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A Case Study of Literacy Curricula in a Canadian Offshore School in China

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Abstract

This single case study is embedded in a multiple case study conducted in Canadian offshore schools in China. In response to the scant literature on literacy curriculum in transnational education contexts, particularly in secondary schools, this study reports findings regarding literacy curricula implementation in a secondary Sino-Canadian school.

The theoretical tools of the study include theories on curriculum, multiliteracies, and multimodality. Data presented in this paper emerges from observations of 47 periods of Mandarin and English literacy classes, interviews with two Chinese and two foreign literacy teachers regarding curricula actualization, and related curriculum documents.

Findings relate how Chinese and Canadian literacy curricula are integrated and actualized in classrooms. The paper offers recommendations regarding operationalizing curricula in response to the changing landscape in literacy education against the backdrop of increasing global mobility of education and learners. This study also provides suggestions on developing teacher education in transnational education contexts.

Keywords

Transnational education; curriculum; implemented curriculum; multiliteracies; multimodality; teacher education

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Chapter 1

1. Introduction

1.1 Contexts Review

Transnational education has been referred to “any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country)” (The Global Alliance for Transnational Education, 1997, p. 1). By contrast, international education is about people mobility, for example, students travel abroad to other countries to receive education (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). Such offshore schools that can be seen as “contact zone[s]” where different cultures “meet, clash, and grapple with each other” (Pratt, 1991, p. 35). While delivering curricula to students located in different regions (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007), transnational education programs bring various benefits to both home and host countries, such as creating interactive encounters in multiple aspects (e.g., cultures, values, and beliefs) (Huang, 2008) at various levels (e.g., regions, schools, teachers, and students) (Dunn & Wallace, 2008b). Canada is an active competitor in international education and student recruitment, with its aspiration to open up new business and educational opportunities abroad (Cosco, 2011). Up to 2017, Canada has set up 134 elementary and secondary transnational education programs all over the world (CICIC, 2017).

After the adoption of the Open Door policy in 1978, there is a growing market for transnational education in China (Debowski, 2005). Since 1990s, China has become one of the largest importers of transnational education (Dunn & Wallace, 2008a). Among the countries who export transnational education to China, Canada provides its transnational education programs to China in elementary and secondary education at a fast pace (Zhang, 2012). Up to 2017, there are 86 Canadian offshore schools at elementary and

secondary levels in China, compared with 48 in 2011 (Zhang, 2012) and 75 in 2015 (Zhang & Heydon, 2015). China has become the largest receiving country of Canadian transnational curriculum (Cosco, 2011; CICIC, 2017). The four key players in Canadian transnational education programming in China, namely British Columbia, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Ontario, covered over 80% of all Canadian transnational programs among China (CICIC, 2017). Some Sino-Canadian schools run in a form that combines non-public schools located in China and Canadian independent schools sponsored by specific Canadian provinces (Schuetz, 2008). These transnational programs provide their offshore students with Canadian curricula along with the Chinese curricula and grant students with dual diplomas upon graduation.

There is a scarcity of literature on literacy curriculum in transnational education contexts (Zhang, 2012). Exceptions are case studies that have been conducted recently at offshore Alberta and Ontario programs in South China, Macao, and Hong Kong (e.g., Zhang, 2012, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2015). These studies have investigated variations of literacy curricula, such as intended curriculum (Eisner, 2002), institutional curriculum (Doyle, 1992b), programmatic curriculum (Doyle, 1992a), implemented curriculum (Hayden, 2006), lived curriculum (Aoki, 1993), and the relationships among them.

1.2 Coming to the Questions

Born with great passion for English, I sought for every chance to enhance my English abilities through various English-related practices since I was a teenager. Realizing my strongest interests in teaching English, I majored in English Teaching for four years in my university. During my university and graduate school years, I have been working as part-time English instructors in several English training institutions. I enjoyed my part-time teaching experiences working as International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test instructor teaching English speaking and listening. My communications with those who were eager to continue their further education abroad began to trigger my curiosity of and aspiration to international education. Obtaining both of my bachelor and master degrees in English-related fields, I was hired as an English teacher instructing both Grade 7 and Grade 12 students in a Sino-Canadian offshore school in China. During my one-

year stay in this transnational school, most of my Grade 12 students were preparing for IELTS to obtain qualification for higher education abroad. My own knowledge on IELTS, my students' needs in meeting IELTS test requirements, my classroom practices with offshore students, and the curriculum provided by the school led me to reflect on what promises the transnational curriculum had made for transnational program students. My teaching experiences in the Canadian offshore school and my two-year academic experience in learning curriculum studies in Canada aroused my interests to look into transnational curricula in China. Particularly, my previous role as a transnational educator well positioned me to investigate how curriculum was actualized in transnational education programs and to propose recommendations for transnational educators' teaching practices and professional development.

In response to the scant literature on literacy curriculum in transnational education contexts, my study employs a design of single case study (Ashley, 2012; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011) to investigate Mandarin and English literacy teachers' curriculum implementation in a Canadian offshore program in China. My study asks the following questions regarding the implemented English and Mandarin literacy curricula:

1. How were these curricula actualized at the level of implemented curriculum?
2. What are the implications for curriculum decision-making and literacy teachers' professional learning?

1.3 Theoretical Tools and Research Methodology

My study is informed by theories on curriculum, multiliteracies, and multimodality. Given its multidimensional nature in operation (Eisner, 2002; Morris & Adamson, 2010), curriculum exists in multiple variations, such as intended curriculum (i.e., what's planned in the official documents) (Eisner, 2002), institutional curriculum (i.e., the ideas or policies of a certain school) (Doyle, 1992b), programmatic curriculum (i.e., documents that embody the institutional curriculum) (Doyle, 1992a, 1992b), implemented curriculum (i.e., how teachers actualize curriculum in class) (Hayden, 2006), hidden curriculum (i.e., norms and values that are taught implicitly in schools) (Apple, 1971), null curriculum

(i.e., content that are not taught in schools) (Eisner, 2002), and lived curriculum (i.e., students' experiences in class) (Aoki, 1993). Curriculum theories informed me of various dimensions of curriculum and that they would interact to shape the implemented curriculum.

The New London Group (1996) encapsulated the word of “multiliteracies” to address the new form of literacy reshaped by historical, social, and cultural changes. In contrast with “mere literacy” (p. 64), the multiliteracies perspective acknowledges the growing linguistic and cultural differences and various channels of representation. The multiliteracies theories as my central theoretical lens supported my investigation into “social and culturally responsive curriculum” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 245) that could potentially connect literacy with the cultural and linguistic diversity in Canadian offshore schools in China.

Current discussions of multimodality stem from the concept of “multiliteracies” (Graham, Benson, & Fink, 2010). Multimodality highlights the growing number of channels in representation and communication (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a) and the increasing complexity of meaning making forms (Kress, 2003). Through the lens of multimodality, I looked into literacy teachers' recruitment of various semiotic resources in classroom practices that might have empowered transnational education students' meaning making. The multiliteracies framework is a good fit to guide investigations into transnational curricula as there is growing linguistic and cultural diversity and the multiplicity of communication channels embedded in transnational education programs.

This study is embedded in a SSHRC IDG project led by Dr. Zheng Zhang and Dr. Rachel Heydon. The original SSHRC project uses a multiple case design with ethnographic tools of observations, interviews, and document analysis to examine literacy curricula of two Sino-Canadian schools at the levels of intended curriculum, implemented curriculum, and lived curriculum. In the preliminary stage of the project, my own network within Canadian offshore schools in China assisted our research team in gaining easy access to the offshore Canadian school accredited by the province of New Brunswick (Pseudonym: SNBS).

My study employs a design of single case study (Ashley, 2012; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011) to investigate Mandarin and English literacy teachers' curriculum implementation in a secondary Sino-Canadian school. I used ethnographic tools of class observations and teacher interviews to document the particulars and dynamics of the implemented curricula to achieve triangulation of data resources (Ashley, 2012). The other research assistant and I recruited participants at this site. Two foreign literacy teachers and two Chinese literacy teachers participated in this study.

Using data collection approaches, such as audio recording, photographing, and note-taking, the other research assistant and I conducted classroom observations that concentrated on literacy teachers' teaching practices in three literacy classes. I was mainly responsible for collecting data on Mandarin literacy classes. Using semi-structured interviews, the other research assistant and I interviewed the four literacy teachers on site. The interview questions were designed and have been field-tested by the principal investigator of the original project in previous similar research. I revised the interview questions to better serve the purposes of the research focus of my MA thesis on the implemented curricula. The revised, ethically approved interview questions focused on teachers' views on implementing the transnational literacy curricula and their input about professional development for educators in the transnational education settings. The other research assistant and I transcribed the audios of observed English and Mandarin literacy classes and interviews with English and Chinese literacy teachers respectively.

I used constant comparison method (CCM) (Cohen et al., 2011) as my central method of data analysis to examine various ethnographic data that illuminated the implemented curriculum. I used NVivo 11 in the course of data analysis and organization. Themes in the coding process were derived both deductively and inductively.

1.4 Study Overview

Drawing on data from the original project, this study reports findings of an offshore Canadian school accredited by the province of New Brunswick (Pseudonym: SNBS) regarding literacy teachers' implemented curriculum.

In Chapter 2, I elaborate on literature on transnational education pertaining to curriculum implementation in transnational education programs and the status quo of transnational education in China.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework that consists of various dimensions of curriculum, multiliteracies, and multimodality to investigate teachers' operationalization of literacy curricula at SNBS.

In Chapter 4, I describe data collection methods to examine transnational educators' teaching practices and their perceptions of transnational literacy curricula. I also indicate ethical considerations and limitations of my study.

Chapter 5 presents vignettes of Chinese and foreign literacy teachers' classes and their narratives about their perceptions and actualization of transnational literacy curricula, as well as challenges they encounter in teaching practices.

In Chapter 6, I discuss the key findings pertaining to the nature, actualization, and limitations of literacy curricula at SNBS. I also propose recommendations for transnational educators regarding curriculum decision making, pedagogies, and teacher education in cross-border educational contexts.

Chapter 2

2. Literature Review

In this chapter, I first briefly review literature on transnational education, with a particular attention to transnational education in China, especially Sino-Canadian schools. Drawing on the existent literature, I then discuss the integration of the local and imported curricula in transnational education programs, followed by discussing the differences between the local and imported teachers and their teaching practices, some concerns on the lack of local responsiveness in transnational curriculum, and teachers' efforts on negotiating the differences in curriculum implementation. I finally review literature on teachers' professional development within cross-border education program contexts.

In the remainder of this chapter, I use "home" country to identify a country that provides transnational courses and "host" country to identify a country that receives transnational courses and provides them to the local students. Schools located in host countries are identified as "transnational schools" or "offshore schools".

2.1 Transnational Education

Differing from international education, which is characterized by "student mobility" (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2004, as cited in McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007, p. 22), transnational education underscores "program mobility" and "institutional mobility". In other words, in the form of international education, students travel abroad to other countries other than their home countries to receive education. By contrast, transnational education programs have been seen as experimental efforts to deliver curricula across borders to students in different places (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). The Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) (1997) defined transnational education as "any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country)" (p. 1). Doorbar and Bateman (2008) referred transnational education to education provision from one country to another. Barrows

(2000) particularly defined transnational higher education as “the programmes or courses of study in which students are located in a different country from the one in which the awarding institution is based” (p. 7). Transnational education brings various benefits to both home and host countries. For example, it has the possibility to create rich and meaningful intercultural encounters among school, staff, teachers, and students (Dunn & Wallace, 2008b). Specifically, Cosco (2011) considered Canadian transnational education as a potential asset to Canada as it opened up Canada’s new business and educational opportunities abroad. In addition, Canadian transnational education acted as “a conduit for developing and sustaining positive international networks and two-way flows of people” (p. 2). She also commented that Canada, as an active competitor in international education and student recruitment, was the only country where provincial governments granted fees to certify their offshore schools to use Canadian curricula.

2.1.1 Transnational Education in China

Foreign schools, set up as early in the 19th and the 20th century in the era of colonialism, are not new in China (Schuetze, 2008). The adoption of the Open Door policy in 1978 allowed international exchange and cooperation, as well as the operation of offshore schools and programs in China. Since then, China provided a growing market for transnational education (Debowski, 2005) and became one of the largest importers of transnational education since 1990s (Dunn & Wallace, 2008a). The home countries of transnational education programs in China are mainly developed English-speaking countries (Huang, 2008).

Chinese government welcome and encourage transnational education, since international input and transnational education provision may help China’s higher education to open up to the outside world, bring in international quality education, and promote the massification of higher education (Huang, 2008). The major cooperation mode in transnational education programs between China and the foreign countries is to deliver courses through a local site inside China. This form of alliance is known as Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools (Chinese State Council, 2003). In particular, Canadian offshore schools in China are required to be operated by Chinese nationals or

with Chinese partners (Cosco, 2011; Schuetze, 2008). According to Huang (2008), the growth of transnational education programs in China could be roughly divided into two phases, the first phase being the informal growth period prior to 1995. The carryout of Interim Provisions for Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in 1995 facilitated the second growth phase that was more structured and systematic and witnessed a rapid growing number of Sino-foreign programs (Zhang, 2012).

2.1.2 Sino-Canadian Schools

The number of Canadian offshore schools at kindergarten to grade 12 levels is increasing in response to the demand of acquiring Western degrees, especially in Asia-Pacific region (Cosco, 2011). Canada has set up 134 elementary and secondary transnational education programs all over the world up to 2017 (CICIC, 2017). Its exporting countries include Asian countries (e.g., China, Thailand, Japan, Republic of Korea, and Malaysia), South American countries (e.g., Cambodia, Mexico, and Colombia), and European countries (e.g., Spain and Switzerland). Among all Canadian offshore schools, 77% are now located in Asia-Pacific region, with 64% in China, Hong Kong, and Macao (CICIC, 2017).

Since the 1990s, Canadian institutions have engaged in introducing curricula into China through fast-growing provision of Canadian transnational education programs in elementary and secondary education (Zhang, 2012). Up until 2011, Canadian elementary and secondary transnational education extended to 11 provinces, four cities that were administratively equal to provinces (i.e., Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin, and Chongqing), and two special administrative regions (i.e., Hong Kong and Macau) in China (Zhang, 2012). Up until 2017, there are 86 Canadian offshore schools, including elementary and secondary levels (CICIC, 2017), compared with 48 in 2011 and 75 in 2015 (Zhang, 2012). China has become the largest receiving country of Canadian transnational curriculum (Cosco, 2011). Among the current 86 programs, 36 are using British Columbia provincial curriculum, 16 using Nova Scotia provincial curriculum, 13 using New Brunswick provincial curriculum, and 10 using Ontario provincial curriculum. The other two Canadian provinces that provide transnational education to China are Alberta,

offering curriculum to nine secondary schools, and Manitoba, offering to two secondary schools. The four provinces of British Columbia, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Ontario cover over 80% of all Canadian transnational programs in China and thus are referred to the four key players in Canadian transnational education programming in China (Zhang & Heydon, 2016).

2.2 The Integration of Canadian and Chinese Curricula in Sino-Canadian Schools

Schuetze (2008) identified that Sino-Canadian schools were on the one hand non-public schools located in China and on the other hand Canadian independent schools sponsored by specific Canadian provinces. These transnational programs offered students Canadian curriculum along with the Chinese standardized curriculum, which permitted students with dual diplomas upon graduation. Cosco (2011) pointed out that according to China's regulations, Chinese students were not allowed to attend international schools without getting the Chinese high-school diploma. As a result, "Chinese-foreign cooperative schools need to run a blended or dual-track model" to guarantee students' domestic public high-school diplomas (p. 12).

Ziguras (2001) commented that host and home countries' cultures should not be perceived as binary oppositions and there should be no clear-cut dividing line between local and global knowledge and practices in transnational education. However, at the level of implemented curriculum, research on transnational schools reported limited integration of the local and the imported curricula. Hoare's (2006) study revealed that it was common for local and foreign teachers not to meet with each other. In Zhang's (2015) study, both Chinese and Canadian teachers reported that the Chinese and Canadian curricula ran as parallel tracks. The school provided students with two separate Chinese and Ontario programmatic curricula. Both Canadian and Chinese teachers showed willingness to have more academic interactions with each other to better cater to students' needs. Drawing on data from the same case study, Zhang and Heydon (2015) concluded that the bicultural and bilingual options emphasized in the school's institutional curriculum were not fully actualized in its programmatic curriculum. They commented,

“such a bifurcation was likely a result of SCS’s missing school-based curriculum development” (p. 11).

2.3 When the Local Meet the Global

Literature on transnational education in secondary schools was limited, especially on implemented curriculum. In this section, drawing on limited literature, I discuss the differences and tensions between the local and the imported teaching practices in curriculum actualization, concerns on the lack of local responsiveness, teachers’ efforts on negotiating the local and imported curricula in curriculum implementation, and research on professional development for transnational educators.

2.3.1 Differences and Tensions Between the Local and Imported Teachers and Teaching Practices

Egege and Kutieleh (2008) commented that transnational education highlighted the complex relationships between cultures and educational practices. Particularly, teachers are in crucial roles of conferring languages, values, and knowledge in transnational education contexts (Lightman, 2015). Being a good example among these educational settings, transnational education programs have been seen as a meeting place of different cultures and languages (Ziguras, 2008) and a site of intercultural engagement (Leask, 2008). Leask (2008) denoted that it was challenging for students and foreign teachers when they did not share the same local contexts, especially when the students in transnational education settings knew local contexts better than their foreign teachers.

Teachers in transnational programs are either local staff or imported teachers who visited as required (Debowski, 2005). Education International (2004) viewed interactions between local and foreign education providers as clash of values. Different languages, cultures, beliefs, and pedagogies being put under the same roof may cause tensions between Chinese and foreign teachers (Schuetze, 2008). Pratt (1991) brought the notion of “contact zone” to describe the “social spaces”, transnational education programs being one of such, “where cultures meet, clash, and grapple with each other, often in contexts of

highly asymmetrical relations of power” (p. 34). As Wang (2008) concluded, “cultural dissonance seemed to be unavoidable in such transnational programs” (p. 61).

Research identified differences and tensions between the local and imported teachers and teaching practices. Wang’s (2008) study in a Sino-Australian transnational school reported tensions between different cultural forces that made transnational teachers critically reflect on their previous assumptions and practices. Similarly, Smith (2009) pointed out that the imported teachers faced challenges in transnational education contexts in terms of their academic roles and identities. He commented that the imported teachers were expected to work in various environments that were different from their own. Some teachers therefore started to question their original ideologies and pedagogies. For example, some transnational educators uncomfortably found themselves considered as “the font of all knowledge” (p. 114) and encountered difficulties in engaging students in individual project activities. However, Smith additionally commented that such changes and challenges that transnational teachers were confronted with could be considered as “the novel experience” (p. 113) that led to teachers’ critical reflection, thus development, of their teaching practices.

Schuetze (2008) reported that some Chinese teachers in Sino-Canadian schools concerned about Canadian teachers’ “anti-authoritarian manner”, which seemed to be against the Chinese approach, being more “text-based, subject-oriented, and teacher-centered” (p. 20). In Dunn and Wallace’s (2004) study conducted in a Singaporean-Australian transnational program, Australian lecturers felt frustrated when they found their preferred peer review approach to improve teaching was not favored by the local Singaporean teachers.

In their ethnographic study, Zhang and Heydon (2014) reported imbalanced power relations between Chinese and western-centric pedagogies and curricula. Chinese teachers in Zhang’s (2015) study commented that being in a Sino-Canadian educational setting put their beliefs at odds with students’ and school’s expectations of literacy education. They shared that Western content and ways of teaching seemed to be privileged in classroom and Chinese teachers’ teaching wisdom has been “marginalized” (p. 111).

With respect to students' perceptions toward teachers' pedagogies in transnational education, a preference for Canadian teachers' classes was identified (Zhang & Heydon, 2015). Student shared that they had more autonomy, less pressure, and more chances of interactive and cooperative learning in Canadian teachers' classrooms. Findings led Zhang (2015) to conclude that when Chinese and Canadian literacy teachers' teaching methods "clashed' in the contact zone", Chinese heritage methods of literacy learning seemed to "lose the battle" (p. 111).

The negative effects of these tensions have been reported. For example, the globalization processes of English and business-related literacies worked as an implicit agenda in marginalizing the Mandarin-related literacies and Chinese teaching methods in the researched transnational program (Zhang, 2015). In addition, the hybridity of local and transnational teaching approaches might bring inconsistent expectations and confusions to students in transnational programs (Leask, 2008).

2.3.2 The Lack of Local Responsiveness

It is argued that transnational curriculum should be both internationalized and localized (Leask, 2008). Most scholars supported transnational curriculum to be locally sensitive (e.g., Debowski, 2008; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Zhang, 2012), given the acknowledgement of the potential tensions raised between the local and global contexts. However, some transnational education programs remove specific content in the original curriculum to make sure they do not confuse transnational education students located in different contexts (Ziguras, 2008). For example, some cultural sensitive contents have been removed from teaching and learning materials (Debowski, 2008; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). As a result, some transnational curriculum is independent of local references. Being unified, rather than being transformed or localized, unchanged curricula often turned out to be inappropriate to the local contexts (Dunn & Wallace, 2008b).

Though it was advocated that transnational education should not be in favor of the global over the local (Robertson, 2001), Debowski (2008) contended that transnational program students had seldom been encouraged to explore local complexities in the implemented curriculum or in assessments. According to Huang (2008), the delivery of offshore

programs should not be a direct transfer of Western theories or ideas to a developing country. It instead should be “a process of dissonance, interaction and integration between different cultures, values, philosophies, and beliefs” (p. 63). The uniformity in curriculum delivery may cause a situation where curriculum providers insist on one set of values and undermine local cultural differences (Egege & Kutieleh, 2008).

Wang (2008) was aware that it was problematic to transplant Western theories into non-Western countries without taking local contexts into account. She highlighted the need for intercultural understanding, critical adaptation of Western ideas, and cultural sensitivity in transnational education. She specifically pointed out that developing countries (e.g., China) had pre-existing cultures and traditions that were different from Western assumptions. Therefore, she implied that there was a danger for the host countries to deliver imported courses based on the non-adaptive Western assumptions. She then expected curriculum providers not to act as “radical-change” agents, but as “cultural and knowledge brokers” and “flexible reflectors” in transnational education programs (p. 64).

With respect to teachers’ roles in diminishing the lack of local responsiveness, Leask (2008) revealed the importance of transnational education program teachers’ understanding of local cultures and proposed teachers to be intercultural learners and students to explore the ways and cultures of their own in the local contexts. Trahar (2015) described two transnational programs in Hong Kong, where teaching faculty consisted of British university teachers only. She conveyed her concern that not employing local teachers might cause students’ lack of local knowledge that British academics could not sufficiently provide. Chinese teachers in Zhang’s (2015) study believed that traditional Chinese philosophies could potentially shape students’ worldviews and ways of treating others in their future encounters in the global setting. They also considered students’ exposure to the Chinese languages and classic Chinese literature as necessary preparation for students’ further study abroad. However, foreigner teachers do not necessarily share the same cultural background knowledge with Chinese teachers or students. Debowski (2008) identified, there was a risk of poor teaching quality in transnational programs due to teachers’ limited insights into local contexts.

