtain a copy of the information sheet.

What if I require further information?

Please contact Mr Kunpeng Zhao should you wish to discuss the research further before deciding whether or not to participate.

What if I have a complaint?

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) by Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to sign the Participant Consent Form. The information sheet is for you to keep and the consent form is retained by the researcher.

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval number is **H12110**.

Kunpeng Zhao

PhD Candidate

School of Education

Western Sydney University

Participant Information Sheet for Students' Parents/Caregivers

Project Title:

Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities for Learning of Chinese Language

Project Summary:

Your children are invited to participate in a research being conducted by Mr Kunpeng Zhao, a PhD candidate in School of Education, under the Supervision of Professor Michael Singh and Dr David Wright in School of Education, Western Sydney University.

This research aims to explore the activities (such as playing handball, football and volleyball) that students regularly engage in at school while using their everyday ordinary language. Such resources will be worthy for generating learnable materials in Chinese language teaching.

What will be your child/children asked to do?

They will be asked to participate in:

1. Observation of their in-class engagement and performance, which will be audio-recorded. Some photographs will be taken during the observation with parents' fully informed consent. Observation will be conducted weekly in Term 2, Term 3 and Term 4 in 2017.
2. Focus group interviews at the end of each term, where selected photographs (taken during the class observation) will be shown to students to solicit their views and comments. Each focus group interview (n=6) will last 30 minutes and be conducted during the recess in the school foyer. The focus groups will be recorded in the audio files.

How much of the time will your child/children need to give?

The classroom observation will be conducted as part of the regular teaching, and will not take your child additional time. The focus group interviews will take your child 180 minutes altogether.

What benefits will your children, and/or the broader community, receive for participating?

This research will have no direct benefits to the wider community. However, the research outcomes may help the school where this research will be conducted to improve their teaching of Chinese.

Will the study involve any risk or discomfort for your child/children? If so, what will be done to rectify it?

Participating in this study will not cause any risk or discomfort for your children. All the observation and interview data will be de-identified by using pseudonyms for analysis, reporting and storage. This research is not evaluative and your children's participation will not affect their future learning of Chinese.

The photographs of your children in the Chinese lessons will only be used during the focus group interviews. The photographs will not be published anywhere.

If your children do feel uncomfortable in the participation, they may withdraw at any time without any consequences or giving any reason.

How do I intend to publish or disseminate the results?

It is anticipated that the results of this research project will be published and/or presented in a variety of forums. In any publication and/or presentation, information will be provided in such a way that the participant cannot be identified, except with your permission. Your child's/children's photographs will not be published anywhere.

Will the data and information that my child/children have provided be disposed of?

Only the researcher will have access to the raw data your children provide. The information will be disposed after 5 years of the completion of this project. This is a mandatory period for storing data in Western Sydney University.

Can my child/children withdraw from the study?

Participation is entirely voluntary and your children are not obliged to be involved. If your children do participate they can withdraw at any time without any consequences or giving any reason.

If your children do choose to withdraw, any information that they have provided will be deleted except the data of focus group. The hard copies will be shredded and electronic ones will be deleted completely from where there are stored.

Can my child/children tell other people about the study?

Yes, your children can tell other people about the study by providing them with the Principal Researcher's contact details. They can contact the Principal Researcher to discuss their participation in the research project and obtain a copy of the information sheet.

What if I require further information?

Please contact Mr Kunpeng Zhao should you wish to discuss the research further before agreeing your children whether or not to participate.

What if I have a complaint?

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) by Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree your children to participate in this study, you will be asked to sign the Participant Consent Form on behalf of your children. The information sheet is for you to keep and the consent form is retained by the researcher.

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval number is **H12110**.

Kunpeng Zhao

PhD Candidate

School of Education

Western Sydney University

Appendix 6 Student Consent Dialogue Sheet

Project Title:

Exploring the Australian School Students' Daily Activities for Learning of Chinese Language

Project Summary:

You are invited to be in a research project conducted by Mr Zhao. In this research, I want to find out how to make learning of Chinese more interesting and exciting.