Dunn and Wallace (2008b) commented that the complexity of transnational education settings required an inclusive and intercultural communication across borders. To diminish the lack of local responsiveness in transnational education settings, Cheung (2012) advocated curriculum internationalization that brought together “cross-national and cross-cultural experiences and knowledge, and appreciating diversity and plurality across nations and societies” (p. 106). Clifford (2009) included internationalizing pedagogies into curriculum internationalization. She defined internationalization of the curriculum as “curricula, pedagogies and assessments that foster: understanding of global perspectives and how these intersect and interact with the local and the personal; intercultural capabilities in terms of actively engaging with other cultures; and responsible citizenship in terms of addressing differing value systems and subsequent actions” (p. 135).

2.3.3 Negotiating the Differences Between Local and Imported Curricula in Classrooms

Admitting tensions within transnational education contexts, Hicks and Jarrett (2008) proposed to move out of the colonial framework and to step into a two-way, reciprocal exchange between the home and host country teachers. Concurring with Hick and Jarrett, Dunn and Wallace (2008a) advocated the need to design and deliver transnational education curriculum with a localized and international content and teaching approaches without homogenization. They also recommended setting a liaison person who could take the role of connecting teachers across borders (Dunn & Wallace, 2008b).

Trying to balance the local and the imported pedagogies, Bjorning-Gyde, Doogan, and East (2008) challenged the use of a traditional western language teaching perspective in transnational higher education and promoted a “fusion model” of language teaching that combines Chinese and western pedagogies (p. 77). They noted that the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach was a dominant model for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) that concerned more about learner-centeredness, knowledge acquisition, and skills development. In contrast, the “Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC)” approach was more teacher-centered and more focused on knowledge transmission. They

identified culture clash brought by these two contrasting teaching approaches and combined merits of CLT and CHC to achieve more efficient teaching and learning in transnational higher education contexts.

In a British transnational school in Hong Kong, Trahar (2015) taught students in classrooms with fixed furnitures that she considered not assistant in students' collaborative activities. In addition, she encountered students' resistance to move and work with the unfamiliar others. She then looked into the local literature on Confucian heritage. By sharing with students her perspectives on the congruency between perspectives of social constructivism and Confucian beliefs that the students were more familiar with, as well as developing various strategies to encourage group activities, Trahar eventually engaged students' interactions in class.

In their transnational teaching experiences in Brazil, Crabtree and Sapp (2004) encountered "cultural and communication asynchrony" between local students and them (p. 121), which disfavored students' learning. Therefore, they negotiated the cross-cultural differences and adjusted themselves to the local culture, through sharing their own stories with students, assisting students' writing, and joining students' afterschool activities. Their efforts helped built rapport with the local students and made them eventually more attentive in classes.

In their study on a transnational school in Hong Kong, Bodycott and Walker (2000), as teacher-researchers, encountered difficulties in engaging students in critical discussions at the whole class level. In addition, the students were very reluctant to challenge others' opinions. However, Bodycott and Walker found that students responded more easily to "factual-recall questions or direct experience questions" (p. 85). Therefore, they introduced the "shared experience strategy" that included students' own previous experiences in classroom practices and found that the students "responded positively to personalized activities" (p. 85). The researchers' inclusion of students' own experiences led to the increase of students' English language produce and their confidence when discussing their personal experiences.

The existing literature also reported issues concerning the medium of instruction (MOI) in curriculum implementation in transnational education programs. For example, Pyvis (2008) indicated that the requirements of using the language of the home country as MOI were restrictive and impedimental to learning enhancement. In his study on transnational education in Mauritius, the requirement, courses to be delivered in English, was against the local multilingual practice and also against teachers' and students' linguistic preference and facility. He therefore implied that delivering curriculum in the language in which it was written did not guarantee the quality of curriculum implementation. In addition, when MOI was not students' first language, it unfavorably influenced the faithful delivery of knowledge (Debowski, 2005). Even with the help with a translator between MOI and the local language, transnational teaching was still challenged. In Debowski's study on a Sino-Australian MBA program in a university, Australian teachers delivered lectures to Chinese local students in English with the help of simultaneous translation. However, neither teaching nor learning was effective.

2.4 Transnational Educators' Professional Development

Despite the increasing number of transnational education teachers, professional development programs that specifically support and guide transnational educators are limited (Dunn & Wallace, 2006; Gribble & Ziguras, 2003). Most teachers in transnational schools learn by "trials and errors" (Ziguras, 2008, p. 51) or "just in time" (Keevers et al., 2004, p. 240). Smith (2009) considered transnational teaching as "an under-exploited territory for transformative professional development" (p. 119).

Within limited literature on transnational teachers' education, the Learning and Teaching Unit at the University of South Australia developed a framework for the professional development of transnational educators with associated resources and activities, such as induction materials and on-going structured workshops (Hicks & Jarrett, 2008). An online program was also created for teachers to work with reflective activities based on the analysis of their own teaching practices or their students' needs. Keevers et al.'s (2014) action research on professional development of transnational teaching team moved "beyond short-term, front-end induction workshops" and focused on "improving the

quality of teaching, learning and assessment practices in transnational teaching teams over an extended period of time” (p. 233). In their study, they identified the problematic reliance on time-consuming email communications between host and home institutions, thus suggested direct dialogues through remote communication (e.g., videoconferencing) that could build collegial relationships. They also pointed out the insufficiency of supervisor guidance and printed or online induction learning materials, thus suggested face-to-face workshops and structured programs.

2.5 Conclusion

There is a scarcity of literature on literacy curriculum in transnational education contexts (Zhang, 2012). Literature in this field only appears to be scattered and just emerging (Zhang & Heydon, 2015). Though existent literature on transnational curricula in higher education contexts is abundant, there is still a necessity to investigate the curriculum landscape in secondary transnational education programs (Zhang, 2015). Recent case studies, exceptions to the limited research in the area of Sino-Canadian transnational education, have been conducted at offshore Alberta and Ontario programs in South China, Macao, and Hong Kong (e.g., Zhang, 2012, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2015).

The reviewed literature concerns the nature, the development, and the status quo of transnational education programs in China. It illuminates issues around implemented curriculum in the transitional education contexts, such as the differences and tensions between the local and the imported teachers and their teaching practices, and the lack of local responsiveness of the transnational education curricula. The existing literature also enlightens teachers’ efforts to negotiate differences between the local and the imported curricula. In the next chapter, I elaborate on the theoretical tools of my study, consisting of various dimensions of curriculum and theories on multiliteracies and multimodality.

Chapter 3

3. Theoretical Framework

In this chapter, I introduce my theoretical framework that consists of theories on curriculum, multiliteracies, and multimodality. These theories illuminated my examination on the transnational literacy curricula in this study. I elaborate on some key constructs as they applied to my study. Curriculum theories provided me with different entries to look into curriculum in this Canadian offshore school and informed me of various dimensions of curriculum and how they would interact to shape the implemented curriculum. Theories on multiliteracies and multimodality offered me a broader and more creative view to investigate literacy-related events in the present study in respond to the changing landscape of literacy against the backdrop of the growing cultural and linguistic diversity and the increasing multiplicity of representation and communication forms. The deployed theoretical tools enabled me to examine the “social and culturally responsive curriculum” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 245) that could potentially connect literacy with the cultural and linguistic diversity in Canadian offshore schools in China.

3.1 Curriculum

There is no single curriculum as it operates at different levels (Doyle, 1992a; Eisner, 2002; Morris & Adamson, 2010). The range of curriculum planning extends from as broad as “decisions about the content, scope, and the aims of programs” (Eisner, 2002, p. 30), to as specific as decisions of dealing with issues in a particular course. Curriculum has been described in various dimensions. For example, Doyle (1992a, 1992b) suggested three dimensions of curriculum, namely institutional curriculum, programmatic curriculum, and classroom curriculum. Eisner (2002) suggested five dimensions of curriculum, namely, intended curriculum, operational curriculum, explicit curriculum, implicit curriculum, and null curriculum. Curriculum exists in different forms and it needs “not result in the creation of physical materials” (p. 32). It can be a paper document addressing the content, aims, and rationales of national programs. It can also be teachers’ ideas of specific activities planned for students in a particular course.

In this study, I use the concept of implemented curriculum (Hayden, 2006) to capture variations that take place when teachers are actualizing curriculum in classrooms. In the following, I explain key concepts of curriculum, namely intended curriculum, implemented curriculum, institutional curriculum, programmatic curriculum, lived curriculum, hidden curriculum, and null curriculum. Given the focus of this study, I elaborate on implemented curriculum at the end of this section.

3.1.1 Intended Curriculum

Intended curriculum is described as “an official plan” (p. 4) that indicates what decision makers want students to learn, how it is operated, and why (Morris & Adamson, 2010). In a similar way, Eisner (2002) suggested that intended curriculum prescribed the expectations regarding “aim, content, activities and sequence” (p. 32). It is the plan infused with curriculum planners’ own “orientations”, “interests”, and “assumptions” (Aoki, 1993, p. 258). Eisner (2002) pointed out that intended curriculum could be “inspected, critiqued, revised and transported” (p. 38) into different contexts. According to Eisner, curriculum decisions made at this level “do not exhaust the decisions that need to be made, nor are they adequate for operating programs within schools, but they do establish the directions and boundaries for other decisions” (p. 28). Eisner used a similar notion, “explicit curriculum” (p. 87), to refer to “an educational menu of sorts” (p. 88) that informed the public educational goals. These goals may “appear in school district curriculum guides and course planning materials that teachers are asked to prepare” (p. 88). Taken together, intended curriculum is the plan to guide districts, schools, and teachers, which spells out the expectations of what to be taught and how. However, the limitations of the notion of “intended curriculum” calls for supplemented descriptions, for example Doyle’s (1992a; 1992b) notions of “institutional curriculum” and “programmatic curriculum” (Zhang, 2012). According to Zhang, limitations of the notion of “intended curriculum” lie in the “impotency to distinguish whose intentions are inscribed in the curricular documents given the entangled traditional and current curricular discourses” and the “inability to differentiate whether it is the intentions or effects/reflections of certain curricular discourses that are prescribed in the policies” (p. 40).

3.1.2 Institutional Curriculum

Institutional curriculum exists in documents or “shared perception of schooling participants and relevant communities” (Doyle, 1992b, p. 487). It is an abstract and ideal curriculum that embodies “what is desirable in the society, what is to be valued sought after by members in the society” (Doyle, 1992a, p. 70). It defines schooling by providing “nonspecific” (p. 70) goals and expectations, rather than making particular decisions.

Doyle (1992b) pointed out that institutional curriculum had both internal and external functions. Internally, it “serves as a normative framework to define the school and manage the work of teachers” (p. 487). Externally, it is a social paradigm that operates “at the intersection of schooling and society to translate social expectations and values into school and conveys responsiveness of school to the society” (p. 487). It brings social expectations into schools (Doyle, 1992a) and spells out schooling work to the society. Similarly, Deng (2009) suggested that institutional curriculum was “represented” through curricular policy “at the intersection between schooling, culture, and society” (p. 589). As Zhang (2012) concluded, institutional curriculum reflected “desirable values and dispositions in the changed social, cultural, economic, and political order” (p. 40). Taken together, institutional curriculum could be an abstract idea or a policy regarding what, how, and why to be taught, in response to cultural and social changes.

3.1.3 Programmatic Curriculum

Programmatic curriculum is the embodiment of institutional curriculum that could be represented in “school curriculum documents and materials” for use in schools and classrooms (Deng, 2009, p. 589). It can be a subject, a program, or a course in a particular school. It can be viewed as a content elaboration on “aims of schooling and the activities of teaching” (Doyle, 1992a, p. 71) that “works in stable, deliberate ways at further incorporation of youth into the idea and institution of the school” (Westbury, 2003, n. p.). Programmatic curriculum is about explanation of the nature of content and “how it could be represented to children” (Doyle, 1992a, p. 71). Curriculum-making at this level “transforms” institutional curriculum into specific subjects, programs, or courses in a

school (Deng, 2009, p. 589). Programmatic curriculum is of great significance as it is to be experienced in classrooms (Doyle, 1992a).

3.1.4 Lived Curriculum

Synonymous with “experienced curriculum” (Doyle, 1992b, p. 492), “lived curriculum” covers the experiences of teachers and students in class. Lived curriculum “is not the curriculum as laid out in a plan, but a plan more or less lived out” (Aoki, 1993, p. 257), and it becomes different when it is “adapted” and “enacted” into different contexts by different individuals (Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1992, p. 428).

Addressing student differences, Aoki (1993) noted, “there are [were] many lived curricula, as many as there are self and students, and possibly more” (p. 258). Similarly, Eisner (2002) pointed out that “curriculum was never identical for different children” (p. 26). Aoki (1993) decried the traditional curriculum landscape where “curriculum-as-plan” (p. 257) was highly privileged. He realized that students’ uniqueness was neglected when it was spoken of in abstract language of curriculum-as-plan. Therefore, he called for the acknowledgement of lived curriculum and promoted a “retextured” (p. 258) landscape populated by the multiplicity of curricula. Aoki challenged the curriculum-as-plan landscape, in which linear “instrumentalism” was “woven into the fabric of curriculum work” (p. 259). He referred this landscape to the “C & I landscape”. He argued, “in C & I landscape, students become faceless others; in the lived curricula, teachers and students are face to face” (p. 265). By saying so, Aoki encouraged to recognize the multiplicity and uniqueness of students and to “give legitimacy to the wisdom held in lived stories of people” (p. 267). In a similar way, Eisner (2002) suggested, “the reality of a curriculum is determined by the quality experience that the child had in school” (p. 26).

3.1.5 Hidden Curriculum

Hidden curriculum refers to “the social roles, attitudes and values, which pupils learn that are not planned” (Morris & Adamson, 2010, p. 6). Apple (1971) further elaborated on the notion of “hidden curriculum”, originally brought up by Jackson (1968), and described it as the “norms and values that are [were] implicitly, but effectively, taught in schools and

that are [were] not usually talked about in teachers' statements of end or goals" (p. 27). Hidden curriculum is seldom publicly announced (Eisner, 2002); rather, students "dwell" (Apple, 1971, p. 39) in it and achieve it incidentally. Eisner (2002) used a similar notion of "implicit curriculum" (p. 87) to refer to hidden curriculum. He pointed out that implicit curriculum was "unintentional" (p. 93) and it was "manifested in more subtle ways" (p. 96). He considered implicit curriculum as the process of "how schools socialize children to a set of expectations" (p. 88). It is of great importance because it is "salient" (p. 97), "pervasive" (p. 88), "powerful", and "longer lasting" than what explicit curriculum intentionally provides. Similarly, Morris and Adamson (2010) pointed out that hidden curriculum would have very powerful influences on students, as it was conveyed to students through daily educational practices. As Eisner (2002) concluded, hidden curriculum was a "pervasive and ubiquitous set of expectations and rules that define[d] schooling as a culture system that itself teaches [taught] important lessons" (p. 106).

There are various examples of what hidden curriculum, as a culture, conveys to students, for example, initiatives, compliant behaviors, competitiveness, and punctuality (Eisner, 2002). Apple (1971) extensively elaborated on how the way in which science class was taught influenced students. He pointed out that science teaching in schools had been deprived of the assumption of that scientific knowledge was the valuable results of conflicts among scientific disagreements in history. Students were urged to accept the already settled facts. As a result, students might tacitly internalize a view of accepting without "skepticism" (Apple, 1971, p. 37), which could be generalized to the reinforcement of students' "quiescence" (p. 32) or their blind adjustment to society. In other words, the way school teaches tacitly and potently shapes the way students think and behave outside school in real world, because hidden curriculum is the atmosphere or culture with no physical existence, in which students are immersed for a long time. To quote Apple, "they are tacit so their potency is enlarged" (p. 29).

3.1.6 Null Curriculum

Null curriculum refers to "the content, skills and attitudes that we decide not to include in the curriculum" (Morris & Adamson, 2010, p. 6). According to Eisner (2002), "schools

have consequences not only by virtue of what they teach, but also by virtue of what they neglect to teach” (p. 103). Eisner exemplified economics, law, and vernacular art that schools excluded from curriculum. Such exclusions from the curriculum are out of various reasons, such as time or resource limit and political or religious concerns (Morris & Adamson, 2010). What not to teach in school might also be “largely bound by traditions” (Eisner, 2002, p. 106). As Eisner suggested, “the traditions create[d] expectations, they create[d] predictability, and they sustain[ed] stability” (p. 105) because what were taught “are[were] protected by the interests of teachers who view[ed] themselves as specialists in particular fields” (p. 105).

3.1.7 Implemented Curriculum

Curriculum cannot always be achieved as planned (Eisner, 2002) because plan is ideal but difficult to realize (Morris & Adamson, 2010). Hayden (2006) used the notion of “implemented curriculum” to address how curriculum was actualized in classrooms in international education contexts. Different users develop implemented curriculum in their own ways within particular contexts (Snyder et al., 1992). It is a set of events developed by teachers and students in classrooms (Doyle, 1992a) that entails what students learn in schools (Morris & Adamson, 2010). Implemented curriculum has also been depicted as “classroom curriculum” (Westbury, 2003, n. p.). Curriculum at this level does not exist in documents, but in “enacted events in which teachers and students jointly negotiate content and meaning” (Elbaz, 1983, as cited in Doyle, 1992b, p. 492). Eisner (2002) used a similar notion of “operational curriculum” (p. 32) to refer to the teacher-student and student-student events in the classroom settings. Implemented curriculum is with regard to the results and effects of dynamic interactions among the four curriculum commonplaces, namely, the subject matter, the learner, the teacher, and the milieu (Schwab, 1973). It “involves transforming the programmatic curriculum embodied in documents and materials into instructional events” (Deng, 2009, p. 589). It is a bridge gapping programmatic curriculum and “the experience, interests, and the capacities of students” (Westbury, 2000, as cited in Deng, 2009, p. 589). At this level of “pedagogical translation” (p. 594), teachers “interpret, modify, and transform the curriculum-as-offered

into curriculum-in-use” (p. 593), in order to create their “personalized versions of curriculum” (p. 593) in the contexts they are involved.

The present study addresses how teachers actualize literacy curricula in classrooms at the level of implemented curriculum, with specific attention to English and Mandarin literacy classes. I investigated how curriculum was played out at the level of implemented curriculum by observing literacy classes and interviewing literacy teachers. Teachers are in key roles in operationalizing curriculum. Doyle (1992a) decried the perspective of viewing teachers as instruments in producing achievements. Rather, he acknowledged teachers as agentic interpreters of curriculum. Similarly, Morris and Adamson (2010) posited that teachers should not be viewed as “technicians whose job is[was] only to deliver a pre-packaged curriculum” (p. 5). Rather, how teachers interpret curriculum into particular contexts is of great importance. Bearing the significance of educators’ role in curriculum implementation, I examined literacy teachers’ accommodation, interpretation, and implementation of curriculum in classroom practices within the transnational education program contexts.

3.2 Multiliteracies

“Multiliteracies” is a word encapsulated by the New London Group (1996). It describes a new form of literacy reshaped by historical, social, and cultural changes. The concept of multiliteracies is with regard to the growing cultural and linguistic multiplicity and diversity, intensified by globalization activities, such as immigration, multiculturalism, and global economic integration (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000a; Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). Globalization entails “the compression of the world” (Robertson, 1992, p. 9, as cited in Smith, 2008) that describes the sharp growth of connections among people, communications, and trades around the world. The multiliteracies scholars also attend to the multiplicity of representation and communication channels (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000a), influenced by new communications technologies (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008) and process of digitalization (Lotherington & Jenson, 2011). Digitalization describes that communication has moved away from the dominant channel of linguistics to multimodal forms (Pullen & Cole, 2010). Digital technologies, such as videos and the Internet, are

being incorporated into other modes in literacy practices (e.g., visual, text, and gesture). Within the multiliteracies framework, language is no longer the “carrier” (Kress, 2000a, p. 339) of all meanings; it instead becomes more interweaving with and alike other forms of meaning-making, such as visual, tactile, and gestural representation (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). The increasing cultural and linguistic multiplicity and diversity and the proliferation of meaning making forms requires a new and multimodal literacy (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). The lens of multiliteracies has the potential to transform both the “what” (i.e. the substances) and the “how” (i.e. the pragmatics) of nowadays’ literacy education.

Nowadays, literacy is “increasingly pluralized and multiplied in educational discourse” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 244). What the New London Group (1996) termed as “mere literacy” was a form of language-centric and rule-based literacy (p. 64). Mere literacy is restricted to a “formalized, monolingual, monocultural, and rule-governed forms of language” (The New London Group, 1996, p. 61) and is highly privileged in traditional education area. Such a view of language “must translate into a more or less authoritarian kind of pedagogy” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000a, p. 5). In contrast, the pedagogy of multiliteracies provides a different kind of pedagogy that supplements the traditional one (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000a). It acknowledges that forms of meaning making are dynamic and are made and remade by users. Multiliteracies suggests “an open-ended and flexible grammar” (p. 6) to help learners to describe language differences and diverse communication channels. With the attempt to create a new agenda of “social and culturally responsive curriculum” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 245), multiliteracies “sets out to stretch literacy beyond the constraints of official standard forms of written and spoken language” to connect literacy with nowadays’ cultural and linguistic diversity and multimodal representation and communication channels.

Given the study focus on literacy curricula and literacy-related practices in which teachers are inevitably involved in the offshore school, I adopted multiliteracies as my central theoretical framework. The multiliteracies lens enabled me to investigate whether and how multiliteracies and pedagogies of multiliteracies were reflected in teacher’s practices at SNBS. For example, I examined whether and how literacy teachers recognized the limits of “mere literacy” pedagogies so as to embrace the pedagogies of multiliteracies. I

also looked into whether and how literacy teachers acknowledged and recruited diverse representation and communication channels in classroom practices.

3.2.1 Necessities of Multiliteracies: Changes in Society and Literacy

The notion of “multiliteracies” and the pedagogies of multiliteracies emerged in response to the changing world. Changes in the three realms of working lives, public lives, and personal lives transformed the roles and responsibilities of schools (The New London Group, 1996). As working life has now turned into a more productive and diverse one, educators need to develop pedagogies that were aligned with the changes. Educators are duty-bounded to expose students with new forms of literacy and to equip them with new forms of skills that could enable them to critically engage with the changing working lives. Changes in this realm added urgency to the call for updated pedagogies, the pedagogies of multiliteracies, to promote “a culture of flexibility, creativity, innovation and initiative” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, p. 170).

As working lives are changing, so are the public lives. “Civic pluralism changes the nature of civic spaces” (The New London Group, 1996, p. 15), which denies the “old, monocultural, nationalist sense of ‘civic’” (p. 14). It informs schools to acknowledge local diversity and global connectedness as classroom resources so as to benefit all learners. As Cope and Kalantzis (2009a) suggested, “the old literacy is no longer adequate either to support decentralized governance along neoliberal lines or a civil society capable of making reasonable demands of its state” (p. 172). Changes in public lives acquired to embrace the pedagogy of multiliteracies that highlighted agentive nature of new citizens. Particularly, the acceleration of technology revolution changed “viewers” into “users”, “passive receptors” into “active creators”, and “transmission” into “user-selectivity” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 201).

As for changes in personal lives, people owned multiple identities in their “multilayered lifeworlds” nowadays (The New London Group, 1996, p. 17), so that individual differences needed to be acknowledged and negotiated, rather than being erased, in

literacy education. It is one of the goals of multiliteracies pedagogies to nurture people with “self-made” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 201) identities, who are comfortable with themselves and flexible enough to negotiate differences with others.

Multiliteracies expands the dimensions of literacy and literacy education, in attempts to provide updating, engaging, and “holistic” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, p. 167) literacy pedagogies. The lens of multiliteracies enabled me to examine whether literacy teachers in this Canadian offshore school negotiated the differences between languages (i.e., Mandarin and English), cultures (i.e., Chinese culture and Western culture), curricula (Chinese curriculum and Canadian curriculum), and student differences in curriculum implementation to adapt learners to the changing landscape of literacy and literacy education.

3.2.2 Substances of Multiliteracies: The Meaning Making Process

The multiliteracies framework considers knowledge and meaning as “historically and socially located and produced” and “designed’ artefacts” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 203). Design entails how people choose and make use of resources in a given occasion to realize their intention to make meaning (Kress & Jewitt, 2003).

3.2.2.1 The Process

The process of design includes practices of conceptualizing and practicing (Albers & Harste, 2007). In the language of multiliteracies, “design” is a process of dynamic transformation that consists of three elements, namely “the Designed” or “Available Design”, “Designing”, and “the Redesigned”. “The Designed” refers to the repertoire of resources learners bring into class that they can draw on, either from their prior experiences and personal lives or from unfamiliar contexts. “Designing” refers to the work performed on or with “the Designed”. It is a transformation process of decontextualizing and reshaping resources and then representing them afresh, which never involves simple replication. Addressing the importance of learners’ resource

repertoire, Gutiérrez (2008) challenged the limited scope the “Zone of Proximal Development” (ZPD) of Vygotsky’s (1978). Expanding the scope of ZPD, she added “the third place” (p. 148) into the process of “Designing”. “The third place” resides between school learning and out-of-school experiences. Compared with ZPD, in which learners cognitively developed with the scaffolding from experts, “the third place” is a culturally development zone where learners connected life experiences to school literacy learning with teacher’s help. “The Redesigned”, the outcome of “Designing”, entails the reproduced and transformed resources, which can also be turned into “the Designed” as the new resources of another dynamic Design circle. Through the process of Design, meaning-makers remake resources and reshape themselves (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). It is in this sense that learners are cultivated through the pedagogies of multiliteracies to be future social designers (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000a).

The notion of “Design” underscores variability and agency (or subjectivity) (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). The pedagogies of multiliteracies acknowledge the various forms of languages (i.e., variability) and encourage learners to bring relevant resources to actively complete a process of reproduction (i.e., agency/subjectivity). Unlike a transmission process that focuses on cultural stability and uniformity, pedagogies of multiliteracies by contrast drive a transformation process, where learners are designers who can transform “the Designed” to “the Redesigned” through the process of “Designing” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). The notion of “Design” helps to understand “relationships between modes, pedagogy, and context” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 252). Following the variability of “Design”, I focused myself on whether teachers acknowledged various representation and communication forms in class. From a perspective of agency, I looked into whether teachers considered teaching as a process of transmission or transformation and whether they considered students as passive recipients or active designers.

3.2.2.2 The Scope

The New London Group (1996) suggested six elements in meaning making process (i.e., the process of Design), namely, Linguistic Design, Visual Design, Audio Design, Gestural Design, Spatial Design, and Multimodal Design related to the first five elements.

These elements give learners a sense of “how patterns of meaning are the product of different contexts” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 205) and provide them with heuristic approaches through which learners can describe and apply Design variations. These six elements, constituting the notion of multimodality, together with the process of Design answer the question of “what” (i.e., the substances) is needed in today’s literacy education (The New London Group, 1996). Following the six elements of Design, I focused myself on whether literacy teachers represented to and communicated with students through various elements (i.e., modes) and whether they offered students various meaning making options in teaching practices.

3.2.3 Pragmatics of Multiliteracies: The Four Dimensions of Teaching Approaches

The pedagogy of multiliteracies is “characteristically transformative” because it builds on the notion of Design and acknowledges that meaning making is a transformation process (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, p. 184). To answer the question of “how” to apply the pedagogy of multiliteracies (i.e., the pragmatics), the New London Group (1996) posed a mix of four components in multiliteracies pedagogy, namely, Situated Practice, Overt Instruction, Critical Framing, and Transformed Practice. The four elements of multiliteracies pedagogy intend to supplement, rather than replace, the “existing practices of literacy teaching” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2000, p. 237). Each of the four components is an extension of some conventional pedagogic traditions.

Situated Practice sits in the tradition of progressivism (Kalantzis & Cope, 2000). It provides learners with immersion in experiences and utilization of “the Designed” based on their own backgrounds or based on the “less familiar Designs” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 206) with “contextual clues”. It is the immersion of an “acquisition-rich” environment (Jewitt, 2008, p. 248). It acknowledges the multiplicity of literacy practices and offers learners starting points through relevantly connecting “what to learn” and “what has been learned” (p. 248), calling for curriculum to recruit learners’ own previous, current, and out-of-school experiences as teaching and learning resources. Adopting a perspective of Situated Practice, I examined literacy teachers’ curriculum implementation

on whether and how teachers addressed students' personal life experiences, as well as whether and how teachers connected students' in-school literacy learnings with their out-of-school literacy practices.

Overt Instruction sits in the tradition of teacher-centered transmission pedagogy (Kalantzis & Cope, 2000). It is a scaffolding process that enables learners to understand intra-systematic relations of the domain being practiced through systematically, analytically, and consciously understanding (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). Overt instruction adds depth of learners' perspectives (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006; Kalantzis & Cope, 2000). It does not aim at empowering learners with stabilized grammar; it instead helps learners to develop their own metalanguages to make implicit meanings explicit, as well as to describe and interpret the Design elements (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008).

Critical Framing sits in the tradition of critical literacy (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008), encouraging learners to "denaturalise" (the New London Group, 1996, p. 34) what they have learned, take them out from the original contexts, and put them into broader cultural and social contexts. Teachers in this process develop students' abilities to critically view what they have mastered and to critique extra-systematic relations between the learned and the contexts. It adds breadth to learners' perspectives, expecting learners to critically examine contexts and purposes of meaning-making (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006; Kalantzis & Cope, 2000).

Transformed Practice can be seen as transcendence of various traditional strategies, in which learning transfers from one context to another or applying knowledge pragmatically (Kalantzis & Cope, 2000). It is the process of putting theories into practices from one context to other unfamiliar contexts, which encourages learners to recreate and "recontextualize" (Jewitt, 2008, p. 249) meanings for their own purposes. It is a process of adaptation, creation, and reproduction of a meaning into somewhere else. It also entails "intertextuality" (i.e., "the connections, influences, recreation of other texts and cross-references of history") (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 206) and "hybridity" (i.e., "a relationship between different designs of meaning" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000b, p. 255).

After one decade, Cope and Kalantzis (2009a) reframed these four components as knowledge processes of “experiencing”, “conceptualizing”, “analyzing”, and “applying”. After applying the original four dimensions of pedagogies into curriculum, Cope and Kalantzis translated the four teaching approaches into “the more immediately recognizable pedagogical acts” (p. 184) that described how knowledge was processed from learners’ perspectives. However, in data analysis, I specifically drew on the New London Group’s four components of the pedagogies of multiliteracies because my research focused on teachers’ curriculum implementation.

The four elements of multiliteracies pedagogy do not construct a linear, hierarchical, or sequential learning process. Rather, they are in complex and overlapping relations, in which the elements may occur simultaneously, repeatedly, or dominantly. The pedagogy of multiliteracies provides a broader range of learning processes (i.e., the four elements), weaves these different processes together (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a), and empowers literacy learning.

A pedagogy of multiliteracies allows for “alternative starting points”, “alternative forms of engagement”, divergent learning orientations, and “different modalities in meaning making” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, 188). It considers learners as differentiated agentic meaning makers and social future designers (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000a). It calls for reconsideration of relationship between school and out-of-school practices (Jewitt, 2008). In a similar vein, González, Moll, and Amanti (2005) brought up the concept of “funds of knowledge” based on a simple premise, that was, “people are competent, they have knowledge, and their life experiences have given them that knowledge” (p. ix). They advocated using the concept of “funds of knowledge” to provide teachers with avenues to connect classroom teaching to students’ lives. A pedagogy of multiliteracies is a culturally relevant pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995) that personalizes learners’ learning (Suominen, 2009, as cited in Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). Similarly, addressing learner differences, Heydon and Bainbridge (2015) noted “asset-oriented” (p. 334) as a distinctive nature of the pedagogy of multiliteracies. By saying “asset-oriented”, the authors indicated that the pedagogy of multiliteracies perceived students’ diversity as learning and teaching resources. It does not “pathologize” students’ assets as deficits, in

attempt to fix them into a standard “norm” (p. 335). Informed by the multiliteracies pedagogies, the notion of “funds of knowledge”, and the “asset-oriented” nature of multiliteracies pedagogies, I investigated teachers’ curriculum implementation on whether teachers acknowledged students’ “funds of knowledge” and whether they included students’ diversity as teaching resources in classroom practices.

3.3 Multimodality

Current discussions of multimodality stemmed from the concept of “multiliteracies” (Graham, Benson, & Fink, 2010). Works on multimodality (e.g., Kress, 2003) extended the notion of “multiliteracies” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). The notion of “multimodality” emerged in response to the occurring “textual shift” (Walsh, 2009, p. 1) in today’s communication contexts.

Traditionally, language, whether speech or writing, was regarded as the core of representation and communication (Kress & Jewitt, 2003). The notion of “multimodality” opens up a new entry to reconsider the definition of “language”. From a lens of multimodality, “language” is a multimodal phenomenon (Kress, 2000b).

The landscape of communication is now, and will be, undergoing revolution (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, 2009b; Kress, 2000b; Kress, 2010) that “can be typified by diversity and plurality” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 244). It is now the time to disturb the old scenario where linguistic forms were the core meaning making forms (Kress, 2000a). Traditional literacy teaching was using a static and competence-based pedagogy (Jewitt, 2008), with its exclusively focus on forms of written languages. However, forms of meaning making are becoming increasingly multimodal (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). This change diminishes the authority and dominance of written language (Kress, 2000b), but does not suggest that written language has been replaced by any other modes. Written language instead becomes more intertwined with and more alike other modes (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). In other words, the decreasing complexity of writing is compensated for by the increasing complexity of multimodality (Kress, 2003). Similarly, Jewitt (2008) proposed to consider literacy practices as “an intertextual web of contexts and media rather than isolated sets of skills and competences” (p. 255). She indicated, “because of the simultaneity of different

modes in everyday community and educational contexts, the decontextualized study of particular practices, assuming their universality and transfer, has clear limitations” (p. 255). The assumption underpinning multimodality is that the traditionally understood form of language is no longer the only carrier of meaning (Kress, 2000a). Humans instead use various means to represent and communicate because each mode offers different potentials. Against the assumption that language was the only fully articulated mode of expression (Kress, 2000b), Kress (2010) argued, “multimodality” was “the normal state of human communication” (p. 1). Within the framework of multimodality, all texts are multimodal and all representation and communication systems are multimodal (Kress, 2000b).

Multimodality considers the process of meaning making as the work of transformative design, in which the designers, given the agency, intentionally employ resources in specific configurations to realize their own purposes and to fulfill contextual requirements (Kress, 2000a). In this sense, multimodality can be considered as an “eclectic approach” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 246), because modes are made and remade throughout time by users based on their own interests, in response to the representative and communicative purposes. The perspective of multimodality enlightened my examination on how teachers chose modes and how they encouraged students to select modes based on their own interests and contextual requirements in literacy classes.

3.3.1 The Premise: Body Senses and Their Engagement with the World

The theories on multimodality were founded on and informed by social semiotics theories (Kress, 2010). Human bodies have a wide range of means to perceive and engage with the world, such as sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch (Kress, 2000b). Different means deliver different information to humans in their distinct ways respectively and collectively. Psychology theories refer synesthesia to the overlay of cognitive senses, while in multimodality theories, synesthesia refers to the process of mode switching to convey same or similar meanings (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b). Different human body

senses and the switchable semiotics made by these senses make synesthesia, thus multimodality, possible.

3.3.2 Materiality and Mode

Materiality refers to the materials used as the means to express meanings (Kress, 2000b), which is admitted and chosen by particular cultures (Kress & Jewitt, 2003). The qualities of materials are semiotic affordances (Albers & Harste, 2007; Kress & Jewitt, 2003). For example, water, the materiality, can be used to present the femininity in some cultures. The softness (i.e., the quality of water) make semiotic affordances in presenting the femininity. Materiality is of great importance because of its representational potentials and cultural valuations (Kress, 2000b).

A mode is a social semiotic (Stein, 2008). It works as a component to convey meanings on its own or as one part of a greater entity (Kress, 2010). Different modes offer different meaning-making potentials (Kress, Jewitt, Ogborn, & Tsatsarelis, 2001). It refers to means or a regularized set of resources of meaning making in representation and communication (Kress, 2000b; Kress & Jewitt, 2003). Different modes are realized through different semiotic resources, such as text, image, gaze, gesture, movement, music, speech, and sound-effect (Kress & Jewitt, 2003; Stein, 2008). Modes provide different approaches of representing and communicating, from which users can choose. “What it is possible to express and communicate easily” is referred to modal affordances (Jewitt, 2008, 247). Modes affect what meanings can be represented and how (Kress, 2000b), because meanings are made, distributed, perceived, and interpreted through multiple representation and communication modes (Kress & Jewitt, 2003). Modes, interwoven with each other simultaneously (Kress et al., 2001), contribute to the overall meaning of the multimodal ensemble in different ways. Enlightened by the notion of “mode”, I looked into how teachers orchestrated various modes to enable students’ literacy learning, what modes teachers preferred in literacy classes, and how students were encouraged to actively switch modes to express and communicate in literacy classes.

Mode has a nature of partiality (Kress, 2010; Kress & Jewitt, 2003). From a perspective of multimodality, all modes are treated equally and each mode plays a partial role in the whole (Jewitt, 2008). However, some modes may be fore-grounded in some contexts while some may be back-grounded (Kress & Jewitt, 2003). Besides partiality, mode has a nature of functional specialization (Kress, 2000b). Functional specialization refers to the special uses of a mode in a particular context (Kress & Jewitt, 2003). Kress and Jewitt exemplified functional specialization through mode selection in science textbooks. They commented that written texts served instructional functions while images conveyed central information.

Mode and materiality have a nature of subjectivity. Different selections of modes and materials open up new avenues for people to engage with the world in some ways, but at the same time close or make it more difficult in other ways (Kress, 2000b). When selected subjectively, modes and materials may not be fully developed or valued in a certain culture or context. As a result, those who are not familiar with or prefer such chosen modes or materials may not be favored.

3.3.3 Sign

Learning is a process of sign making (Jewitt, 2008). Signs are the fusions of meaning and form (Kress & Jewitt, 2003). In traditional semiotics theories, the relationship between form and meaning was considered as “arbitrary” (p. 10). In contrast, theories of social semiotics acknowledge the agency of sign-makers. People use available resources in specific socio-cultural contexts to realize the “signified (what is to be meant)” through “most apt signifier (that which is available to give realization to that which is to be meant)” (p. 10). Kress (2003) opposed to the arbitrariness of signifier-signified relationship. Rather, he considered the relationship as motivated. He denoted that the choice of a signifier (i.e., form) was made based on its aptness to express the signified (i.e. meaning). Following the idea of aptness in sign-making process, I examined on teachers’ sign-making process in literacy classes in terms of whether signifiers were chosen arbitrarily or chosen in response to “the interests of the sign maker and the

demands of the context” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 252). Particularly, I focused myself on whether teachers’ choices of modes favored their teaching and met the students’ needs.

There are two paradoxical natures of multimodality, namely parallelism and incommensurability (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, 2009b). On the parallelism side, the holistic and integrated characters of human body make synesthesia, thus multimodality, possible. Parallelism enables same things to be described in various ways. Traditional literacy practices, which was confined to monomodal approaches of written language, separated multiple modes. Therefore, only some, not all, of the learners who happen to favor the mode of texts could be well served. In contrast, multimodality acknowledges the parallelism of varied modes by giving them equal emphasis in meaning making process, in order to benefit all learners. On the incommensurability side, meaning represented through one mode is not the same as that if expressed in other modes. Therefore, incommensurability requires learners’ abilities of switching modes consciously, in order to completely present meanings and to achieve “more powerful learning” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, p. 181). The paradoxical mix of the two natures “is what makes addressing multimodality integral to the pedagogy of multiliteracies” (p. 180). Bearing these two natures in mind, I looked into whether literacy teachers addressed different modes and whether they encouraged learners to consciously switch modes to completely present meanings.

I adopted multimodality theories as a part of my theoretical tools because in most learning contexts, communication was enacted through interactions among various modes (Jewitt, 2002). In other word, learning happens through multiple modes (Kress et al., 2001). From a perspective of multimodality, I attended to a full range of modes used in communicative events (Jewitt, 2008) in literacy class practices. Generally, in this Canadian offshore school, I examined whether literacy teachers acknowledged and embraced the “trend” (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, p. 182) in the literacy and literacy education landscape from literacy to multiliteracies (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006).

In next chapter, I give a full description of the methodology, the pertaining ethical considerations, and limitations of this study.

Chapter 4

4. Methodology

My study is embedded in a SSHRC IDG project led by Dr. Zheng Zhang and Dr. Rachel Heydon. The original SSHRC project uses a multiple case design with ethnographic tools, namely observations, interviews, and document analysis. Its methods consist of a comprehensive analysis of curricular documents that underpinned two Canadian provinces' intended literacy curricula, interviews with Canadian and Chinese policy-makers who are involved in developing transnational literacy curricula, classroom observations, and multimodal methods to document the implemented curriculum and students' lived curriculum in varied settings.

My study employs a design of single case study (Ashley, 2012; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011) to investigate both Mandarin and English literacy teachers' curriculum implementation in the offshore program. I used ethnographic tools of class observations and teacher interviews to document the particulars and dynamics of the implemented curricula.

4.1 Case Study

A case study provides real examples in real world, thus offers readers a better understanding of abstract ideas or theories (Cohen et al., 2011). It concerns with vivid and thick descriptions that captures the “richness” of the events in a case, blending descriptions and analysis of these events (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 317). In addition, a major strength of case study is that it offers the opportunity to collect evidence from multiple sources, which helps researchers to have a better understanding of the case (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003). Multiple sources of data are not only a prerequisite for data triangulation, but also a must to conduct an in-depth investigation of the complexity of a study (Zhang, 2012). Case study design enables a researcher to investigate the complexity of a case in-depth through long-term immersing in or repeatedly visiting the case (Ashley, 2012).

Applying the method of case study in this research, I was able to obtain vivid and thick data from classroom observations and teachers' interviews when being immersed in the selected offshore school. It also enabled me to combine multiple sources of data, namely teachers' interviews and observational data, to achieve a better understanding of the complexity of the case.

In the following sections, I unpack data collection procedure and illustrate rationales of using each method.

4.2 Sites Selection

Following ethical approval, our research team selected two programs that were accredited by two Canadian provinces (i.e., New Brunswick and British Columbia) respectively in China. There were criteria for sites selection: 1) the province that accredited the program was playing an important role in the market of Canadian transnational education in China and, 2) this program's literacy curricula served as curricular counterpoints to Ontario and Alberta of which the principal investigator of the original SSHRC project has investigated in prior studies. With the help of experienced researchers who has expansive network with offshore Canadian programs and my own network within Canadian offshore schools in China, our research team gained easy access to these two programs. Site A (i.e., SNBS) was a Canadian offshore school located in south part of China accredited by the province of New Brunswick, while Site B located in east part of China accredited by the province of British Columbia. Between the two sites, I selected SNBS as the case to be investigated in my own research.

4.3 Participants

Following ethical approval, we contacted school principals via email (See Appendix B). The Canadian and Chinese principals received the letters of information via email (See Appendix C). The principals informed us of their interests in participating in the study via email. To recruit participants, the other research assistant and I delivered presentations about the project to all potential literacy teacher participants in English and Chinese respectively at SNBS. Teachers received the letters of information in both English and

Chinese via email or in person when our research team were in the field explaining the nature of the research (See Appendix D). The principals helped introduce potential literacy teacher participants to our research team. Interested teachers informed our research team of their interests via email or in person in participating in the study.

SNBS is a combination of a New Brunswick secondary transnational education program and a Mainland China private high school program located in a middle-sized city in south part of China. There are two streams of students registered in this school, namely local stream and foreign stream. Students registered in local stream only study the Chinese national secondary curricula toward Gaokao. Gaokao is the national higher education entrance examination in Mainland China. Students in this stream are not provided with any courses from New Brunswick. Students registered in foreign stream study both Chinese national secondary curricula and New Brunswick provincial curricula that lead to dual diplomas of the Chinese High School Diploma and the New Brunswick Secondary School Diploma after they pass both diploma tests, namely, Huikao and Second Language Competence Evaluation (SLCE)¹, in Grade 11. Program of foreign stream consist of subject area curricula (e. g., Mandarin, English, Maths, History, Geography, and Politics) from Mainland China that are taught in Mandarin Chinese by Chinese teachers, as well as subject area curricula (e.g. English Language, English Writing, Social Studies, and Second Language Competence²) transplanted from New Brunswick, Canada, being taught in English by foreign teachers. During our stay at SNBS, it was identified that all foreign teachers who were delivering classes were from countries other than Canada.

Four teachers at Site A participated in this study. Two foreign English literacy teachers, Ms. Taylor and Ms. Johns, and one Chinese Mandarin literacy teacher, Ms. Liu, granted us consents to conduct classroom observations and to interview them. Ms. Taylor and Ms. Johns were both instructing foreign stream classes. Ms. Taylor, from Algeria, was instructing a Grade 11 class in English Language and Second Language Competence. Ms.

¹ New Brunswick has a specific diploma test for students from the offshore schools run by this governing corporation. To ensure the school and the participants are not traceable, we change the name of the test.

² This course is designed for Grade 11 students for SLCE preparation. To ensure the school and the participants are not traceable, we change the course title.

Liu was a Chinese Mandarin literacy teacher, instructing both local and foreign stream Grade 11 classes in Mandarin. Ms. Liu and Ms. Taylor taught the same cohort of foreign stream students, who would about to take both Chinese and Canadian High School Diploma Tests (i.e., Huikao and SLCE) in June 2017. Ms. Johns, from the United States, was instructing a Grade 12 class in English Language and English Writing. Most of Ms. Johns' students had passed the two diploma tests in 2016. Ms. Cai, a Chinese English literacy teacher, only consented to be interviewed. She was instructing two local stream Grade 12 classes in English. Teacher participants' profiles are provided in Table 1. To ensure that the school's and the teachers' identities are not traceable, we use pseudonyms for all teacher participants.