My research aims to explore your daily activities (such as playing handball, football and volleyball) that you regularly engage in at school. You need to play these games using English. I then want to teach you the Chinese.

What does the study involve?

You currently participate in Chinese lessons and I would like to talk to you about how the lessons are going and how you feel about learning Chinese. Sometimes I will take some photographs of the lessons to show your teachers and parents how you are progressing in learning Chinese. Further, I want to meet a couple groups of 3-5 students to talk about the Chinese you have learnt at the end of each term. I will ask about your opinions of Chinese lessons and how you felt about using your daily school activities in learning Chinese. If any student does not wish to participate in my research, you will still be able to have the Chinese lessons. I will not take photographs of you and you will not be involved in the focus groups.

How much time will the study take?

The lessons are normally 40 minutes. Each focus group interview (n=6) will last 30 minutes and will be conducted during the recess in the school foyer.

Will the study benefit me?

This study will benefit you from helping make the learning of Chinese more interesting and exciting.

Will anyone else know the results? How will the results be used?

Only Mr Zhao and his teachers at the university will read it. Your information will be put into a special report. Other university teachers will read this paper and maybe use the information to make learning of Chinese more exciting.

Is my participation fully voluntary?

Your participation in this research project is fully voluntary. If you do not want to participate in it, you can still have Chinese lessons as usual. Or you do not need to agree to participate in it if you do not want to, even though your parents/caregivers say ‘yes’ for it. Meanwhile, if you choose not to participate in this research project, you can say ‘no’ or ‘I do not want to participate in it’ to the mentor teacher and she will not deliver the information sheet and consent form to your parents/caregivers.

Can I withdraw from the study if I feel uncomfortable?

If you feel uncomfortable, you can withdraw from the study at any time without affecting your future learning of Chinese.

Can I tell other people about the study?

You can tell other people about this exciting project.

What if I require further information?

If you require further information, you can ask Mr Zhao at the end of the Chinese lessons at school.

What if I have a complaint?

If you have a complaint, you can tell your classroom teachers or Mr Wynn, the Principal of the school.

Kunpeng Zhao

PhD Candidate

School of Education, Western Sydney University

Appendix 7 Participant Consent Form

Consent Form for Teacher Participants

Project Title: *Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities for Learning of Chinese Language*

I hereby consent to participate in the above named research project.

I acknowledge that:

- I have read the participant information sheet (or where appropriate, have had it read to me) and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my involvement in the project with the researcher
- The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent to:

Participate in an interview *Have my information audio recorded*

I understand that my involvement is confidential and the information gained during the study may be published for research use but no information about me will be used in any way that reveals my identity.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without affecting my relationship with the researcher, and any organisations involved, now or in the future.

Signed: _____ **Name:** _____ **Date:** _____

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Western Sydney University. The ethics reference number is: H12110.

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) by Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Consent Form for Student Participants

Project Title: *Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities for Learning of Chinese Language*

I hereby consent for my child/children to participate in the above named research project.

I acknowledge that:

- I have read the participant information sheet (or where appropriate, have had it read to me) and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and the involvement in the project with the researcher
- The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent on behalf of my child/children to:

- Participate in a focus group interview* *Have information audio recorded*
- Have the photographs in Chinese lessons taken* *Participate in classroom observations*

I understand that the information gained during the study may be published for research use but no information about my child/children will be used in any way that reveals the identity.

I understand that my child/children can withdraw from the study at any time without affecting the relationship with the researcher, and any organisations involved, now or in the future and data will be deleted except the data from focus group.

Signed: _____ **Name:** _____ **Date:** _____

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Western Sydney University. The ethics reference number is: H12110.

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) by Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au. Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 8 General Questions for Photo-Elicitation Interviews

Questions for Classroom Teachers

These are what (showing relevant photographs - nearly 36 pieces) I and the students have been doing in the Chinese lessons, please describe what you have noticed.