Table 1

Teacher Participants' Profile

| Pseudonyms | Time Serving at SNBS | Nationality | Subject Taught | Education Background |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---|---|
| Ms. Taylor | 3 to 4 years | Algerian | Second Language Competence; English Language | MA in English language literature |
| Ms. Liu | 1 to 2 years | Chinese | Mandarin | BA and MA in a normal university |
| Ms. Johns | 2 years | American | English Writing English Language | BA in Theatre and English; PhD in Anthropology; TESOL certificate |
| Ms. Cai | 5 to 6 years | Chinese | English | BA in a normal university |

4.4 Data Collection

The nature of the complexity of case study and the multiplicity of data sources justified our employment of more than one data collection tools (Cohen et al., 2011) to achieve triangulation of data resources (Ashley, 2012). Therefore, we mainly used two

ethnographic tools in this study, namely classroom observations and interviews. In the following sections, I elaborate on how we employ each of the data collection approaches in field.

4.4.1 Classroom Observation

Observation potentially yields more “valid” and “authentic” data. Observation enabled us to “directly look at what is taking place in situ” in literacy classrooms (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 456). Observation enabled us, as investigators, to use our “five sense” (Angrosino, 2012, p. 165) to record non-verbal behaviors (Bailey, 1994, as cited in Cohen et al., 2011) in class. For example, we observed teacher’s preferences of mode selection and their various kinds of interactions with students. Observational data also served as questioning cues in teachers’ interviews afterwards. Lastly, it helped us, as researchers, to build more natural rapport with the observed participants as our observations took place over a period of time (Cohen et al., 2011).

Considering advantages of observational data from a practical perspective, observational data collection is a perfect match to my study that focuses on curriculum at the implementation level. To quote Eisner (2002),

The only way to appraise the quality of curriculum is to watch the teacher and the students in the class. One must attend to the attributes as they unfold, make judgment about the significance of the content as it is revealed, and appraise the quality of the resources as they are used. (p. 32)

Following Eisner’s suggestions, we employed classroom observations as one of the ethnographic tools, in order to depict a real picture of curriculum implementation through immersion in classrooms. As Eisner concluded, “there is[was] no substitute for direct observation in the classroom” (p. 34).

Our observations fell in the “naturalistic” and “unobtrusive” category. we observed “what happens ‘naturally’” and avoided “intervening in the action” of the observed participants (Angrosino, 2012, p. 166). Following Cohen et al. (2011), we conducted observations of the “facts” (p. 456), such as classroom settings (as related to literacy practices), before entering class for observations. In order to capture real pictures of curriculum

implementation of literacy teachers in a most natural and unobtrusive way, we sat in the back of the classrooms throughout the time and conducted observations on “events” (p. 456) (i.e., what took place during class) until saturation reached.

Observed classes were selected based upon both teacher participants’ consents and their class schedules. The length of classroom observations was about three weeks from March 13th, 2017 to March 31st, 2017. Based on the school’s compatible class schedules with the project timeline, we regularly observed three classes (but two cohorts), namely Ms. Taylor’s English Language classes and SLC classes of a Grade 11 class, Ms. Liu’s Mandarin classes of the same Grade 11 cohort, and Ms. Johns’ English Language classes and English Writing classes of a Grade 12 class. We in total observed 47 periods of classes, including 10 Mandarin classes and 36 English classes, which was a great number of observations. As Cohen et al. (2011) commented, “the greater the number of observations, the greater the reliability of the data might be, enabling emergent categories to be verified” (p. 468). I mainly conducted observations in Ms. Liu’s Mandarin literacy classes, while the other research assistant regularly observed Ms. Taylor’s and Ms. Johns’ English literacy classes.

Classroom observations concentrated on teachers’ teaching practices from several aspects. Informed by the theories on multiliteracies, we observed whether teachers considered teaching as mainly a process of transmitting literacy knowledge or providing learning opportunities that could expand students’ literacy learning options. For example, we observed whether and how teachers provided opportunities for students to connect their personal life experiences to classroom literacy learning, how they helped learners to develop their own metalanguages, and how they encouraged students critically applied knowledge into different contexts. Informed by the theories on multimodality, we observed teachers’ perceptions and recruitment of various semiotic resources. For example, we observed literacy teachers’ preferences on mode selection, whether resources provided by the school facilitated teachers’ mode selection, and whether the teachers enabled learners to choose modes to present meanings in response to their own intentions and the contexts requirements. We also looked at whether they considered students as passive recipients or active designers of new media and technologies.

4.4.1.1 Field Notes, Pictures, and Audio Recording

Besides field notes, we collected teachers' teaching materials, such as textbooks, handouts, and exercise books. We also took pictures of classroom layout and teachers' handwritings on whiteboard.

In addition, we audio recorded our observed literacy classes. Cohen et al. (2011) indicated that audio recording had the potential to balance observational events, through reducing not only the "partialness" to observe a single event, but also the "tendency" to only record frequent occurrences (p. 470). The other research assistant and I transcribed the audios of observed English and Mandarin literacy classes respectively. The transcripts enabled us to reach "completeness of data analysis and comprehensiveness of material" (p. 470). For example, we were able to playback audio recordings to scrutinize the data. During classroom observation, recording was paused when students, who haven't consented to participate in the research till the moment when recording was conducted, were talking.

4.4.2 Interviews

We employed interview as a data collection method as well, since observation is not a "stand-alone" (p. 165) data collection approach (Angrosino, 2012). Limited qualitative literature on literacy curriculum in secondary transnational education programs pointed to a necessity to conduct "qualitative interview" (Warren, 2002, p. 84) with teachers, which would offer insights into how both New Brunswick and Chinese literacy curricula were implemented by teachers in classrooms.

Traditionally, interview was seen as a "vessel-of-answer" model in which interviewer and interviewee had an "asymmetrical encounter" (Gubrium & Holstein, 2003, p. 30). In contrast, postmodern interview respondents are seen as co-constructing multiple versions of reality interactively with interviewers (Creswell, 2007; Gubrium & Holstein, 2003; Mishler, 1986). Bearing this in mind, we did not consider teacher participants as informants in interviews. Rather, we considered the interviews as "the democratization of opinion" to seek each participant's voices and opinions (Gubrium & Holstein, 2003, p. 22). In these interviews, we gave teacher participants plenty speaking time and freedom

to refuse answering our questions or to ask us questions, in order to give teachers space to express themselves. These interviews were enacted like teachers' story telling rather than questioning and answering between the interviewers and the interviewees.

We used semi-structured interviews in this study. The interview questions were designed and have been field-tested by the principal investigator of the original project in previous similar research. I revised the interview questions to better serve the purposes of the research focus of my MA thesis on the implemented curricula. The revised, ethically approved interview questions focused on teachers' views on implementing the transnational literacy curricula and their input about professional development for educators in the transnational education settings. Interview questions for teachers are provided in Appendix E.

The other research assistant and I interviewed the two foreign literacy teachers in English, namely Ms. Taylor and Ms. Johns. I interviewed the two Chinese literacy teachers in Mandarin Chinese, namely Ms. Liu and Ms. Cai. The length of the interviews varied from about 60 to 80 minutes. All interviews were conducted in sites that were mutually agreed upon between the teacher participants and us. Teachers' interviews concentrated on literacy teachers' curriculum actualization in terms of their perceptions and accommodations the curriculum in response to students' needs in the transnational education contexts.

We did not start to conduct teacher interviews until we had several periods of classroom observations and familiarized ourselves with the dynamics in the teachers' literacy classes. We did not observe Ms. Cai's classes, because during our stay at SNBS, she only instructed local stream students, who did not receive any courses from New Brunswick. Given the fact that Ms. Cai had served at SNBS for over 5 years and had prior experiences instructing foreign stream students, I interviewed her at the beginning of data collection period in order to gain a better understanding of the school climate and the status quo of the literacy curriculum of the school. Wherever applicable, we clarified emergent issues with certain teacher participants through phones or emails. Our research team took every possible chance to build rapport with teacher participants. Besides the main sources of data (i.e., observational data and interview data), we looked into a

standardized curriculum developed by the governing corporation of SNBS for English literacy teachers to use.

4.5 Data Analysis

I transcribed the records of Ms. Liu's classes and the interviews with Ms. Liu and Ms. Cai, which were all in Mandarin Chinese. The other research assistant transcribed the classroom records and interviews of both Ms. Taylor's and Ms. Johns', which were all in English. I used NVivo 11 in the course of data analysis and organization.

After data preparation and organization, I used constant comparison method (CCM) (Cohen et al., 2011) as my central method of data analysis to examine various ethnographic data that illuminated the implemented curriculum. Adopting CMM, I analyzed raw data, including observational data and interview data. During data collection and analysis, researchers would come up with ideas and thoughts about the coding and the relationships between codes, as well as emergent questions that they would like to further investigate (Arthur, Waring, Coe, & Hedges, 2012). Therefore, Arthur et al. suggested memo writing to help researchers remember these thoughts and questions. Following Glaser and Strauss's (1967) similar suggestions, I kept writing memos during analyzing data. For example, I wrote memos on the copy of the field notes and transcripts when I was reading them, in order to get "immediate illustration" of ideas (p. 108). Using CMM, I kept comparing the new data with existing data and categories to achieve a better fit between the categories and the data (Cohen et al., 2011).

Using NVivo 11 to assist data analysis, I generated categories that were deductively derived from theories on multiliteracies and multimodality, as well as the existent literature. For example, I generated the theme of "mere literacy", within which I included teachers' teaching practices of training students' rule-based literacy learning skills. There was also a theme of "the pedagogies of multiliteracies" under which I developed the subthemes of "Situated Practice", "Overt Instruction", "Critical Framing", and "Transformed Practice". I am aware that Cope and Kalantzis (2009a) reframed these four components as knowledge processes of "experiencing", "conceptualizing", "analyzing", and "applying". Given my research focus on teachers' curriculum implementation, I

specifically drew on New London Group's four components of the pedagogies of multiliteracies for data analysis. My generation of themes was also informed by the theories on multimodality. For example, I derived a subtheme of "teachers' mode selection" under the theme of "multimodality", within which I clustered observational data that reflected teachers' recruitment of various semiotic resources.

In addition, I inductively developed categories that emerged from raw data. For example, from both classroom observations and teachers' interviews, I spotted the school's dated facilities and limited supports for teachers to use technologies. Therefore, I added the inductive theme of "school's facilitation in technology use".

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Along with qualitative work, case study asserts an intensive interest in personal views and circumstances (Stake, 2005). Therefore, we bore in mind the ethical considerations to protect participants' confidentiality, privacy, and rights throughout the whole process of the research.

Our research team contacted the potential research school site after obtaining the approval from the research ethics boards. Ethical Approval Notice is provided in Appendix A. All participants' names were pseudonyms. The key to the relationship between the pseudonyms and participant' names and participants' profiles were stored separately at all times. Interviews have an ethical dimension since they involve interpersonal interactions and produce information about human conditions (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, we paid particular attention to ethical issues when conducting interviews throughout time. All interviews were conducted in either an empty classroom or the teacher's personal place that was mutually agreed upon between teacher participants and our research team. These places best protected the teachers from being detected as research participants. After the audios of interviews had been transcribed into written format, each participant was invited to review the transcripts and to offer clarification, elaboration, or any other feedback. Some participants reviewed the transcripts and sent them back to our research team via encrypted email with the help from our team regarding how to encrypt and decode emailed documents. Alternatively, some participants reviewed the print-out

transcripts and returned them back to the research team in person at a place upon which was mutually agreed. In the process of international travel between China and Canada, only our research team had access to the data that was stored in our personal encrypted laptops. We set up an OWL site to store the data. During data analysis, our personal computers have been encrypted at all times so that only our research team had access to the data.

4.7 Limitations

Though being able to provide a growing pool of data, case study has been considered having limited generalizability (Cohen et al., 2011; Yin, 2009). As Nisbet and Watt (1984, as cited in Cohen et al., 2011) remarked, case studies had the weakness of limited generalization, being less easy to do cross-checking, and being prone to observer's bias. However, Yin (2009) contended to differ "analytical generalization" from "statistical generalization" (p. 10). He commented, "a fatal flaw in doing case studies is[was] to conceive of statistical generalization as the method of generalizing the results of the case" (p. 31). Cases are not "sampling units" so that statistical generalization is not appropriate to evaluate the quality of a research design. Rather, the goals of an investigator in a case study are "to expand and generalize theories" (p. 10). In a similar vein, Flyvbjerg (2006) argued, "knowledge cannot be formally generalized does not mean that it cannot enter into the collective process of knowledge accumulation in a given field or in a society" (p. 229). He therefore suggested opening up instead of closing a case study.

With respect to limitations of interviews, participants' subjectivity posed challenges to achieve the "truth" value of interview responses (Gubrium & Holstein, 2003, p. 33). As Gurium and Holstein commented, the "neutrality" in interviews was not achievable (p. 33). With respect to limitations of observations, observer effects could still be considerable (Cohen et al., 2011) though we defined our observations as unobtrusive. Observations may carry the risk of bias. For example, participants' behaviors may not be representative if they change their behaviors when they know that they are being observed (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, & Zechmeister, 2012). We took every chance to build rapport with all participants during our stay in the research site, however, it was still

undeniable that our presence as inspectors might have exerted influences on what took place in the observed classrooms. Interview with Ms. Liu revealed students' changed behaviors because of our presence. Ms. Liu reported that the students did not use their personal cell phones during our observations as often as they did before our arrival, which she felt very delightful with. In her interview, Ms. Liu asked me not to remind students to act the way they usually did because she considered that personal cell phones distracted students from her lectures and added difficulties to her classroom management. In this sense, our presence changed the students', thus the teacher participants', behaviors, which might introduce bias into my study.

My asset of being bilingual and bicultural assists me in conducting this cross-lingual and cross-cultural research. However, translation still posted a methodological and ethical challenge to the credibility of translated data (Zhang, 2012). Therefore, the principal investigator, who is also bilingual and bicultural and has previously conducted similar transnational education research, was invited to crosscheck my English translation of the collected data in Mandarin Chinese.

Chapter 5

5. Findings

In this chapter, through the theoretical lens of curriculum, multiliteracies, and multimodality, I answer the research question regarding teachers' curriculum implementation, that is, "how were these curricula actualized at the level of implemented curriculum?" I present data collected from classroom observations of three literacy-related classes and interviews of two foreign literacy teachers and two Chinese literacy teachers. I only report findings about Ms. Cai's implemented curriculum through the interview data. In this chapter, the direct quote for Chinese teachers are translated from Mandarin Chinese.

Classroom observations focused on three classes (but two cohorts) where both Chinese and Canadian curricula were provided (See Table 2 for a list of observed classes). Students in these two classes studied both Chinese national secondary curriculum and New Brunswick provincial curriculum that would lead to dual diplomas of the Chinese High School Diploma and the New Brunswick Secondary School Diploma. I regularly conducted observations in Ms. Liu's Mandarin literacy classes, while the other research assistant regularly observed Ms. Taylor's and Ms. Johns' English literacy classes. Ms. Taylor and Ms. Liu were instructing the same Grade 11 cohort. Ms. Taylor was teaching courses of English Language and SLC. Ms. Liu was teaching the course of Mandarin. Ms. Johns was instructing a Grade 12 class on English Language and English Writing. Though Ms. Johns' students were all registered in the foreign stream, two of them were not going abroad for higher education but chose to stay in China. These two students did not participate in the study. Ms. Taylor did not demarcate the English Language class and the SLC class as shown in the school's class schedule. Instead, she blended the two courses according to her own plan, so did Ms. Johns. In this chapter, the observed classes of both Ms. Taylor's and Ms. Johns' are described as English literacy classes.

Table 2

Observed Classes

| Pseudonyms | Nationality | Observed Classes | Periods of the Observed Classes | Students in the Observed Classes |
|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--|---|
| Ms. Taylor | Algerian | English literacy | 16 | Students of the Grade 11 class (Anna, Ben, and Caroline) |
| Ms. Liu | Chinese | Mandarin | 11 | Students of the Grade 11 class (Anna, Ben, and Caroline) |
| Ms. Johns | American | English literacy | 20 | Four students of the Grade 12 class (Elizabeth, Joyce, Mark, and Susan) |

Note. One period lasts for 40 minutes.

5.1 Limited Interaction between the Two Curricula

At SNBS, Chinese English teachers, who instructed both local and foreign stream students on English, and all foreign teachers worked in the same office of the English Department. Only one English teacher from China worked in a different office as she was also from the administration department. Other Chinese teachers instructing other Chinese courses worked in different offices. Though SNBS provided its Canadian offshore students with both Chinese and Canadian curricula, both Chinese and Canadian teachers reported limited interactions between the two sides. Teachers shared that there were interactions between foreign teachers and Chinese teachers who taught English. However, there was no communication between foreign teachers and Chinese teachers who taught other subjects, including Mandarin subject. Ms. Liu shared that she did not communicate with foreign teachers, neither did she discuss with foreign teachers on class planning. Similarly, Ms. Taylor said, “we don’t meet the teachers [Chinese teachers who didn’t teach English subject] and we don’t talk about them”.

However, interview data revealed the intention of the governing corporation of SNBS to combine Chinese English curriculum and Canadian English Curriculum. The governing corporation developed its own standardized English curriculum that included expectations from the Chinese high school English curriculum and the New Brunswick secondary school English Curriculum. In addition, the corporation-developed curriculum specifically assigned resources for English literacy teachers to use.

Despite the governing corporation's intention to combine the two English curricula, English literacy teachers did not seem to follow this standardized curriculum in their curriculum implementation. For example, Ms. Taylor commented that the two English curricula were "quite separated". There was no observational data on Chinese English teachers' classroom practices. However, based on the interview data with Ms. Cai, the Chinese English Curriculum and Canadian English Curriculum ran as parallels at the implementation level. To quote Ms. Cai,

Maybe we work on extra-curricular activities together, but our curricula [Chinese English curriculum and Canadian English curriculum] are separated. They [foreign English teachers] are using their own evaluation system, while we [Chinese English teachers] are using our own.

Foreign English literacy teachers at SNBS reported that they did not follow the standardized curriculum in classroom practices for various reasons. Ms. Taylor commented that this standardized curriculum was not "thought through", and she did not know "the politics behind it". Ms. Johns considered it "confusing", and she felt "irritating" when being exposed to the complex composition of the curriculum. To quote Ms. Johns, "We were just given this late last year and said this is the real curriculum ... Which one is it?". Regarding the assigned teaching materials in the standardized curriculum, Ms. Johns commented that those resources did not meet the students' needs. She could find "other books that are[were] much more useful". Accordingly, she would "take an exercise out of that book [one of the assigned materials]" and incorporate resources that she found more helpful for students to use in her classes. For example, she introduced "much better" materials than the assigned ones for students to write "a research essay", which she deemed helpful for them in higher education.

In addition, Ms. Johns shared in her interview that teachers' implementation of this

standardized curriculum was not highly supervised. She was told to “do what you want”. She celebrated the lax supervision from the top that freed her to individualize her own curriculum to cope with her students’ differentiated English proficiency levels. At the same time, Ms. Johns communicated, “I’ve had to do that [not to follow the standardized curriculum] because of the different levels [of students’ English abilities]”.

In addition, Ms. Taylor shared that she would not implement it because the high-rate employee “turnover” of foreign teacher faculty made it difficult for the newcomer teachers to make “follow-up” teaching practices. Rather than following the corporation-developed curriculum, Ms. Taylor shared that she would focus on students’ needs. Similarly, Ms. Johns shared her previous experience of teaching in another Canadian offshore school that was governed by the same corporation of SNBS. She was told to stick to use the given materials and to focus on teaching her students grammar. However, Ms. Johns shared, “I thought, well, I’m only going to be here for 3 weeks, so I’m going to do what I want, so I did a lot of speaking, and I did not focus on grammar”. Ms. Johns chose to focus on what she deemed important rather than following the prescribed curriculum because of her short stay in that school.

Taken together, at the level of programmatic curriculum, only the English curricula from the Chinese and Canadian public school systems were connected at SNBS. However, at the implemented level, neither interview data or observational data related English literacy teachers’ endeavor to connect the two curricula, though the Chinese and Canadian curricula seemed to be integrated at SNBS as a dual-diploma program. There was no data on connections between Chinese and Canadian curricula of other subjects other than English.

5.2 Teachers’ Practices Reflecting the Pedagogies of Multiliteracies

Classroom observations revealed teachers’ teaching practices that reflected different angles of the pedagogies of multiliteracies, particularly Situated Practice and Overt Instruction. The three vignettes below are representative. Ms. Liu’s class of learning

“Interesting Translation” illustrates her efforts to connect inside-outside literacy, which provides students with opportunities to connect their real-life experiences with their textbooks. The word game in Ms. Taylor’s class and the role-play presentations in Ms. Johns’ class showcase the components of Situated Practice and Overt Instruction of the pedagogies of multiliteracies.

Vignette 1: Ms. Liu’s Mandarin Class of Learning “Interesting Translation”

In this class, Ms. Liu teaches the article of “Interesting Translation (有趣的语言翻译)”. Ms. Liu posts her slides of this lesson on Smart Board through the projector. Anna and Ben present and sit in the first row as usual. Ms. Liu opens this class by introducing the well-known three principles³ in English-Chinese translation shown in the textbook, which is being faithful, fluent, and aesthetic (信、达、雅). Afterwards, Ms. Liu does not stick to the textbook but shares with the students some out-of-textbook stories in her slides instead. She introduces several interesting stories that she collected ahead of this class regarding the mistakes made in English-Chinese translation. For example, she posts the English sentence of “When I told my mom I won’t be home all night, she had a cow!” and its incorrect, “literal” translation of the idiom “to have a cow” in her slides. Then she discusses with the students on the correct translation (See Figure 1). Students are listening attentively and are fully engaged in conversations with Ms. Liu. Ms. Liu then shares with students some challenges in translation, followed by English-Chinese translation exercises on some classic idioms and proverbs. For example, she shows in her slides the proverb of “As light as a feather (轻如鸿毛)” and asks students to think of the equivalent idiom in Chinese before she reveals the answer (See Figure 2). After showing students some English translations of classic Chinese novels and popular films, Ms. Liu guides students to go over the translation examples given in their textbooks. Examples in the textbook are also strongly connected to students’ daily life so that both students are very attentive and interested. Before class ends, Ms. Liu shows some sentences in classical Chinese that they had learnt and asks students to translate into contemporary Mandarin Chinese. Students look engaged and are eager to translate these sentences.

³ The three principles in translation were developed by Fu Yan, a famous Chinese translator in the 20th century.



Figure 1: Slides from Ms. Liu's Slides: An Interesting Mistake Made in Translation.



Figure 2: Slides from Ms. Liu's Slides: Translations of Classic Chinese Idioms and Proverbs.

In this class, Ms. Liu spent most time sharing out-of-textbook stories with students that were meaningfully connected to students' daily life. For example, Ms. Liu shared with students the story of how Chinese translation (i.e., “可口可乐”) of the beverage, “Coca

Cola”, was developed and accepted in China. Also, Ms. Liu engaged students in looking at the translations of classic Chinese novels, such as “Romance of the Three Kingdoms (三国演义)” and “Dream of the Red Chamber (红楼梦)”, and popular Chinese films, such as “Flirting Scholar (唐伯虎点秋香)”. When discussing on these topics that they were familiar with, students showed great interests and gave full attention. They sat with their bodies leaning forward, raised their hands to share ideas, and laughed together.

When talking about connections between inside- and outside-school literacy, Ms. Liu confirmed that she sometimes brought out-of-school information into classroom and took students’ interests into account when planning classes. However, observations of Ms. Liu’s classes reflected discernible but limited connections between inside- and outside-school literacy, which echoed Ms. Taylor’s comments. Ms. Taylor communicated that the school’s supervision on students gave them little time to “discover something beyond academic”. She said, “They’re not exposed to anything beyond these walls for most of the time, so they’re very, very innocent.”

Vignette 2: Ms. Taylor’s Word Game of Learning Describing People’s Appearances

Today, Ms. Taylor teaches the students how to describe people’s physical appearances. Both students (i.e., Anna and Ben) sit in the first row as usual. She provides English-Chinese picture dictionaries for each student to look up descriptive words when describing people’s looks. There are English and the equivalent Mandarin words in this dictionary, as well as colorful images relating to these words. Ms. Taylor first guides students to go over some of the words with simple oral explanations and body gestures. For example, Ms. Taylor explains “bangs” as “when you cut your hair to cover only your forehead”. When looking at the word “beard”, Ms. Taylor points to her chin and explains, “facial hair”. After explaining some words in the dictionary, Ms. Taylor guides the students to play a word game. She gives one minute to each student to draw a character. Then each of the two students take turns to describe their drawings to the other what his or her own character looks like. The other student draws on the whiteboard according to the descriptions. They then compare the two drawings.

Anna’s drawing and Ben’s drawing from Anna’s descriptions are presented (See Figure 3). The conversation below showcases how Ms. Taylor overtly instructs students on describing people’s appearances.

Anna: He has a big face...he has a very big eyebrow...and small eyes, and an ugly nose. There are many small points (Ben is listening to Anna’s description attentively and drawing on whiteboard).

Ms. Taylor: Freckles.

Anna: Ya, freckles on his face. And he has very long mouth, and very sharp teeth, and he has two teeth out of his mouth.

Ms. Taylor: Like a vampire?

Anna: Ya, two long sharp teeth, and he has a neck...average neck, and he has a scare.

Ms. Taylor: Scales? Like a fish?

Anna: No, someone fight him.

Ms. Taylor: Oh, he has a scar.

Anna: Yes, scar.

Ms. Taylor: That's going to be helpful for the story. When you get injured and then your skin heals, but you can still see (Ms. Taylor explains the word "scar" to Ben so he can draw. She points to her arm and Anna points to her head where they have scars).

Anna: Ya, he has a scar on his neck. And he has long curl hair.

Ms. Taylor: Long curly hair.

Anna: Oh, curly hair...and he wears a coat...a long-sleeved coat...a jacket...He wears shorts (Ms. Taylor demonstrates Ben the word "shorts" by drawing a line across her thigh).

Anna: And he only has one leg.

Ms. Taylor: Wow, that's a very good character. I have so many questions.

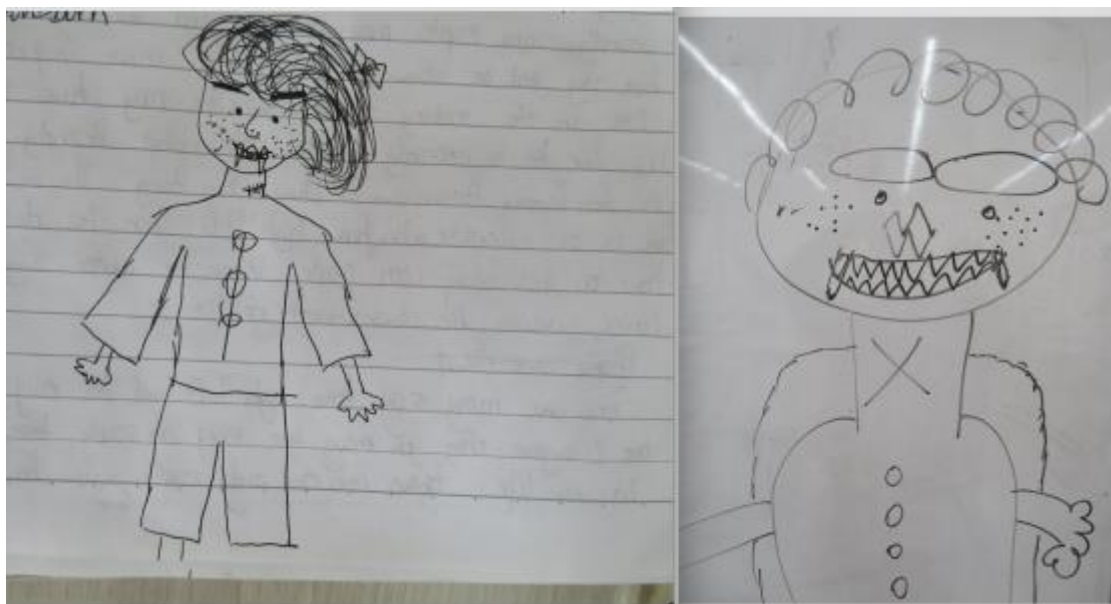


Figure 3: Anna's Drawing (left) and Ben's Drawing from Anna's Descriptions (right).

From what we observed, Ms. Taylor's word game filled the class with excitement and happiness. In her interview, Ms. Taylor shared that she only had a few students and she was close enough to them. When specifically asked about what was being taught in her

English literacy curriculum, she responded, “I would focus more on everyday language, and being able to read everyday things, and talk about everyday life...like things are very daily”. In this class, Ms. Taylor put her class into a daily life context that each student has experienced. By doing so, Ms. Taylor offered students chances to connect their daily life experiences with what they learnt in the books. When students were describing and drawing, Ms. Taylor overtly provided explanation and correction to assist students’ learning. In addition, Ms. Taylor provided students with chances to express and communicate through channels of speaking and drawing.

Ms. Taylor spoke several languages, including Mandarin Chinese. As we observed, Ms. Taylor often used Mandarin in her class to communicate with students and to clarify her lectures. For example, when introducing unfamiliar words, she sometimes explained the words in Chinese, asked students to say them in Chinese, and encouraged students to discuss and to explain to each other in Chinese. She also used the dictionary application on her personal cellphone to translate between English and Chinese and show to her students, in order to assure students’ understanding of the words. In her interview, Ms. Taylor acknowledged the importance of connecting the first language to foreign language in language learning. To quote Ms. Taylor,

I had to study foreign languages and I know how slow it is and how frustrating it is, and I know that to relate it to your mother language is not a sin. So, I tend to use Chinese, because I found it helpful personally, and I’m sure it would help somebody in the classroom.

In her classes, Ms. Taylor recruited students’ own knowledge, the knowledge in their first language, to scaffold students’ literacy learning. Vignette 3 represents how Situated Practice and Overt Instruction are reflected in Ms. Johns’ class.

Vignette 3: Students’ Role-play Presentations in Ms. Johns’ English Literacy Class

In earlier classes, Ms. Johns discussed with students about how to state choices, how to employ intonations to express emotional meanings, and how to use comparative sentences to express preference. She assigned five contexts to students, expecting them to create conversations and role play within these contexts in the next day. She reminded students to incorporate what they had learnt about comparative sentences into role-play presentations by overtly giving example sentences. For example, she said, “You ask questions... ‘I would rather not do this’, ‘I would prefer to do that’... And remember the focus is on using...and you can also throw in some comparative structures, ‘I think Japan is a much more interesting place than x; I prefer to go to Japan’.” She also expected

students to fuse what they had learnt about choice statements and intonation into the activity. Today, Ms. Johns creates a “stage” with three chairs and one table for the presentations (See Figure 4). Ms. Johns reminds the students to use the comparative sentences and intonation and also talk about preferences in their presentations. The students take turns to present. The presented roles include a couple and a marriage counsellor, two customers and a travel agent, two students and a course registration counsellor, and two customers and a bank representative, which seem all strongly

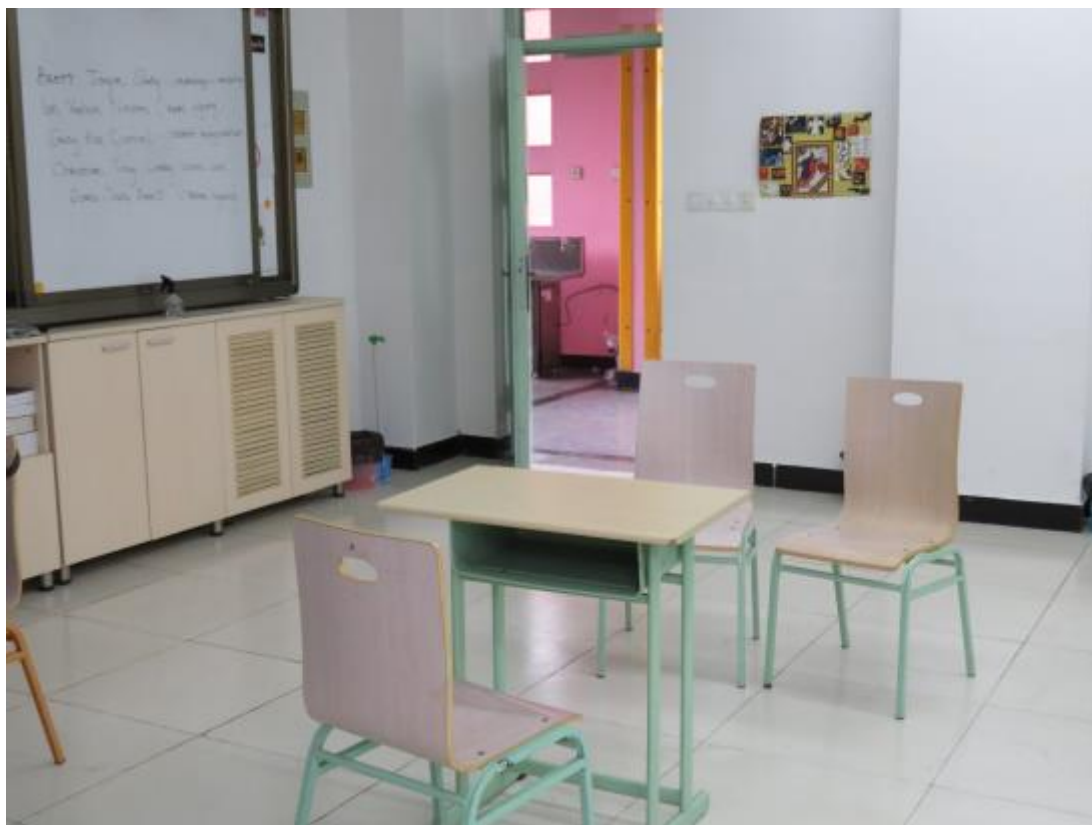


Figure 4: Ms. Johns’ Staging for Role-play.

connected to students’ daily life. Ms. Johns cuts in to help when she identifies difficulties students meet. After each show, Ms. Johns gives comments and suggestions on their presentations regarding their use of comparative sentences in articulating their preferences.

In these classes, Ms. Johns provided students with familiar daily life scenarios to facilitate students’ literacy learning. She also explicitly assisted students in acquiring targeted knowledge (e.g., comparative sentence) through overtly exemplifying sentences that students could apply.

Observational data related that teachers’ classroom practices reflected the Situated Practice and Overt Instruction components of the multiliteracies pedagogies, but with few

data about the Critical Framing or Transformed Practice components.

5.3 Expectations of Standardized Tests Mediated Teachers' Curriculum Implementation

Observational data in test-oriented classes revealed how expectations of standardized literacy tests mediated both English and Mandarin teachers' teaching practices. For example, some of Ms. Liu's classes pertaining to standardized tests showcased her pedagogies of "mere literacy" (The New London Group, 1996, p. 64). Vignette 4 is representative when Ms. Liu employed a "duck-feeding" teaching approach.

Vignette 4: Ms. Liu's Mandarin Classes of Analyzing a Test Paper

Last week, the students finished their mid-term test. In this class, Ms. Liu plans to analyze the test paper. She goes over all the exercises one by one by giving simple explanations and the standard answers to the students. For example, one exercise requires students to "appreciate and analyze (赏析)" one sentence of a classic Chinese poem. Ms. Liu tells the students that to appreciate and analyze a classical Chinese poem means to translate the texts from classical Chinese to contemporary Mandarin Chinese. She then reads the translation of the poem from the answer sheet to the students. She repeats the answer several times for students to copy into their test papers. In another exercise of reading comprehension of a contemporary article, Ms. Liu also reads the answers and awaits the students to copy what she reads into their test papers.

Similarly, in some other classes of Ms. Liu's, I observed several times when she posted answers in her slides for students to copy. For example, I observed one class when Ms. Liu was teaching a classic work in Chinese literature, Zhuang Zi's "A Carefree Excursion (逍遥游)". She spent some time on addressing the linguistic components and asking students to translate the classical Chinese into contemporary Mandarin Chinese. Afterwards, she posted some questions in her slides regarding the comprehension of this article and required students to write down the answers shown in the slides in their textbooks. Ms. Liu's teaching practices focused more on finding the right answers and were test-oriented. Some articles, such as "A Carefree Excursion (逍遥游)", would be tested in the standardized test, Huikao (i.e., the provincial high school diploma test in mainland China), which the students would take in June 2017. Therefore, students were expected to remember the translations of these articles from classical Chinese to

contemporary Mandarin Chinese, in order to answer correctly in the test. Based on our observations in Ms. Liu's classes, her teaching practices showcased the contradiction between her efforts to bring out-of-school resources into class and her literacy pedagogies that were more focused on knowledge transmission and decontextualized skills training.

In her interview, Ms. Liu shared that it was a pity that sometimes she was unable to fully engage students to read between the lines. She admitted that she placed much attention to teaching "the basic knowledge" (e.g., linguistic components). As we observed, she sometimes asked students to answer questions pretending that they were taking a test. For example, she said, "Think of this question as if it were given in a test". In the interview, I asked her whether the reason that she could not address the in-depth meanings of the articles was because she had to meet the requirements of standardized tests. She admitted so and lamented the pressure incurred by the standardized test of Huikao. Ms. Liu shared one example when she was teaching a classic Chinese article, "A Letter to the Majesty (陈情表)". This article was a letter from the author to the emperor, in which the author showed his dilemma of choosing between the loyalty to the emperor and the filial piety to his grandmother. Ms. Liu said she was unable to fully deliver the in-depth emotional values of this article. Instead, she put more weight on instructing students how to correctly answer questions when they were doing tests. She pitifully said, "But it is impossible if you don't tell them [how to take tests]", because foreign stream students at SNBS had to take Huikao to obtain the Chinese High School Diploma.

On the Canadian side, our observations in Ms. Taylor and Ms. Johns' classes showed that the English standardized tests (e.g., SLCE) had less influence upon their teaching practices than the Chinese standardized tests upon Chinese literacy teachers. According to Ms. Johns, most of her students passed SLCE last year. That was why she did not have to teach for tests during our observations. Ms. Johns shared in her interview that her classes in the last year before SLCE were more geared towards the test. She shared, "I was told 'Your job is to get them ready to take that test'." She expressed her appreciation of the free rein after the test to meet the students' needs, particularly their literacy abilities development for higher education. To quote Ms. Johns,

Now I feel like, they have to write a research paper, so they really have to get the format of an essay; they have to know citations and things like that...because I want them to get as comfortable as they can before they go.

Observational data on Ms. Taylor's teaching practices indicated that her curriculum implementation was not highly geared toward or bounded by the standardized tests. In addition, interview data revealed her limited knowledge about the international standardized test that her students were going to take (i.e., IELTS), given her response to our interview questions about IELTS.

Besides the Chinese and the Canadian standardized tests of Huikao and SLCE, foreign stream students in SNBS needed to take standardized tests at the international level, such as IELTS, to gain access to universities abroad. In her interview, Ms. Johns shared, "I just think[thought] that the whole method of teaching IELTS is[was] detrimental here ... It's a trick to pass a test, and I keep[kept] telling them, 'That's not going to help you in college'". Ms. Johns interrogated the teaching-to-test approach to IELTS preparation. She deemed this teaching method impractical because students were merely learning testing techniques instead of learning for future development.

Observational data in Ms. Liu's classes and interview data with her revealed her students' inclination toward test-oriented teaching. Ms. Liu's test-oriented teaching model did not seem to disfavor the students. Rather, students seemed familiar to this teaching approach and accustomed themselves toward it. For example, in some classes when Ms. Liu was analyzing the exercises, students frequently asked Ms. Liu which were the correct answers in multiple choice questions and why they only got certain grades, which reflected their major concerns on correct answers and good test grades. Ms. Liu shared in the interview that she regretted showing students the document of "The Guideline of Mandarin Diploma Test of 2017" for Huikao, because afterwards students only showed interests to learn what would be tested.

Similarly, in her interview, Ms. Johns shared her worries about the consequences of students' inclination towards test-oriented teaching at the international level, that was, IELTS. To quote Ms. Johns, "They're very test-oriented ... some of them have gotten worse ... because they're just learning tricks and they're not learning...they lose their

facility to speak”.

Taken together, the test-oriented pedagogies in Ms. Liu’s Mandarin classes and Ms. Johns’ celebration of the post-test autonomy indicated that standardized tests potentially mediated literacy teachers’ curriculum implementation at SNBS.

5.4 Teachers’ Recruitment of Semiotic Resources in Curriculum Implementation

Observational data revealed teachers’ recruitment of various semiotic resources when they actualized literacy curriculum. Vignette 5 presents how Ms. Taylor employs visual resources to assist students’ understanding of a story.

Vignette 5: Ms. Taylor’s English Literacy Class of Reading “Anne of Green Gables”

Today, Ms. Taylor is going to start the story of “Anne of Green Gables”. She hands each student a book. She starts by encouraging students to look at the picture on the front cover, to discuss about what they see in the picture, and to predict the story. The students give some guesses regarding the age, location, previous experiences, and the mood of the girl in the cover page picture. Ms. Taylor then helps the students to read through the first page of the story. After reading, she reminds students to visualize what they have read. She says, “Okay, so what happened in Page 1? Do you have a picture? Do you have an image in your head? Do you have a video playing when you’re reading? What did you see? Because if you don’t play the video you don’t remember anything. It’s just words. It’s just black on white. It doesn’t mean anything. So, what did you see? How many people are there?”



Figure 5: Ms. Taylor’s Whiteboard Drawing to Visualize the Story.

When she read for the second time, Ms. Taylor reemphasized to visualize the story. She said, “Make sure that you imagine what is happening. Play the movie. Play the video in your head.” After reading the first page, Ms. Taylor drew a picture on the whiteboard according to students’ descriptions to help visualize the story that they have read so far (See Figure 5). Afterwards, Ms. Taylor guided the students to read the following pages, discussed the story with them to help them understand, and finished the exercises in the book. When she summarized their reading strategies before class ended, she showed a handout of “Reading Strategies” to students. There were five reading strategies (i.e., to predict, to question, to clarify, to visualize, and to summarize) in the pages with respective text explanations and images that visualized the strategies. After explaining each strategy to the students, she handed out a copy of the handout to each student for them to read independently. Ms. Taylor then prompted the students to share their own descriptions of each skill they read and said she would post the handout on the wall afterwards.

In this class, Ms. Taylor employed various visual resources to assist students' understanding, such as illustrations in the books, her own drawings on the whiteboard, and images printed off in the handouts. Though she commented in her interview that visual clues helped focus younger students in class but not necessarily helpful for her teenager students, observational data in Ms. Taylor's classes showed that one of her preferred modes to convey meanings to and communicated with her students was visual resources, such as images in learning materials and her own whiteboard drawings. As she highlighted in the class, she considered the process of visualizing of great importance in understanding texts.

During our observations in her classes, Ms. Taylor has never used laptop computer, Smart Board, or projector. We only observed once when Ms. Taylor was trying to contact one of her students, who was on sick leave, through her personal cellphone. In her interview, Ms. Taylor contended that she preferred not to use technologies. To quote Ms. Taylor, "I personally don't do that [use technologies] much because I feel more comfortable with student-teacher interaction, and it is slow enough when I want it to be and fast enough when I want it to be and I'm more in control." More often, Ms. Taylor used body languages (e.g., gestures and facial expressions), images (e.g., drawings on the whiteboard and illustrations in resource books), and texts (e.g., writings on whiteboard, story books, and dictionaries).

In her literacy classes, Ms. Liu recruited digital resources almost in all periods that I observed. Except in classes when she analyzed exercises that students already completed, Ms. Liu created PowerPoint slides for all new lessons and presented to students on Smart Board through connecting her laptop to the projector. Vignette 6 presents Ms. Liu's use of computer, projector, and the Internet.

Vignette 6: Ms. Liu's Mandarin Class of Learning "The Features of Chinese Architecture"

In this class, Ms. Liu continues to teach the lesson of an article named "The Features of Chinese Architectures (中国建筑的特征)". In this article, the author compares the similarities between Chinese and Western architectures by providing examples of the Arch of Constantine in Rome and the Glazed Arch (琉璃牌楼) in Beijing. The students require looking at pictures of these architectures from online. Ms. Liu walks to the

teacher's desk, which is the only location where there is an Internet cord. The student sitting next to the desk hands over the cord to her. Ms. Liu plugs the cord into her computer and connects to the Internet. She then uses a browser and immediately finds some pictures of the Triumphal Arch in Paris (See Figure 6), though it is supposed to be the Arch of Constantine in Rome. The students then require looking at pictures of the Glazed Arch in Beijing. Ms. Taylor responds and finds the pictures online. In the article, the author gives other examples of the Victory Column in Paris and the Oriental Column in Beijing. Ms. Liu finds the accordant pictures online and discusses with students about the similarities between Chinese and Western architectures. After being showed the pictures, students show excitement when they find the architectures recognizable and are fully engaged in discussing on the features of the architectures with Ms. Liu with the help of the pictures.

Besides computer, Smart Board, projector, and the Internet, our observations of Ms. Liu's classes also revealed her inclusion of audios and videos. For example, before Ms. Liu was teaching Zhuang Zi's "A Carefree Excursion (逍遥游)", she played the audio recording of this article from online using her personal cellphone. She also showed students a short video introducing Sicheng Liang, the author of the article "The Features of Chinese Architectures (中国建筑的特征)", on Smart Board using the Internet. Ms. Liu



Figure 6: Ms. Liu's Use of Internet to Show Pictures of the Triumphal Arch in Paris.

commented in the interview that she had access to the Internet but did not use it very often. She shared that she asked students to search information through their personal cellphones if the Internet cord did not work. As observed, without wireless internet, Ms. Liu had to use her personal cellphone plan to access the Internet. In addition, Ms. Liu shared that she seldom asked students to submit assignments through the Internet. Observational data in her classes revealed that though she presented digital products (e.g., PowerPoint slides) to students very often, Ms. Liu did not encourage her students to use technological devices (e.g., computers) to create new media products.

Different from Ms. Liu, Ms. Johns herself did not use digital resources very often but she facilitated students' engagement with information technologies. Vignette 7 well represents Ms. Johns' encouragement and provision of digital resources for students, as well as the insufficient facilitation in technologies use in classrooms.

Vignette 7: Students' Presentations Using Computers and the Internet in Ms. Johns' English Literacy Class

In the previous class, Ms. Johns handed out laptops for each group to create slides for their final projects about volunteer trips. Only one computer was connected to the Internet as the only location to connect to the Internet was the cord beside teacher's desk. In addition, some computers seemed dated for students' use. Today, students are going to present group by group. Some students use USB drivers to transfer their slides onto Ms. Johns' main computer on teacher's desk, which is connected to the projector. Ms. Johns asks one student to record the presentations. The first group is trying to download their presentation from one group member's email, but realize that the Internet is too slow and it will take too long. Ms. Johns asks if they can just transfer the slides from the student's cellphone but it doesn't work. Ms. Johns has the student email the file to her to see if she can open it faster. While waiting, Ms. Johns offers an alternative that she will download the file at night at her own place so that they can do the presentation in the next day. It ends up with Ms. Johns successfully downloading the file. The first group finally start to present, after 25 minutes of struggle.