1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?
2. What other students' recurring activities in school can you think of?
3. What was/were going on in this/these photograph(s)?
4. What can you say about the students' engagement and performance in Chinese lessons?
5. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from the students' daily activities in school?
6. What can you say about the significance of using students' recurring activities in school as Chinese teaching content?

Questions for Students

1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?
2. What other activities you always perform in school?
3. What were they doing in this/these photograph(s)?
4. What is/are your preferred topic(s) regarding learning of Chinese?
5. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from your everyday activities in school?
6. What can you say about the importance of using your recurring activities in school for other school students' Chinese learning?

Appendix 9 Case Study Protocol

A. Introduction to the Case study

1. Case Study Questions

How can the use of students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge contribute to curriculum construction to enrich the learning of the Chinese language?

CR1: What forms of the local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community can the Chinese teacher-researcher utilise as content sources for curriculum construction? (What to Teach) - (Evidentiary Chapter 5)

CR2: How can the Chinese teacher-researcher mobilise the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community through the process of interacting with their learning of Chinese? (How to Teach) - (Evidentiary Chapter 6)

CR3: How can students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge be conducive to the generation of suitable learning materials for the emergent second language learners of Chinese? (Feedback on Learning Outcomes) - (Evidentiary Chapter 7)

2. Theoretical Construction

- a. Language as a Local Practice (Pennycook, 2010)
- b. Funds of Knowledge (González, et al., 2005)
- c. Situated Learning in Community of Practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991)
- d. Translanguaging as Emergent Bilingualism (García, 2009; García & Kleifgen, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011; Wei, 2011; García & Wei, 2014)

B. Data Collection Procedures

1. Name of site to be visited, including contact persons

A public school in WSA of NSW titled “剑桥花园小学”;

The classroom teachers, as well as students and their parents/guardians to be contacted.

2. Data collection plan

- a. playground (focusing on the students' everyday recurring sociolinguistic activities in school) and classroom observations (observing the students' in-class engagements and performances) - (•photographs •word documents);
- b. photo-elicitation interviews with the classroom teachers and students - (•audio files •word documents);
- c. lesson plans, self-reflection journals, teaching materials, work samples, ACARA and K-10 Chinese syllabus - (•word documents •purchased artefacts & handmade/self-designed learning resources for class activities •PDF documents).

3. Expected preparation prior to site visits

- a. Sensitivity to research ethics & formal written ethics approval (NEAF, SERAP & informed consent with signature)
- b. High-quality digital recording device
- c. Review of interview skills and inquiry competency
- d. Printing out the interview protocol
- e. Negotiating and arranging the schedule and the place with the interviewees in advance

C. Data Study Questions

1. General PEI questions for classroom teachers

These are what (showing relevant photographs-almost 30 pieces) I and the students have been doing in my Chinese lessons please describe what you have noticed (in class).

1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?
2. What other students' recurring activities in school can you think of?
3. What was/were going on in this/these photograph(s)?
4. What can you say about the students' engagement and performance in Chinese lessons?
5. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from the students' daily activities in school?
6. What can you say about the significance of using students' recurring activities in school as Chinese teaching content?

2. General PEI questions for students

1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?
2. What other activities you always perform in school?
3. What were they doing in this/these photograph(s)?
4. What is/are your preferred topic(s) regarding learning of Chinese?
5. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from your everyday activities in school?
6. What can you say about the importance of using your recurring activities in school for other school students' Chinese learning?

D. Outline of Case Study Report

1. The forms' of local students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities performed in English in the school-based community, which can be utilised as the learnable and suitable content sources;
2. The local students' knowledge base shaped in the school community, which tend to be mobilised and deployed as the resources of preferred and appropriate instruction strategies;
3. The value and effectiveness of students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge in constructing the localised and student-centred curriculum for making Chinese learnable locally and globally.