Similar scenarios show that Ms. Johns tried to include new media and technologies in meaning making practices despite the school's limited provision of digital resources and Internet access. For example, Ms. Johns once shared a video with students through a cellphone chatting application. When she gave time for students to watch it in class in the next day, students had to use the cellular data of their personal cellphone plans. We observed one student holding her phone up to the wall, attempting to connect to the Internet from other available places. Same as Ms. Liu, Ms. Johns also shared that she sometimes asked students to use their personal cellphones to look up information from online in class. Ms. Johns commented that there should be a space for students to use technologies but the school offered limited resources. To quote Ms. Johns,

We don't really have such a great computer lab here that they can go to in their off hours...So I think there's a place for technology and...a lot of the Smartboards here don't work.

Ms. Johns recalled her experience in teacher education where pre-service teachers had easy access to the Internet, which made her acknowledge of the values of using information technologies.

Ms. Johns shared that she was not technologically savvy. However, she believed that "there is a place" for students to use technology. Our observations in Ms. Johns' classes echoed the contrast between her limited knowledge about technologies and her

encouragement for students to use digital resources. When she encountered difficulties in interacting with digital resources, instead of abandoning using technologies, she provided students with digital devices and let the students deal with the technical problems. For example, one student once asked Ms. Johns if he could present his pictures through the projector. Ms. Johns was unsure how that might work, but she confirmed that pictures could make presentation more convincing and then brought her computer in the next day for his use.

When asked about the expectations of using of information technologies in the school, Ms. Cai and Ms. Liu both concurred on the school's unwritten rule of using Smart Boards and projectors in classrooms. Despite the school's expectations, Ms. Cai shared that problems with digital facilities could not be solved on time due to the lack of staff. Similarly, Ms. Taylor commented that it took time to have the facilities fixed if they didn't work. In addition, Ms. Taylor shared that every classroom was equipped with Smart Board, projector, and access to the Internet, however, the Internet cord in her classroom did not match the computer that the school gave her. The two computer labs were the only places where students could gain access to the Internet, however, the students could only use the computer labs when they took information technology classes. Three teacher participants pointed out that the computers in the labs were dated. Ms. Cai additionally confirmed the low efficiency of the internet in these labs that added difficulties in classroom practices.

Taken together, literacy teachers at SNBS recruited various semiotic resources to different degrees and differed in perceptions of their own and their students' use of technologies. The limited access to digital devices reduced the teachers' and the students' options to recruit various resources, particularly technological resources, in curriculum implementation.

5.5 Teachers' Efforts on Curriculum Adaptation

Data revealed literacy teachers', particularly English literacy teachers', efforts to adapt curriculum for the transnational education students' needs at SNBS. On the Mandarin literacy side, both observational data and interview data revealed Ms. Liu's efforts to trim

the strictly-regulated Mandarin literacy curriculum that was also being taught to local stream students, in order to meet her foreign stream students' needs. Interview data with foreign English literacy teachers revealed the inappropriateness of the curriculum resources assigned by the governing corporation of SNBS. As prescribed in the corporation-developed standardized curriculum, English literacy teaching materials were specifically assigned but deemed mismatching to students' English proficiency levels. Accordingly, foreign English literacy teachers adapted the given teaching materials and their classroom practices.

On the Mandarin literacy side, the Mandarin literacy textbooks were strictly regulated by the national Ministry of Education, consisting of compulsory textbooks and elective textbooks. Mandarin literacy teachers were required to cover all content in the required textbooks that was to be tested in Huikao, whereas there was a free rein for them to selectively cover content in elective textbooks. However, foreign stream students at SNBS were receiving exactly same Mandarin literacy curriculum with their counterparts in local stream at SNBS and those in regular public high schools. Ms. Liu reported her efforts to adapt this nation-regulated curriculum for the Canadian offshore students (i.e., foreign stream students) at SNBS, such as exposing them to foreign cultures, she deemed helpful for students' study abroad. Vignette 8 illustrates how Ms. Liu introduces Western cultures to students through comparing Chinese and Western poems.

Vignette 8: Ms. Liu's Mandarin Class of Learning "A Discussion on Chinese Poem"

In this class, Ms. Liu opens up a new lesson of Zhongshu Qian's article, "A Discussion on Chinese Poem (谈中国诗)". Anna, Ben, and Caroline present and sit in the first row as usual. Ms. Liu casts her slides through the projector. After warming up with a brief introduction of the author, Ms. Liu spends some time highlighting linguistic components in the article. Afterwards, Ms. Liu asks, "Has anyone read foreign poems? Have you learnt foreign poems in your English classes?" Ms. Liu then shares in her slides the Western poem of Robert Frost's "The Road Not Taken" that has been translated into Mandarin Chinese, followed by a brief introduction of this poem. Based on their textbooks, Ms. Liu discusses the similarities and differences between Chinese and Western poems in terms of their features and histories. She uses examples of "Classic of Poetry (诗经)", the oldest collection of Chinese poetry, and "Homeric Hymns" to illustrate different origins of the developments between Chinese and Western poems. When comparing similarities between Chinese and Western poems, Ms. Liu discusses with students on the Chinese poem, Juyi Bai's "Song of A Pipa Player (琵琶行)" and

Keats' "Ode on a Grecian Urn". Ms. Liu highlights the similar purposes of the two poems, which is to describe the beauty of silence, by comparing the sentences of "Silence speaks better than sounds (此时无声胜有声)" and "Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard are sweeter". Ms. Liu leads students to examine the other examples provided in the article till the end of the class.

Ms. Liu introduced Western cultures through comparing the Chinese and Western poems in this class. Similarly, as presented in Vignette 1 and Vignette 8, Ms. Liu introduced Western cultures through comparing Chinese and Western architectures, as well as sharing interesting stories regarding translations between Chinese and English. When asked about her teaching plans after Huikao, Ms. Liu reiterated the importance of exposing the foreign stream students to foreign cultures since she believed that these might benefit students in adapting to the international contexts in future times. To quote Ms. Liu,

As a teacher, I think they still need to learn something. For example, there is literature on foreign films, dramas, and biographies in our elective textbooks. I think these would help them if they were going abroad. Also, learning foreign literature would help broaden their horizons.

In addition, she shared that compared with her teaching of the local stream students who would take Gaokao that led them to entry universities in China, she eased the difficulty level in texts comprehension and reduced the quantity of the assignments for these foreign stream students to better fit their needs, because these students would only take Huikao that led to their high school diplomas, which was not difficult to pass.

On the English literacy side, the foreign English literacy teaching resources were assigned from the top (i.e., the governing corporation of SNBS) yet these materials seemed inappropriate to the school's student population in terms of the students' different English proficiency levels based on interview data with Ms. Taylor and Ms. Johns. In response to the inappropriate resources, foreign literacy teachers made efforts to adapt curriculum to better fit their students' needs. In their interviews, Ms. Johns and Ms. Taylor both shared that they focused more on students' needs than following the prescriptive curriculum.

In her interview, Ms. Taylor pointed out the large differences in difficulty levels in the assigned materials of the standardized curriculum. She shared that when she was

instructing larger-sized classes, she made balances between the materials when using them. To quote Ms. Taylor, “You’d have days with the lower ones [easier materials], and days with the higher-level ones [more difficult materials], and it works”. Based on observational data in her current classes, Ms. Taylor combined materials she selected from the corporation-assigned resources and those she found in other resources to use in class. In addition, she discussed with students and incorporated topics about mental health issues to better prepare them for their independent life in near future.

Ms. Johns pointed out that when she was preparing her students for the SLCE test, she challenged the inappropriateness of the teaching materials that were given by the corporation and followed her own teaching plans. To quote her,

Last year I followed kind of my own idea of the SLCE curriculum – like reading, speaking, listening, and writing. And sometimes I would use exercises from IELTS books. When that proved too difficult, I would pick easier material[s] for them for speaking...So, I kind of put together my own curriculum.

When commenting on students’ English proficiency level, Ms. Cai stated that some foreign stream students had great difficulties in learning Canadian courses due to their limited English abilities. It was tough for them to follow the English-only classes instructed by foreign teachers. Some would even fail the Canadian diploma test (i.e., SLCE). Based on interview data with foreign English literacy teachers, student differences in English proficiency level shaped their curriculum implementation. Ms. Taylor communicated her previous experience teaching students with “huge” differences in English abilities. In her interview, Ms. Taylor said, “you’d have people writing a couple pages paper and others who don’t understand ‘what’s your name’”. She appreciated the small size of her current class, consisting of only 3 students, which made it possible for her to ease the difficulty of the teaching materials for the students to achieve better understanding based on their English proficiency levels. To quote Ms. Taylor, “I’m very close with my students that I can simplify it [the teaching resources] enough for everybody to understand most of what I give”. Ms. Johns shared that the large disparities in her students’ English achievements prompted her to make adjustments in her teaching practices. She communicated that the levels of students’ English proficiency ranged “from accomplished to almost nothing”. As a result, Ms. Johns had to “break the

class into two” and “do two lesson plans”. To assist these low English-achieving students, Ms. Cai suggested Chinese English teachers providing additional instructions in Mandarin.

In interviews, literacy teachers shared their suggestions on curriculum adaptation at SNBS. Ms. Liu suggested the school provide more access for students to learn about Western and Chinese cultures and to compare the two cultures. Particularly, she expressed her hope to establish an elective course regarding Chinese classical culture. Additionally, Ms. Liu suggested the school launch Mandarin speech and debate contests that could empower students’ Mandarin-related literacy learning. Ms. Cai shared that students at SNBS were losing chances to be engaged in English-related elective courses and extra-curricular activities due to the shrinking population of foreign stream students and the limited teaching faculty. She expected the school to exploit more elective courses and activities related to English language and Western cultures. Similarly, Ms. Taylor recommended to include more culture learning and to extend culture learning beyond the scope of classrooms. To quote Ms. Taylor, “it shouldn’t only be on the teachers to implement them. Like we do small things in class, but that’s not enough”.

Both observational and interview data revealed teachers’ efforts to adapt curriculum for their students for various considerations. Ms. Liu adapted the strictly-regulated Mandarin literacy curriculum to fit her student population. Foreign English literacy teachers adapted curriculum materials and adjusted their teaching practices.

5.6 The Unsymmetrical Professional Development

Interview data indicated mixed findings on literacy teachers’ professional development at SNBS. That said, English literacy teachers, including Chinese and foreign teachers, were offered more opportunities for professional development than the Mandarin literacy teachers. In interviews with Chinese and foreign English literacy teachers, they all applauded their current professional development provided by the governing corporation of SNBS.

Having prior instruction experiences with foreign stream students, Ms. Cai shared that the

various forms of professional development the school provided benefitted her curriculum implementation. For example, there were regularly established professional development activities that both foreign and Chinese English teachers participated. She exemplified workshops that she attended of developing students' writing abilities. In addition, there were trainings for teachers to prepare students for SLCE test. Ms. Cai shared that she was equipped with "new teaching resources and interesting teaching approaches". With respect to the application of what she learnt from the professional development programs into classroom practices, Ms. Cai added, "the ideas they [foreign scholars] provide[d] are[were] helpful. However, when applying these ideas that are[were] introduced from foreign countries, teachers need to localize them and to make changes".

Ms. Johns also admitted that the trainings provided her with useful techniques that she could use to engage students in classroom activities, such as speaking and writing. Echoing Ms. Cai, Ms. John showed her concerns on the localization of pedagogies as well. Recalling her prior professional development experiences in America, Ms. Johns shared that what she learnt turned out to be inappropriate for her students at SNBS. Students' inclination toward teacher-centered pedagogies and their reluctance in independent learning reshaped her teaching approaches. To quote Ms. John, "I can't make it as student-centered as I was trained to do or as I would like to do".

Ms. Taylor highly acknowledged the professional development she was provided at SNBS, which bridged the gap between her curriculum implementation and her missing teacher education experiences. She particularly applauded the practical techniques she learnt that could be applied into her class. Ms. Taylor benefited from the "hands-on activities" she learnt from workshops, but "not theories". To quote Ms. Taylor, "it's different when you study the language and when you have tools to actually teach".

However, on the Mandarin literacy teachers' side, neither the school nor its governing corporation provided supports for Mandarin literacy teachers in professional development in instructing Canadian offshore students. The interview data with Ms. Liu showed school's limited guidance on teachers' curriculum adaptation and implementation for its Canadian offshore students. She remarked,

I don't know how to adapt our curriculum to [connect to] the foreign curriculum...neither do I know the relationships between the two curricula...There is no one guiding us in instructing these foreign stream students after Huikao...The teachers plan the curriculum all by themselves ... I don't know how to combine [the two curricula].

Instructing both local and foreign stream students, Ms. Liu shared that the current professional development she was provided only related to local stream students. Due to limited guidance on instructing foreign stream students, Ms. Liu felt confused when she need to adjust her curriculum implementation in terms of make connections between Chinese and Canadian curricula. Therefore, Ms. Liu suggested providing trainings that were specifically targeted at instructing foreign stream students to local Chinese teachers of each subject besides English.

Concerning expectations for future professional development for English literacy teachers, Ms. Cai indicated that due to their heavy workload and limited time, it was difficult for them to take part in off-campus professional development programs. Therefore, she expressed her willingness to take part in lectures or seminars that could be held onsite.

5.7 Summary

In this chapter, I reported the limited interaction between Chinese and Canadian curricula, despite a corporation-developed standardized curriculum attempting to combine the Canadian and Chinese public school English curricula. The presentation of vignettes in classroom observations and teachers' narratives provided an expanded vision of literacy teachers' efforts to connect inside-school literacies with students' personal experiences and knowledges, as well as to overtly scaffold students with their teaching expertise. But there were limited data of their teaching practices that reflected the Critical Framing and Transformed Practice components of the multiliteracies pedagogies. Literacy teachers' teaching practices were mediated by the expectations of standardized tests in test-oriented classes. Data also revealed students' inclination towards test-oriented teaching and learning. Teachers' mode selections in classrooms shed light on teachers' different perceptions and recruitment of various semiotic resources and their encouragement for

students to convey meanings in response “to the interests of the sign maker and the demands of the context” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 252). The inconvenience that teachers encountered in using computers and the Internet might limit teachers’ and students’ options in choosing various channels, especially technological resources, to represent and communicate. Findings related that the English literacy teaching materials were incompatible with students’ English proficiency level at SNBS. In response, some teachers adapted the curricula to meet the students’ needs. In the next chapter, I discuss the key findings and provide recommendations for curriculum decision making, pedagogies, and teacher education in the transnational education contexts.

Chapter 6

6. Discussion

In this chapter, I provide conclusive remarks about the findings in response to the research questions, namely, “How were these curricula actualized at the level of implemented curriculum?” and “What are the implications for curriculum decision-making and literacy teachers’ professional learning?”

6.1 Limited Interaction Between Chinese and Canadian Literacy Curricula

Though the Chinese and Canadian curricula seemed to be integrated at SNBS as a dual-diploma program, both our observational data and interview data revealed limited interaction between the two sides at the level of the implemented curriculum. Particularly, teacher participants reported the bifurcated nature of the Chinese and Canadian English curricula. That said, at SNBS, Chinese and foreign English literacy teachers implemented their respective curricula as two parallel tracks.

Similar to the research findings about a Canadian transnational education program in south China (e.g., Zhang & Heydon, 2014; Zhang, 2015), the implemented English and Mandarin curricula bifurcated at SNBS and the school did not explicitly promote syncretic literacy that could transform English and Mandarin languages and the associated cultures to create new forms of meaning making (See also Gregory, 2008). Nevertheless, different from Zhang and Heydon’s (2015) case of SCS, where the bifurcation was likely a result of school’s missing school-based curriculum development that “could potentially actualize its idea of celebrating biculturalism, bilingualism, and biliteracy” (p. 11), the governing corporation of SNBS made salient efforts to develop a standardized English curriculum for English teachers to use. However, literacy teachers at SNBS used their own curriculum based on their students’ needs instead of following this standardized curriculum. For example, Ms. Taylor shared that teachers might not “implement it seriously”. Ms. Johns commented on it as “confusing” and indicated, “I

kind of put together my own curriculum”. In addition, SNBS offered the same office space to foreign and Chinese English teachers so that they could communicate and interact. For instance, Ms. Johns gave credits to the “harmonious” atmosphere in the office between English teachers from the two sides. However, there was limited communication between foreign teachers and Chinese teachers who instructed other subjects other than English, including Mandarin teachers.

Based on interview data with Chinese and foreign English literacy teachers, the improper design of the above-mentioned standardized curriculum, student differences, particularly their disparate English proficiency levels, and the mobility of foreign teaching faculty may possibly explain the uneasiness for English literacy teachers to follow this corporation-developed standardized curriculum. Based on interviews with foreign English literacy teachers, the curriculum design was far from ideal. Ms. Taylor commented it “improvised” and Ms. Johns deemed this curriculum as “confusing”. In addition, Ms. Johns communicated that the assigned materials were “incomprehensible”. Regarding student differences, Ms. Johns commented her students’ English proficiency levels ranged “from accomplished to almost nothing”. Ms. Johns communicated that when facing differences among students in terms of their English proficiency levels, learning objectives, and personalities, she had to follow her own curriculum instead of following the corporation-made curriculum. Concurring Ms. Johns, Ms. Cai shared that some students’ low achievement in English impeded them from following foreign teachers’ classes. With regard to the foreign teacher faculty, Ms. Johns shared her previous experiences in another Canadian offshore school governed by this corporation before she came to SNBS. She communicated that she did not follow the standardized curriculum because she only stayed there for three weeks. Similarly, Ms. Taylor noted the mobility of the teaching faculty at SNBS that made teaching not “traceable”. As a result, she indicated that the difficulty for newcomer teachers to make “follow-up” teaching practices may possibly lead teachers not to “implement it [the standardized curriculum] seriously”.

6.2 Literacy Teachers' Curriculum Implementation: The Pedagogies of Multiliteracies

Observations in teachers' English and Mandarin classes revealed that their teaching practices reflected different components of the pedagogies of multiliteracies, particularly the components of Situated Practice and Overt Instruction (The New London Group, 1996). However, we did not identify the components of Critical Framing or Transformed Practices in classroom observations or interviews.

As is mentioned in Chapter 2, the New London Group (1996) framed four components of the multiliteracies pedagogies, namely Situated Practice, Overt Instruction, Critical Framing, and Transformed Practice. At SNBS, Ms. Liu showed her efforts to connect textbook knowledge with out-of-school literacy when she introduced the lesson of "Interesting Translation" in her Mandarin literacy class. She did not stick to the textbook literacy but provided learners with immersion in familiar experiences with "contextual clues" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 206). She brought in real-life stories that students were familiar with and interested in, such as popular novels and movies. Ms. Liu's efforts echoed the necessity to recruit students' funds of knowledge in classrooms (González et al., 2005). Though Ms. Liu's class observations only showcased her limited inclusion of students' funds of knowledge, her endeavors in this class of introducing out-of-school literacy (e.g., movies and novels) to students were in accordance with Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez's (1992) contention, "knowledge is obtained by the children, not imposed by adults" (p. 134). Similar to Bodycott and Walker's (2000) inclusion of students' own experiences in English literacy classes, this particular class of Ms. Liu's provided a good example of how literacy teachers could recruit students' out-of-school knowledge as teaching resources, through which students' literacy learning was embedded in Situated Practice.

Ms. Johns' design of students' role-play presentations explicitly reflected the components of Situated Practice and Overt Instruction of the pedagogies of multiliteracies. She situated students' presentations in daily life scenarios, such as conversations in a course registration office and in a bank, which meaningfully connected students' classroom

learning with their out-of-school literacy practices. Ms. Johns connected learners' own knowledge with unknown knowledge and recruited learners' previous, current, and out-of-school experiences as teaching and learning resources (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008). Being situated in the contexts that they were familiar with, students were immersed in relevant environments and provided with contextual clues, such as their own knowledge about course registration they learned from other schools and their prior experiences in a bank. Ms. Johns also provided students with Overt Instruction when she provided detailed example sentences for the students to imitate and apply in their presentations. Through Overt Instruction, Ms. Johns scaffolded students with her expertise to develop their metalanguages to make implicit meanings explicit (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008).

Similar to Ms. Johns' role-play presentation, Ms. Taylor's word game also reflected the components of Situated Practice and Overt Instruction of multiliteracies pedagogies components. Ms. Taylor put her class into a daily life context that each student has been exposed to. She offered students chances to connect their daily life experiences (i.e., describing people's appearance) with what they learnt in the books (i.e., the descriptive words in dictionaries), which warmed up students' learning with Situated Practice. Ms. Taylor overtly instruct students through rephrasing students' descriptions of their own drawings and correcting their mistakes. In this process, Ms. Taylor scaffolded learners with her expertise that deepens the students' intra-systematic understanding and develops their own meta-languages to describe Designs (The New London Group, 1996).

Particularly, observational data in Ms. Taylor's classes embodied her awareness of students' differences when she legitimated students' use of Mandarin in her classes. Communicating with students in Mandarin and permitting students' use of Mandarin in her English literacy classes, Ms. Taylor recruited students' knowledge of their first language to assist English literacy learning. Interview data reveals Ms. Taylor's "asset-oriented" (Heydon & Bainbridge, 2015, p. 334) mindset in her literacy teaching practices, because she considered learners' funds of knowledge, in particular, their first language, as assets rather than "deficiencies" in English literacy learning "to foster expansive communication options" (p. 337). Ms. Taylor's expansion of students' communication options also reflected the New London Group's (1996) contention to recognize and

negotiate individual differences rather than erasing them in literacy pedagogies in today's "multilayered lifeworlds" (p. 17).

However, we did not identify data that reflected the components of Critical Framing or Transformed Practices in literacy teachers' classroom practices at SNBS. Critical Framing entails "interpreting social and cultural contexts of particular Designs of meaning" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006, p. 40). It involves learners critically examining what they have learnt in relation to its wider contexts (Kalantzis & Cope, 2000). This pedagogical element empowers learners with the awareness of contexts and purposes of a certain Design (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006). Transformed Practice involves applying knowledge and understandings across various contexts in real world and testing their validity (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). This pedagogical angle promotes reproduction and creativity in knowledge transformation process (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006). The increasing linguistic and cultural diversity and global interconnectedness embedded in transnational education programs pointed to the expectations for learners to critically interpret knowledge and to meaningfully apply knowledge into problem-solving in today's diverse social and cultural contexts.

The multiliteracies framework attempts to reconsider the meaning of literacy in the present times of globalization (Jewitt, 2008). Transnational education programs involve intercultural engagement (Dunn & Wallace, 2008b; Leask, 2008) and are space where cross-border learning experiences take place. Therefore, it is important to guide students in transnational education contexts to critically examine today's changing social and cultural contexts (i.e., Critical Framing) and to apply knowledge into practice across diverse contexts through meaningful learning activities (i.e., Transformed Practice). Given the fact that the components of Critical Framing and Transformed Practice were not present in the observed SNBS's literacy classes, I propose that literacy teachers provide students with opportunities to acquire knowledge through critically analysis and transformative application. Literacy teachers could include students' experiences from language learning, culture exposure, and social media using in making or analyzing texts and encourage students to reason, conclude, and investigate relations among texts (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). For example, teachers could lead students to question statements in

an article and evoke discussions by sharing their different opinions from different cultural perspectives. In addition, teachers could engage students in conversations that transfer ideas from one cultural context (e.g., China) to another (e.g., Canada). Particularly, technological tools could be used to present different languages, cultures, and stories from diverse contexts to encourage students to process learning across borders. For example, teachers could develop programs for students to create, adapt, or combine classic Chinese and Canadian stories, followed by story-telling shows. Multimodal resources and digital resources could be incorporated in the process of students' information collection and presentation.

6.3 Standardized Tests Mediated Literacy Teachers' Curriculum Implementation

Despite Ms. Liu's efforts to include students' out-of-school experiences into literacy teaching, observational data related her contrastive "mere literacy" (The New London Group, 1996, p. 64) practices that were test-oriented and more focused on developing students' discrete and decontextualized skills. In contrast to the pedagogy of multiliteracies, "mere literacy" pedagogy is "a more or less authoritarian kind of pedagogy" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, p. 5). Ms. Liu's "didactic" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, p. 184) teaching practices, such as answer dictation, were in align with rule-based literacy. In contrast, the pedagogy of multiliteracies is built on the assumption that knowledge is formed through "Design" (The New London Group, 1996). It acknowledges learners' agency and aims to cultivate learners into future social designers (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000) who can transform "the Designed" to "the Redesigned" through the process of "Designing" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a). However, Ms. Liu's rule-based literacy pedagogies did not enable students' "agency" in the process of "Design" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 204). Rather, students were considered as passive recipients of knowledge when they were copying the formalized answers provided by their teacher.

Observational data and interview data related pressures from standardized tests that challenged literacy teachers' curriculum implementation in test-oriented classes at SNBS. At the time of the study, Ms. Liu's and Ms. Taylor's grade 11 students were preparing for

the standardized tests of Huikao and SLCE. In her interview, Ms. Liu explained how her beliefs in Mandarin literacy teaching and learning had been challenged by the expectations of the standardized test, Huikao. On one hand, she yearned to address the in-depth meanings of the articles in textbooks, expecting students to appreciate Mandarin literature. On the other hand, she had to teach to test and meet the expectations of the test. However, Ms. Liu had to privilege test scores of Huikao over her intention of promoting students' aesthetic appreciation of Chinese literature, because Huikao results would determine whether students would be granted the Chinese High School Diploma. Ms. Liu shared that after Huikao, her teaching would not be test-oriented.

Most of Ms. Johns' grade 12 students had completed the required standardized tests from both sides (i.e., Huikao and SLCE), which freed Ms. Johns from the stress of test preparation. She appraised the post-test autonomy that enabled her to create her own curriculum based on her students' needs. Zhang's (2012) study reported similar findings of the constraints of standardized tests on teachers' teaching practices. Particularly, her findings related that literacy teachers' curriculum implementation was bounded by the expectations of standardized tests in test-preparation classes, which echoed Ms. Johns' practices in the present study. As Zhang (2015) contended, when Chinese teachers did not have to teach test-oriented classes, they had more freedom to "tweak the curriculum and textbooks" (p. 110). Some literacy teachers' teaching practices at SNBS were also constrained by the expectations of standardized tests. These literacy teachers intended to empower students' literacy learning beyond rule-based "mere literacy" (The New London Group, 1996, p. 64); however, such intentions were in conflict with the requirements of standardized tests. In addition, both observational data and interview data revealed that all students from test-oriented classes showed inclinations toward test-oriented teaching.

The findings related that the impacts might be the global testing culture upon teachers' literacy teaching and students' perceptions of literacy learning. High-stakes standardized tests from both educational systems traversed beyond the national boundaries and met within the context of SNBS as a Sino-Canada dual-diploma program. Specifically, teachers and students at SNBS were confronted with standardized tests at both regional (i.e., Huikao and SLCE) and international (i.e., IELTS) levels. Smith (2016) pointed out

that negative consequences of globalized standardized tests might reconstruct the roles of teachers and students and reshape their practices to cater to standardized testing expectations. In my view, the tests of Huikao and SLCE were accountability assessments that were “measurement devices, almost always standardized, used by governmental entities such as states, provinces, or school districts to ascertain the effectiveness of educational endeavors” (Popham, 2009, p. 6). Similar to Ahsan and Smith’s (2016) views, findings of this study also showed that the regional accountability assessments that incurred isolated activities and reported test scores might limit teachers’ abilities for further development of teaching practices.

6.4 Literacy Teachers’ Recruitment of Semiotic Resources and the School’s Facilitation

Observational data in literacy teachers’ classes at SNBS revealed their recruitment of semiotic resources to various degrees. For example, Ms. Taylor included multiple modes, such as speech, writing, visual images, and gestures in her classes. Ms. Liu created PowerPoint slides to present class content to students using laptop, Smart Board, projector, and the Internet. Despite her own limited knowledge on technologies, Ms. Johns provided students with laptops and the Internet to encourage their use of technologies. However, both observational and interview data reported limited access to the digital facilities at SNBS, which constrained teachers’ and the students’ options to represent and communicate through multiple channels.

Observations in Ms. Taylor’s classes showcased her recruitment of multiple modes in curriculum actualization. For example, when she introduced unfamiliar words or expressions to the students, she used the mode of speech to provide oral explanation, the mode of writing to provide key information on the whiteboard, and the mode of gesture (e.g., facial expressions) to convey meanings to the students. Ms. Taylor’s inclusion of various modes reflected the parallelism nature of multimodality, which enabled her to favor different students who preferred different modes. Kress (2010) referred “mode” to “a socially shaped and culturally given semiotic resource for making meaning” (p. 79). Modes differ in affordances. Kress (2000a) defined “design” as “the intentional

deployment of resources in specific configurations to implement the purposes of the designers” (p. 340). In the process of design, the designer communicates or represents meanings through different modal affordances that were “encountered in the signs made with a mode” (Kress, 2010, p. 114). In her process of design, Ms. Taylor responded to the question of “which mode, given this audience, will be best for representing and communicating that which I wish to communicate” (Kress et al., 2001, p. 7). Ms. Taylor’s mode decision also reflected the nature of “functional specialization” (p. 16) of mode, which explained that some modes did better than other modes in representing and communicating, particularly when she chose the mode of image for its “aptness for expressing” what was to be signified. Her mode selection responded to “the interests of the sign maker” and “the demands of the context” (Jewitt, 2008, p. 252). Besides her own recruitment of semiotic resources, Ms. Taylor also offered her students with various options other than print-based modes to represent and communicate. Ms. Taylor’s encouragement for students to use drawing to communicate and express was in accordance with nature of “variability” of the “Design” process (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 204). She considered her students as “remakers and transformers” of available resources (Stein, 2000, p. 335).

Observational data from Ms. Liu’s classes revealed the high frequency of her use of the computer, Smart Board, and the projector. However, for most time, Ms. Liu only used her slides as a tool for one-way information dissemination rather than interactive communication between her students and her. Ms. Liu’s recruitment of digital resources was more like using technologies to complete “transmission” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 201), rather than giving agency for students to complete the process of transformative design (Kress, 2000a). In this way, Ms. Liu’s use of technological resources seemed to treat students as “media consumers” (Lange & Ito, 2010, p. 244) instead of developing them as media producer. From a perspective of multiliteracies, students in Ms. Liu’s class were “viewers” and “passive receptors”, rather than “users” or “active creators” (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008, p. 201) of technologies. Though she contended in her interview that using information technologies, such as using PowerPoint slides, facilitated “all-around” deployment of resources, Ms. Liu seemed only to engage students with the “superficial aspects of the technology such as its speed and color” (Ryan, Scott, & Walsh,

2010, p. 487), instead of engaging students to use technologies to create their own products. Similarly, Zhang's (2012) study also reported that "media was not used as leverage for students to creatively and critically invest in palette forms of learning" (p. 279).

In contrast, students in Ms. Johns' classes were provided with more chances, compared with those in Ms. Liu's classes, to create their own media products (e.g., PowerPoint slides), which enabled them to become media producers to a certain degree. Both observations in Ms. Johns' classes and her own narratives revealed her insufficient knowledge about information technologies. Ryan et al. (2010) indicated that in the present multimodal classrooms, some students were ahead of their teachers in their abilities to interact with digital resources, which "push[ed] teachers' role to the margins of the classroom" (p. 488). However, Ms. Johns' lack of technology expertise did not constrain her recruitment of digital resources in her literacy classrooms. Though she felt challenged to keep up with the rapid technological changes, Ms. Johns believed that "there is[was] a place" for students themselves to use technologies.

Both observational data and interview data revealed the school's limited support for teachers' recruitment of technological resources. According to Ms. Liu and Ms. Cai, on one hand, the school expected teachers to incorporate digital resources into curriculum implementation. On the other, these literacy teachers' use of digital resources was constrained due to the limited Internet access and untimely maintenance of dated facilities. The school's insufficient support challenged literacy teachers' curriculum implementation in using technological devices. For example, due to limited access to computers and the Internet, students in Ms. Johns' class had to take turns to use digital resources. The challenges Ms. Johns and her students encountered in class shifted their attention from literacy learning to dealing with the technical difficulties and disturbed their literacy teaching and learning.

However, limited technological resources do not necessarily prevent teachers from creating multimodal learning environment for students. In Thompson's (2008) study, a teacher with limited technological resources, encouraged her students to utilize everyday objects, such as paper clips and wood scraps, to realize multimodal learning. The findings

led Thompson to decry the assumption that “digital technologies are[were] required for multimodal teaching to occur” (p. 147). Instead, she advocated teachers to integrate available resources within reach as multimodal tools to create a multimodal learning environment. In the present study, Ms. Taylor, who did not perceive technologies as necessary in literacy teaching, set a good example of deploying everyday tools (e.g., encouraging students to draw on papers, using markers to draw on the whiteboard, and providing print-based handouts) to engage students in multimodal learning. Ms. Taylor’s integration of non-digital resources in her class echoed Thompson’s suggestion to reconsider multimodal teaching and learning in “a new way to think about modes as tools for meaning making rather than what a tech-savvy teacher can do with technology” (p. 147).

Taken together, literacy teachers at SNBS recruited multiple semiotic resources to various degrees. However, their inclusion of various resources differed in ways of how much autonomy they gave students in choosing and utilizing different modes to represent and communicate, as well as how they perceived technological resources in literacy teaching. The school’s limited facilitation in offering technological resources narrowed teachers’ and students’ scope of options in expressing and communicating in literacy classes.

Changes in communication environment in the 21st century requires new educational responses (Cope & Kalantzis, 2006). Schools and educators shall provide opportunities and resources to develop students’ abilities to orchestrate multiple ways of communication beyond print-based literacy. However, literacy teaching at SNBS did not seem to fully respond to the changing literacy landscape given the school’s limited resources and some literacy teachers’ lack of knowledge on technologies.

6.5 The Curriculum Appropriation and Teachers’ Efforts on Curriculum Adaptation

Observational data and interview data of Chinese literacy teacher, Ms. Liu, showed her efforts on adapting regulated curriculum to better meet her students’ needs. More data on curriculum adaptation was identified on the English literacy side. Observational data and

interview data of English literacy teachers reported the inappropriateness of the assigned materials from the governing corporation and the disparate English abilities among students. In response, they showcased their efforts on curriculum adaptation for various considerations through adjusting teaching materials and classroom practices.

With respect to curriculum materials, the “ideas and materials affecting school programs need in some way to enter the mainstream of schooling” (Eisner, 2002, p. 41). Eisner indicated that curriculum change did not occur in the process of “curriculum installation”, but “curriculum diffusion” that entails contextualized introduction of curriculum into schools. He advocated improving educational practices through adaptation, in which “both the classrooms and the materials undergo[underwent] change”. English literacy teachers at SNBS fulfilled the process of “curriculum diffusion” through adapting the assigned materials. For example, Ms. Taylor found the materials incompatible with her students’ English proficiency level and responded to the inaptness through pulling out resources from the given materials, introducing other materials, and incorporating these resources to better fit her students.

Concurring with Ms. Taylor, Ms. Johns also found the teaching materials were impractical for students’ English learning. Her response to the inappropriateness was similar to Ms. Taylor’s, which was to combine multiple resources from the given materials and other materials to develop her own curriculum. These literacy teachers’ curriculum adaptation was involved in the process of “pedagogical translation” (Deng, 2009, p. 594). In this process, teachers “interpret, modify, and transform the curriculum-as-offered into curriculum-in-use” (p. 593) to create their “personalized versions of curriculum”.

When commenting on students’ English proficiency level that shaped literacy teachers’ curriculum implementation, both Ms. Taylor and Ms. Johns shared that their students’ English achievements prompted them to adapt the teaching materials or to make adjustments in teaching practices. In my view, for transnational education students with relatively weak facility with English it is important to assign teaching assistants to foreign English teachers who could act as mediators to explain teachers’ instructions to students or communicate students’ feedback to the teachers. The assistants could be capable

students, volunteers from outside of school, or hired individuals.

English literacy teachers at SNBS encountered challenges in curriculum implementation due to the inappropriateness of teaching materials they were given and students' differences in English proficiency levels. Accordingly, some teachers developed their own curricula. Despite the attempt of the governing corporation of SNBS to create a standardized English curriculum, foreign English teachers did not follow the prescribed teaching materials in curriculum implementation but developed their own to meet the students' needs. To meet the challenges of students' differences in English proficiency levels in the transnational education programs, the teacher participants suggested providing additional ESL support for low English-achieving students in their first language, Mandarin.

In addition, literacy teachers at SNBS suggested providing more opportunities for students to be exposed to Chinese and Western cultures. Their suggestions echoed Education International's (2004) denotation, that was, the transnational education curriculum needs to entail the negotiation of local-global social and cultural differences to sustain cultural and linguistic diversity in the cross-border education context. Such a culturally and linguistically responsive curriculum has the potential to facilitate interactions between Chinese and Canadian curricula and teachers, which would further support transnational education students' biliteracy development.

6.6 Specializing Professional Development for Literacy Teachers in Transnational Education Contexts

Interview data indicated unsymmetrical professional development for literacy teachers at SNBS, with more opportunities for English literacy teachers than their Mandarin counterparts. Teachers' comments and suggestions on professional development for educators referred to two major implications for professional development in the transnational education contexts. The first related to the localization of teacher education. As Ms. Cai and Ms. Johns indicated, directly transplanting Western educational theories and pedagogies into classrooms was not in tune with the local climate, which was in

accordance with Wang's (2008) suggestion of taking into account of local sensitivities when transplanting western pedagogies into transnational schools in China. The curriculum of transnational education program needs to be localized (Leask, 2008). As Leask (2008) concluded, transnational educators also need to be intercultural learners. I, therefore, suggest providing professional development that celebrate wisdom from both Chinese and Western literacy pedagogies. As shown in Chapter 2, a good example of integrating local and the imported pedagogies was given by Bjorning-Gyde, Doogan, and East's (2008) "fusion model" of language teaching approaches. They combined Chinese CHC-featured pedagogies and Western CLT pedagogies, which resulted in efficient English teaching in China.

The second related to establishing platforms for Chinese and foreign teachers to observe their real-life teaching of Mandarin and English. Keevers et al. (2004) suggested peer observation of teaching practices among teachers within and across institutions. I suggest providing interpreting services to enable peer evaluation practices that invite transnational educators to learn from each other on how to facilitate students' literacy learning within transnational education contexts. Peer evaluation practices could take place in forms of on-site or virtual feedbacks, such as online programs (Hicks & Jarette, 2008). As Dunn and Wallace (2008b) recommended, a liaison person that communicated between local and foreign staff might negotiate differences (e.g., languages and teaching practices) in between.

6.7 The Significance of the Study

The present study investigates implemented literacy curricula of a Canadian offshore school in China, from the perspectives of multiliteracies and multimodal literacies. Despite emergent studies on literacy curricula in Canadian secondary school programs in China (e.g., Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2015), there is limited knowledge about the variations of implemented Canadian transnational literacy curricula, especially at the level of secondary education. My study responds to the scarcity of literature and adds to the knowledge on literacy curriculum implementation in transnational education programs. Drawing on multiple sources of data (i.e., observational data and interview

data), I provide descriptions of in-situ classroom practices and discussions on literacy teachers' curriculum actualization from various perspectives. The detailed vignettes about literacy teachers' classroom practices and teacher participants' voices about transnational curriculum implementation may add to the knowledge on professional development for educators in transnational education contexts. My study points to the necessity to involve transnational education practitioners such as school administrators and literacy teachers to develop school-based curriculum based on the local needs and culture of the offshore schools. My study also provides timely recommendations for locally responsive professional development for transnational educators. All in all, this study may provide Canada and other countries who endeavor in transnational education with suggestions to strengthen their transnational education curricula.

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⁴ To ensure the school and the participants are not traceable, I do not provide the name of province or the website where I retrieve the document.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics Approval Notice

| | | |
|---|---|------------------------|
|  | Western Research | Research Ethics |
| Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board NMREB Amendment Approval Notice | | |
| Principal Investigator: Dr. Zheng Zhang Department & Institution: Education, Western University | | |
| NMREB File Number: 108476 Study Title: A multiple case study of literacy curricula in Canadian transnational education programs in China | | |
| NMREB Revision Approval Date: February 15, 2017 NMREB Expiry Date: November 15, 2017 | | |
| Documents Approved and/or Received for Information: | | |
| Document Name | Comments | Version Date |
| Instruments | Interview Questions (Principal or School Administrator) English | 2017/02/04 |
| Instruments | Interview Questions (Student) English | 2017/02/04 |
| Instruments | Interview Questions (Teachers) English | 2017/02/04 |
| Revised Letter of Information & Consent | Parents - English | 2017/02/03 |
| Revised Letter of Information & Consent | Principal and School Administrator - English | 2017/02/03 |
| Revised Letter of Information & Consent | Teachers - English | 2017/02/03 |
| Revised Letter of Information & Consent | Written and Oral Consent (Canadian and Chinese Policy Makers) - English | 2017/02/03 |
| Revised Western University Protocol | Received February 5, 2017. | |

The Western University Non-Medical Science Research Ethics Board (NMREB) has reviewed and approved the amendment to the above named study, as of the NMREB Amendment Approval Date noted above.

NMREB approval for this study remains valid until the NMREB Expiry Date noted above, conditional to timely submission and acceptance of NMREB Continuing Ethics Review.

The Western University NMREB operates in compliance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA, 2004), and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario.

Members of the NMREB who are named as investigators in research studies do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on such studies when they are presented to the REB.

The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

Ethics O
EO: Erik

Western University, Research, Support Services Bldg., Rm. 5150
London, ON, Canada N6G 1G9 t. 519.661.3036 f. 519.850.2466 www.uwo.ca/research/ethics

Appendix B: Invitation Emails to School Principals

Invitation Email to School Principal (Mandarin)

尊敬的 XXX:

我在此诚挚邀请您与您的学校参与我们团队的研究项目：加拿大离岸教育项目中语言课程规划的多案例研究。此项研究由加拿大政府研究津贴（SSHRC Insight Development Grant）资助。本项目已经获得研究道德伦理委员会的批准，请您查阅附件中的批文。

我们同时附上该项目的信息介绍函与参与同意书，这些文件详细地介绍了本项目的研究实质及研究过程。若您对于本项研究本身有任何疑问，请您联系我（电子邮件：XXX），或者该项目的主要研究人张箬博士（电子邮件：XXX）。若您和您的学校有兴趣参与本项研究，请与我或张箬博士联系。在获得您的书面及口头参与同意书之后，我们会与您商讨研究进程。我们计划在 2017 年 2 月底至 5 月底之间，由贵校选择你们方便的时间进行研究（研究时长大约 2-3 周）。

我们曾经在广东省，澳门和香港的三所加拿大离岸学校进行过类似的案例研究，并与在校老师与学生保持了很好的关系。按照惯例，如果贵校参与本项研究，该项目的主要研究人，张箬博士，会以讲座的形式为贵校教师提供在职培训，并为贵校学生开展以中国高中到北美高校成功过渡为主题的专题讲座。

期待您的回复。再次感谢!

祝好，

研究助理：李婉静

研究团队：

张箏博士（主研究人），助理教授

Rachel Heydon 博士（联合研究人），教授

加拿大安大略省伦敦市

西安大略大学教育学院

地址：1137 Western Road

邮编：N6G 1G7

Invitation Email to School Principal (English)

Dear Vice Principal,

I am writing to sincerely invite you and your school to participate in our federal government funded research project titled “A Multiple Case Study of Literacy Curricula in Canadian transnational education programs in China”. I’m attaching the Ethics Approval Notice to your attention.

I am also attaching the Letter of Information and Consent form with more details about the nature of the research and the research procedures in which the participants will be involved. Should you have questions about the research, please do not hesitate to contact me at XXX or the principal investigator Dr. Zheng Zhang at XXX. If you and your school are interested in participating in the study, please contact me or the principal investigator Dr. Zheng Zhang at XXX and we will then follow up with you to schedule the research and obtain written or oral consent from you. We are planning to conduct data collection anytime between the end of Feb. 2017 to the end of May when it is convenient for your school (data collection might last 2-3 weeks).

Our research team have conducted likewise case studies in three offshore Canadian schools in Southern China, Macau, and Hong Kong and have maintained very good relationship with students, teachers, and schools. As a common practice, if your school is participating in the study, the Principal Investigator Dr. Zheng Zhang will provide professional development seminars to your teachers on literacy education and workshops to students on successful transition from high schools to North American universities.

I look forward to your response. Much appreciated!