Appendix 10 Interview Protocol

Research Project: Exploring the Australian School Students' Sociolinguistic Activities: Theorizing Student-Centred Curriculum Construction for Learning of Chinese Language

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewer: _____

Interviewee: _____

Informed Consent Signed? _____

Notes to interviewee(s):

Thank you for your participation. I believe your contribution will be of value for this study and helping to develop the teaching and research practice of Chinese language education.

Confidentiality of responses is guaranteed.

Approximate length of interview: 20-30 minutes (36 photographs along with 6 general questions).

Purpose of research:

This research project attempts to explore the Australian local school students' daily recurring sociolinguistic activities and their preferred learning styles in the school-based community for constructing a localised and student-centred curriculum to enrich their learning of Chinese.

In doing so, this study firstly gathers diverse forms of the students' everyday sociolinguistic activities recurrently occurred, and then followed by their learning habits in this local school. Further, such intellectual strengths are selected as the content sources of curriculum construction for their learning of Chinese within the local context. Meanwhile, it is expected to evaluate the learnability and appropriateness of such localised learning resources in terms of

improving Chinese learnability for them throughout the whole period of Chinese language teaching and more emergent second language learners of Chinese worldwide.

Questions for Classroom Teachers

1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?
2. What other students' recurring activities in school can you think of?
3. What was/were going on in this/these photograph(s)?
4. What can you say about the students' engagement and performance in Chinese lessons?
5. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from the students' daily activities in school?
6. What can you say about the significance of using students' recurring activities in school as Chinese teaching content?

Contributory Research Question 1: What forms of students' recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community can the Chinese teacher-researcher utilise as content sources for curriculum construction?

Interview Schedule (what interview questions did you ask that related to this contributory research question?)

- 1. What can you say about the photographs you classify?**
- 2. What other students' recurring sociolinguistic activities in school can you think of?**

Prompts: In terms of the photographs you classified and mentioned/saw, which activities do the students always perform in school during recess? I'd like to know more about the importance of these students' activities in school for my Chinese teaching.

Probes:

1. Clarifying what the interviewees have to say:

e.g. When you mention..., it means that.../It sounds like you are talking about...so I think...

2. Getting more details from interviewees:

e.g. Please tell me more about...or Can you tell me more about .../Can you give me an example of...

3. Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification - and feelings, thoughts:

Why did you classify these photographs in this way?

Why are these students' activities important for my Chinese teaching?

Contributory Research Question 2: How can the Chinese teacher-researcher mobilise the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community through the process of interacting with their learning of Chinese?

Interview Schedule (what interview questions did you ask that related to this contributory research question?)

1. What was/were going on in this photograph?

2. What can you say about the students' engagement and performance in Chinese lessons?

Prompts: Did you notice that the students are more engaged and active in my Chinese lessons after using these activities as teaching content? Why do think these changes occur or not?

Probes:

1. Clarifying what the interviewees have to say/Getting more details from interviewees:

How did the students respond to the teaching content? So you are saying that the students were/were not more engaged and active in my Chinese lessons, please tell me more your ideas about that...

2. Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification – and feelings, thoughts:

How do you feel/think of the teaching strategy I used during the process of teaching Chinese?

Why do think that is effective.../or otherwise?

3. Asking interviewees to review a range of possible influences or a specific list of factors that are relevant to your research problem/question

What are the major influences on the students' Chinese learning after integrating their recurring everyday activities in school?

What do you think are the main reasons for making these influences occur?

Contributory Research Question 3: How can students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge be conducive to the generation of suitable learning materials for the emergent second language learners of Chinese?

Interview Schedule (what interview questions did you ask that related to this contributory research question?)

- 1. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from the students' daily activities in school?**
- 2. What can you say about the significance of using students' recurring activities in school?**

Prompts: Please tell me more your ideas about that...

Probes:

1. Clarifying what the interviewees have to say/Getting more details from interviewees: Why do you think the teaching content from the students' daily activities are successful/effective/valuable in Chinese language teaching or otherwise?

2. Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification - and feelings, thoughts:

Please give me more ideas on the appropriateness and benefits of using such resources to generate suitable Chinese learning materials.

3. Asking about interviewees whether their response might be different in different circumstances:

How do you think these learning materials from the/our students' activities are suitable for other overseas Chinese language learners whether or not?

Questions for Students

1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?
2. What other activities you always perform in school?
3. What were they doing in this/these photograph(s)?
4. What is/are your preferred topic(s) regarding learning of Chinese?
5. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from your everyday activities in school?
6. What can you say about the importance of using your recurring activities in school for other school students' Chinese learning?

Contributory Research Question 1: What forms of students' recurring sociolinguistic activities in the school-based community can the Chinese teacher-researcher utilise as content sources for curriculum construction?

Interview Schedule (what interview questions did you ask that related to this contributory research question?)

- 1. What can you say about the photographs you classified?**
- 2. What other sociolinguistic activities you always perform in school?**

Prompts: In terms of the photographs you classified and mentioned/saw, which activities do you always perform in school during recess? I'd like to know more about your ideas/views about these activities used in my Chinese teaching.

Probes:

1. Clarifying what the interviewees have to say:

e.g. When you mention..., it means that.../It sounds like you are talking about...so I think...

2. Getting more details from interviewees:

e.g. Please tell me more about...or Can you tell me more about .../Can you give me an example of...

3. Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification - and feelings, thoughts:

Why did you classify these photographs in this way?

Why do you like these activities used in my Chinese teaching?

Contributory Research Question 2: How can the Chinese teacher-researcher mobilise the local students' funds of knowledge shaped in the school-based community through the process of interacting with their learning of Chinese?

Interview Schedule (what interview questions did you ask that related to this contributory research question?)

3. What were they doing on in this/these photograph(s)?

4. What is/are your preferred topic(s) regarding learning of Chinese?

Prompts: Please recall something else happened in our Chinese lessons based on the/these photograph(s) you just saw. Why do think these things happened in class?

Probes:

1. Clarifying what the interviewees have to say/Getting more details from interviewees:

How did you respond to the Chinese teaching content from your preferred and familiar activities in school? Please tell me more your reasons/ideas/views on the topic you preferred to learn in Chinese lessons.

2. Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification – and feelings, thoughts:

How do you feel/think of the teaching content I used during the process of teaching Chinese?

Why do enjoy learning that/them or otherwise?

3. Asking interviewees to review a range of possible influences or a specific list of factors that are relevant to your research problem/question

What are the major influences on your Chinese learning after your recurring everyday activities in school are integrated into Chinese teaching content? What do you think are the main reasons for making these influences occur?

Contributory Research Question 3: How can students' sociolinguistic activities and funds of knowledge be conducive to the generation of suitable learning materials for the emergent second language learners of Chinese?

Interview Schedule (what interview questions did you ask that related to this contributory research question?)

- 1. What do you think of the Chinese teaching content from your everyday activities in school?**
- 2. What can you say about the importance of using your recurring activities in school for other school students' Chinese learning?**

Prompts: Please tell me more your ideas about that...

Probes:

1. Clarifying what the interviewees have to say/Getting more details from interviewees: After using your everyday activities in school for Chinese teaching content, now are you familiar with Chinese language? Why or otherwise?

2. Getting the interviewees reasons, rationale, justification - and feelings, thoughts:

Please give me more reasons/ideas/views on the good points/advantages or disadvantages of using your everyday activities in school for generating your preferred Chinese learning materials.

3. Asking about interviewees whether their response might be different in different circumstances:

How do you think these learning materials from your daily activities in school are suitable for other school students' Chinese learning whether or not?

4. Testing the interviewees' ideas on counterfactuals - counter-evidence or counter-arguments - that an opposing idea, evidence or situation:

Last week, a student, from my Chinese class, said to me that he thought that teaching content about his favourite sport-handball was really interesting and enjoyable, because he is so

familiar with the language used in playing handball and he can use them in school every day when playing handball with his friends. What do you think about other Chinese learners?

Closure:

Thank you for your participation.

Please reassure the confidentiality.