Best regards,

Wanjing Li, Research Assistant

Research Team:

Dr. Zheng Zhang (Principal Investigator), Assistant Professor

Dr. Rachel Heydon (Co-Applicant), Professor

Faculty of Education

Western University

1137 Western Road

London, Ontario, Canada

N6G 1G7

Appendix C: Letter of Information and Consent Forms to Principals

研究项目名称：加拿大离岸教育项目中语言课程规划的 多案例研究

研究项目信息介绍函

（校长及学校管理者）

主研究人：张箏

我们是张箏博士和 Rachel Heydon 博士，是加拿大安大略省伦敦市西安大略大学教育学院的教授。我们目前正在进行一项关于位于中国的加拿大高中离岸教育项目的研究。此项研究由加拿大政府研究津贴（SSHRC Insight Development Grant）资助。由于您的学校使用的是加拿大课程，我们在此诚挚邀请您与您的学校参与此项研究。

这封研究项目信息介绍函旨在为您介绍此项研究。此项研究的目的是：1）调研加拿大两个省的离岸教育状况；透析加拿大离岸教育项目为适应中国本土教育，而结合中国教育体系所做的创新课程规划，以及对加拿大课程所做的修订；2）调研离岸教育课程各个层面的特征（政策层面、课堂课程实施状况、以及学生的学习体验）；3）探索离岸教育中的课程规划对学生语言学习和身份认同的影响。

我们期待贵校参与以下环节的研究：1）校长及学校管理者访谈：我们将采访您或您推荐的熟悉贵校语言课程规划与实施的学校管理者，每次访谈约历时 1 小时；2）课堂教学观察：我们将分别观察贵校的一位英语老师和一位汉语老师的课堂教学，课堂观察重点在于教师与学生对语言课程规划的具体实施。对每个班级的观察时间长短将取决于课程安排的强度和教师本人对语言教学周期的安排，根据以前的研究项目的经验，该课堂观察环节约历时 30 天；3）教师访谈：我们将分别采访参与以上研究的英语教师与汉语教师。访谈内容将涉及他们对实施离岸语言课程的看法，他们对离岸语言教师师资培训的看法，以及他们就离岸课程规划对于学生的语言能力和身份认同影响的看法，对每位教师的访谈约历时 1 小时；4）学生访谈：我们会采访贵校学生，了解他（她）对于离岸教育语言课程规划的亲身体验，整个访谈约历时 30 分钟。我们还会收集他（她）的课程作业样本，并邀请他（她）使用自己喜欢的交流模式（如图画和视听摄录）来描绘自己在加拿大离岸学校中的语言学习与身份认同。为了帮助受访学生顺利使用多元化模式来描绘自己的语言学习和身份形成过程，我作为主研究人，会提供一个范例，示范我本人如何使用多元化模式描绘自己在加拿大大学的语言学习和身份形成的经历。

以上所有访谈的地点都将由研究参与者与我们研究团队共同协商决定。所有的访谈内容将会被录音和转录成文字。如果您不想被录音，但仍然想参加本项研究，我们会用笔记的形式记录您对访谈问题的回答情况。除访谈环节外，所有课堂研究环节将会在日常的语言课程教学过程中进行，并且，所有的课堂观察将会被张箏博士录音并由研究助理转录成文字。但是，我们不会对没有同意参加课堂观察的学生进行录音。在学生同意的前提下，我们会收集学生的作业，对作业进行拍照或录音

（如果作业是录音文件），然后将作业归还给学生。这些作业将有助于本研究揭示学生在加拿大离岸学校中的语言学习经历与身份形成经历情况。

在对校长及学校管理者的个人访谈部分，我们将会邀请您谈及有关离岸课程规划的以下几个方面：贵校离岸课程开发与课程调适；贵校切合有效实施离岸课程规划的需要，为教师提供的实施离岸语言课程的师资培训；以及您对于学生的语言能力和身份认同影响的看法。此外，我们还会邀请您审阅访谈转录稿，并对转录稿的相关内容做进一步解释和提出反馈意见。您有权建议删除访谈的内容。审阅访谈转录稿大约需要半个小时。

通过参与本项研究，贵校学校和贵校语言教师将有机会与本研究团队就如何在国际化教育背景下进行语言教学与课程规划创新进行教学互动和交流。而且，我本人作为主研究人，会以讲座的形式为贵校教师提供在职培训，并就在中国背景下创新式地实施加拿大语言课程与教师进行交流。此外，我们还计划向在海外推广离岸教育的加拿大各个省教育部反馈研究结果，特别是让他们了解加拿大海外学校正在使用的创新型课程，以期加拿大课程政策制定者在迅速发展的加拿大离岸项目中能有所借鉴，提高 21 世纪学习者的语言能力，并拓展离岸项目的学生对其身份认同内涵的理解。

研究中所收集的数据将只用于研究目的。只有我们和研究助理可以接触到访谈录音与文字转录稿。我们会将您的个人信息存放在安全保密的地方至少 5 年。记录您研究号码/假名的名单将会被存放在安全的地方，并且和您的其它研究档案分开存放。只有在征得您同意的前提下，我们才会直接引用您所说的话。我们可能会（也可能不会）直接在研究报告中引用您所说的话，但是，一旦您的话被引用，任何能识别您身份的信息将会被删除。您的姓名也不会出现在任何有关此项研究的出版物中。若您想要了解未来的研究发现，请联系我本人。尽管我们将尽全力保护贵校的身份信息，但如果贵校是在您所属地区中唯一使用加拿大某特定省份课程的学校，我们将可能无法保证完全做到贵校的身份不被识别。您参与本项研究纯属自愿。您不参与此项研究，不愿回答任何问题，或在任何时间想退出本项研究，都不会对您的工作及工作地位产生任何影响。如果您选择退出本项研究，我们将会从数据库中清除与您相关的所有数据及信息。此外，西安大略大学非医学研究伦理协会的代表将有可能联系您，或要求查看您参与本项研究的相关记录，其目的是监控本项研究的实施。

您参与本项研究将没有任何已知风险或不适。应您的要求，我们不会向您所在学校透露您作为本项研究参与者的身份。在研究过程中，我们会及时向您提供可能影响您决定是否继续参与本项研究的最新信息。您同意参与本项研究不会影响您的任何合法权益。

我们将会赠送一份纪念品给贵校每一位研究参与者，以感谢他们对于加拿大离岸语言课程研究的贡献。

若您对于本项研究的开展或您作为本项研究参与者的权利有任何疑问，请您联系西安大略大学研究伦理办公室（电话：XXX；电子邮件：XXX）。若您对于本

项研究本身有任何问题，请您联系张箬博士（我本人）（加拿大电话：XXX；中国电话：XXX；电子邮件：XXX）。敬请惠存此函，以作日后参考。

张箬博士

助理教授

教育学院

西安大略大学

研究项目参与同意书

研究项目名称：加拿大离岸教育项目中语言课程规划的
多案例研究

主研究人：张箏教授（加拿大安大略省伦敦市西安大略大学）

兹证明我已阅读了张箏教授和 Rachel Heydon 教授的研究项目信息介绍函，她们向我介绍了研究项目的本质，并回答了我的疑问。我同意参加此项研究并允许她们的研究团队（请选择）：

1. 在使用假名的前提下，在研究报告或出版物中直接引用我说的话。
是 否
2. 对访谈进行录音。 是 否
3. 使用笔记记录我对访谈问题的回答，如果我不想被录音，但仍想参与此项研究。
是 否

校长或学校管理者姓名（请用正楷填写）： _____

校长或学校管理者签名： _____

日期： _____

回收该研究项目参与同意书的研究人员姓名：张箏

回收该研究项目参与同意书的研究人员签名： _____

日期： _____

项目主研究人联系信息：张箏（加拿大电话：XXX；中国电话：XXX；电子邮件：XXX）

注意：请将签署完成后的研究项目参与同意书以加密邮件的方式寄回给主研究人张箏博士或者她的研究助理（Pam Malins: XXX; 李婉静: XXX or XXX），本研究团队会提供有关邮件与文档加密和解密的服务；或者，也可以将签署完成后的研究项目参与同意书在双方同意的场所直接交回给张箏博士本人或者她的研究助理（Pam Malins; 李婉静）。

Project Title: A multiple case study of literacy curricula in Canadian transnational education programs in China

Principal Investigator: Dr. Zheng Zhang

LETTER OF INFORMATION

(Principal and school administrator)

We are Dr. Zheng Zhang and Dr. Rachel Heydon. We are faculty members at the Faculty of Education, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada. We are currently conducting research on Canadian offshore programmes in China. This research is funded by the Canadian federal government (SSHRC Insight Development Grant). We would like to invite you and your school to participate in this study because you have been involved in internationalizing Canadian provincial curricula to offshore Canadian schools.

The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research. The project is purposefully designed to produce the following impacts: 1) provide needed data sets of two majority Canadian provincial players in transnational education, 2) yield knowledge of the variations in intended, implemented, and lived curricula, and 3) identify the effects of these curricula on offshore students' literacy learning and identity formation.

Regarding your school's contribution to the project, we will 1) interview you or other recommended school administrators who are familiar with your school's literacy curriculum development and implementation (about 1 hour); 2) observe one English and one Mandarin literacy teachers' classes at your school (Classroom observations will focus on how literacy curricula are actualized by teachers and students within classrooms; the length of observation of each class will depend on the intensity of the class and a cycle of literacy-related activities defined by the teachers until saturation is reached [around 30 days based on prior studies]); 3) interview the English and Mandarin literacy teachers (about 1 hour) about their views on implementing the transnational literacy curricula, their input about professional development for educators in the transnational education settings, and their perceived impacts of implemented curricula upon students' literacy and identity options; and 4) interview students (about 30 minutes) about how they experience transnational education literacy curricula, collect their assignment samples, and invite them to use their preferred communication modes (e.g., pictures and audio/video recordings) to depict his/her literacy learning experience at the Canadian offshore school and how they perceive their identity(ies) as a result of learning at the school. As a way of modeling, the Principal Investigator will provide a sample of multimodal artifact of how she depicts her literacy learning experience and identity formation as a result of studying at a Canadian university.

All interviews will be conducted in a site that is mutually agreed upon between the participants and the research team. All interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed into written format. If you do not wish to be audio-recorded but still want to take part in the study, we will take notes of your responses to the interview questions. All classroom-based research will be conducted during the normal part of the program with exception of the interviews. All the observed classes will be audio-recorded by Dr. Zhang and transcribed into written format by our research assistants. We will not audio-record students who have not consented to participate. Granted students' consents, we will collect student assignments, take pictures (or audio-record the assignments if they are in audio formats), and return the assignments to students. These assignments will help shed light on students' literacy learning experience and identity formation at the Canadian school.

With regard to your personal contribution to the study, in the interview with you as principal or school administrator, you will be asked to talk about: the key elements of their curriculum development and adaptation, professional development opportunities germane to actualizing transnational literacy curricula, and your perceived impacts of intended curricula upon students' literacy and identity options. You will also be invited to check the transcripts and offer clarification, elaboration, or any other feedback you deem pertinent. You will be able to remove parts of the interview. The review of the transcript might take half an hour.

With regard to benefits of participation into the study, the participating schools and literacy teachers would benefit from sustained interactions and knowledge exchange with the research team regarding innovative approaches to literacy education and curriculum development in globalized schooling contexts. The principal investigator will conduct germane seminars as opportunities to provide on-site teacher training and, equally important, to exchange innovative ideas to actualize Canadian literacy curricula in varied classrooms in China. Through our extensive dissemination plan, Canadian ministries of education who are major transnational education players will be informed of innovative curricular approaches that the offshore Canadian schools are applying to assist Canadian policy-makers in expanding 21st Century learners' literacy and identity options in their fast-growing offshore programs.

The information collected will be used for research purposes only. Only we and our research assistants will have access to the tapes and transcripts. The researchers will keep any personal information about you in a secure and confidential location for a minimum of 5 years. A list linking your study number/pseudonym with your name will be kept by the researchers in a secure place, separate from your study file. With your permission, we

will use direct quotes. You may (or may not) be quoted directly in the research report, but once you are quoted, you will not be identified as the source of the quotation and any information that could identify you will be removed. If the results of the study are published, your name will not be used. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact Dr. Zhang. While we will do our best to protect the identity of you and your school and other potentially identifying information, there is no guarantee that we will be able to do so as your school might be the only school using a specific Canadian province's curriculum in your area. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any time with no effect on your status at your institution. If you choose to withdraw from this study, your data will be removed and destroyed from our database. Representatives of The University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may contact you or require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research.

There are no known risks or discomfort to participating in this study. We will make sure that your organization does not have any knowledge of your participation into this research if you require us to do so. We will give you new information that is learned during the study that might affect your decision to stay in the study. You do not waive any legal right by consenting to this study.

We will present a souvenir to each participant at your school as a thank-you note for their contribution to the current knowledge about literacy curriculum in offshore Canadian schools.

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Human Research Ethics, Western University, at XXX or XXX. If you have any questions about this study, please contact Dr. Zheng Zhang (Canada: XXX; China: XXX; Email: XXX). This letter is yours to keep for future reference.

Dr. Zheng Zhang
Assistant Professor
Faculty of Education
Western University

Consent Form

Project Title: A multiple case study of literacy curricula in Canadian transnational education programs in China

Principal Investigator: Dr. Zheng Zhang

Western University, London, Ontario, Canada

I have read the Letter of Information and have had the nature of the study explained to me. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate and give permission to the research team to (please select):

1. quote me directly in reports or publications on the premise that a pseudonym is used.

Yes No

2. audio-record the face-to-face interview. Yes No

3. take notes of my responses to the interview questions, if you do not wish to be audio-recorded but

still want to take part in the study. Yes No

Name of Principal/School Administrator (please print): _____

Signature of Principal or School Administrator: _____

Date: _____

Name of Person Obtaining Informed Consent: Zheng Zhang

Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent: _____

Date: _____

Contact Information of Principal Investigator:

Zheng Zhang (Canada: XXX; China: XXX; Email: XXX)

Note: Once the consent form is signed by all the above signers, the signed form will be returned to the Principal Investigator Dr. Zheng Zhang or her research assistants (Pam Malins: XXX; Wanjing Li: XXX or XXX) via encrypted emails. We will provide help

regarding how to encrypt and decode emailed documents. Alternatively, the signed form can be returned to Dr. Zheng Zhang or her research assistants (Pam Malins; Wanjing Li) in person at a place upon which is mutually agreed.

Appendix D: Letter of Information and Consent Forms to Teachers

研究项目名称：加拿大离岸教育语言课程规划的

多案例研究

研究项目信息介绍函

(英语教师或汉语教师)

主研究人：张箏

我们是张箏博士和 Rachel Heydon 博士，是加拿大安大略省伦敦市西安大略大学教育学院的教授。我们目前正在进行一项关于位于中国的加拿大高中离岸教育的研究。此项研究由加拿大政府研究津贴（SSHRC Insight Development Grant）资助。由于您的学校使用的是加拿大课程，我们在此诚挚邀请您参与此项研究。

这封研究项目信息介绍函旨在为您介绍此项研究。此项研究的目的是：1) 调研加拿大两个省的离岸教育状况；透析加拿大离岸教育为适应中国本土教育，而结合中国教育体系所做的创新课程规划，以及对加拿大课程所做的修订；2) 调研离岸教育课程各个层面的特征（政策层面、课堂课程实施状况、以及学生的学习体验）；3) 探索离岸教育中的课程规划对学生语言学习和身份认同的影响。

我们期待您参与本研究的以下环节：我们将观察您的课堂教学，观察的重点是您与学生对语言课程规划的具体实施。对您的教学班级的观察时间长短将取决于您对课程安排的强度和对语言教学周期的安排，根据以往研究项目的经验，该课堂观

察环节约历时 30 天。我们还会对您进行个人采访，目的是了解您对实施离岸语言课程的看法，对离岸语言教师师资培训的看法，以及您就离岸课程规划对于学生语言能力和身份认同的影响所持的观点。个人访谈环节约历时 1 小时。

我们会对课堂观察进行录音，但是，只有同意参加课堂观察环节的学生会被录音，没有同意参加课堂观察环节的学生不会被录音。通过课堂观察，我们希望了解：1) 学生和教师如何在课堂教学活动中具体实施中英文语言课程规划；2) 在各项课堂语言学习活动中，究竟有哪些语言学习和身份形成的选项可供学生选择。此外，征得学生同意后，我们还会收集您批改过的学生作业作为研究资料，目的是为了获取与学生语言学习和身份形成相关的研究资料，例如，学生语言学习作业的内容，学生表达自己的模式，以及您对学生作业的评语。我们会对收集到的作业进行拍照或录音（如果作业是录音文件），然后，将作业归还给学生。但是，我们不会对学生作业的质量和您对学生作业的评语做任何评价。在对您的个人访谈中，访谈地点将由您与我们研究团队共同协商决定，所有访谈内容将会被录音和转录成文字。您将有机会查看通过加密邮件寄送给您的访谈转录稿，我们会向您提供相关的邮件与文档加密和解密的服务。如果您不想被录音，但仍然想参加本项研究，我们会用笔记的形式记录您对于访谈问题的回答。除个人访谈环节外，所有课堂研究环节将会在日常的语言课程教学过程中进行。

此外，我们还会邀请您审阅访谈转录稿，并对相关内容进行进一步的解释和提出反馈意见。您有权建议删除访谈的内容。审阅访谈转录稿大约需要半个小时。

通过参与本项研究，您作为离岸教育的语言教师，将有机会与本研究团队就如何在国际化教育背景下进行语言教学与课程规划创新进行教学互动和交流。而且，我本人作为主研究人，也会以讲座的形式为您提供在职培训，并就在中国背景下创新式地实施加拿大语言课程与您进行交流。此外，我们还计划向在海外推广离岸教育的加拿大各个省教育部反馈研究结果，特别是使他们了解加拿大海外学校正在使用的创新型课程，以期加拿大课程政策制定者在迅速发展的加拿大离岸能有所借鉴，提高 21 世纪学习者的语言能力，并拓展就读离岸学校的学生对其身份认同内涵的理解。

研究中所收集的数据将只用于研究目的。只有我们和研究助理可以接触到访谈录音与文字转录稿。我们会将您的个人信息存放在安全保密的地方至少 5 年。记录您研究号码/假名的名单将会被存放在安全的地方，并且和您的研究档案分开存放。只有在征得您同意的前提下，我们才会直接引用您所说的话。我们可能会（也可能不会）直接在研究报告中引用您所说的话，但是，一旦您的话被引用，任何能识别您身份的信息将会被删除。尽管我们将尽全力保护您所在学校的身份信息，但如果该校是在您所属地区中唯一使用加拿大某特定省份课程的学校，我们将可能无法保证完全做到该校的身份不被识别。您的姓名不会出现在任何有关此项研究的出版物中。若您想要了解未来的研究发现，请联系我本人。您对本项研究的参与纯属自愿性质。您不参与此项研究，不愿回答任何问题，或在任何时间想退出本项研究，都不会对您的工作及工作地位产生任何影响。如果您选择退出本项研究，我们

将会从数据库中清除与您相关的所有数据及信息。此外，西安大略大学非医学研究伦理协会的代表将有可能联系您，或要求查看您参与本项研究的相关记录，其目的是监控本项研究的实施。

您参与本项研究将不会有任何已知风险或不适。应您的要求，我们不会向您所在学校透露您作为本项研究参与者的身份。在研究过程中，我们会向您及时提供可能影响您决定是否继续参与本项研究的最新信息。您同意参与本项研究不会影响您的任何合法权益。为了确保本次研究项目的可行性，当同意参与此项研究的教师人数达到预计的最高人数时，我们将不再继续招募教师参与此项研究。因此，您可能会、也可能不会被选为本次研究项目的参与者。在我们收到 5 封来自贵校教师签署的同意参与研究的同意书之后，我们将礼貌地通知您我们将停止在此校招募更多的教师参与者。

我们将会赠送您一份纪念品，以感谢所有您对于加拿大离岸语言课程研究的贡献。

若您对于本项研究的开展或您作为本项研究参与者的权利有任何疑问，请您联系西安大略大学研究伦理办公室（电话：XXX；电子邮件：XXX）。若您对于本项研究本身有任何问题，请您联系张笋博士（我本人）（加拿大电话：XXX；中国电话：XXX；电子邮件：XXX）。敬请惠存此函，以作日后参考。

张笋博士

助理教授

教育学院

西安大略大学

研究项目参与同意书

研究项目名称：加拿大离岸教育语言课程规划的

多案例研究

主研究人：张箬教授（加拿大安大略省伦敦市西安大略大学）

兹证明我已阅读了张箬教授和 Rachel Heydon 教授的研究项目信息介绍函，她们向我介绍了研究项目的本质，并回答了我的疑问。我同意参加此项研究，并允许她们的研究团队（请选择）：

1. 在使用假名的前提下，在研究报告或出版物中直接引用我说的话。

是

2. 对访谈进行录音。 是

3. 对所选的中英文课堂互动进行录音。 是

4. 使用笔记记录我对访谈问题的回答，如果我不想被录音，但仍想参与此项研究。

是

5. 收集被我批改过的学生作业。是 否

参与教师姓名（请用正楷填写）：_____

参与教师签名：_____ 日期：_____

研究者姓名：_____

研究者签名: _____ 日期: _____

回收该研究项目参与同意书的研究人员姓名: 张箐

回收该研究项目参与同意书的研究人员签名: _____

日期: _____

项目主研究人联系信息: 张箐 (加拿大电话: XXX; 中国电话: XXX; 电子邮件: XXX)

注意: 请将签署完成后的研究项目参与同意书以加密邮件的方式寄回给主研究人张箐博士

或者她的研究助理 (Pam Malins: XXX; 李婉静: XXX or XXX), 本研究团队会提供有关邮件与文档加密和解密的服务; 或者, 也可以将签署完成后的研究项目参与同意书在双方同意的场所直接交回给张箐博士本人或者她的研究助理 (Pam Malins; 李婉静)。

Project Title: A multiple case study of literacy curricula in Canadian transnational education programs in China

Principal Investigator: Dr. Zheng Zhang

LETTER OF INFORMATION

(English or Mandarin Literacy Teachers)

We are Dr. Zheng Zhang and Dr. Rachel Heydon. We are faculty members at the Faculty of Education, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada. We are currently conducting research on Canadian offshore programmes in China. This research is funded by the Canadian federal government (SSHRC Insight Development Grant). We would like to invite you to participate in this study because your school has been involved in internationalizing Canadian provincial curricula to offshore Canadian schools.

The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research. The project is purposefully designed to produce the following impacts: 1) provide needed data sets of two majority Canadian provincial players in transnational education, 2) yield knowledge of the variations in intended, implemented, and lived curricula, and 3) identify the effects of these curricula on offshore students' literacy learning and identity formation.

With regard to your personal contribution to the study, we will observe your English or Mandarin literacy classes. Classroom observations will focus on how literacy curricula are actualized by teachers and students within classrooms; the length of observation of each class will depend on the intensity of the class and a cycle of literacy-related activities defined by the teachers until saturation is reached (around 30 days based on prior studies). We will interview you (about 1 hour) about your views on implementing the transnational literacy curricula, your input about professional development for educators in the transnational education settings, and your perceived impacts of implemented curricula upon students' literacy and identity options.

We will audio-record the class observation without audio-recording students who have not consented to participate. From classroom observations, we hope to glean 1) data of how the English and Mandarin literacy curricula are actualized by teachers and students within classrooms and 2) data of literacy events and practices in classrooms which can shed light on what types of literacy and identity options are provided to students. We will also collect student assignments with your comments if they grant us consents to do so. We will collect their assignments, take pictures (or audio-record the assignments if they

are in audio formats), and return the assignments to students. There will be no evaluation of the quality of students' assignments or teachers' comments on the assignments. We will only elicit data such as content of literacy assignments, modes that students use to represent meanings, and teachers' comments, which are pertinent to literacy and identity options provided to students. The interview will be conducted in a site that is mutually agreed upon between you and the research team. The interview will be audio-recorded and transcribed into written format. You will review the transcript sent via encrypted emails. We will provide help regarding how to encrypt and decode emailed documents. If you do not wish to be audio-recorded but still want to take part in the study, we will take notes of your responses to the interview questions. All classroom-based research will be conducted during the normal part of the program with exception of the interview.

You will also be invited to check the transcripts and offer clarification, elaboration, or any other feedback you deem pertinent. You will be able to remove parts of the interview. The review of the transcript might take half an hour.

With regard to benefits of participation into the study, the participating literacy teachers would benefit from sustained interactions and knowledge exchange with the research team regarding innovative approaches to literacy education and curriculum development in globalized schooling contexts. The principal investigator will conduct germane seminars as opportunities to provide on-site teacher training and, equally important, to exchange innovative ideas to actualize Canadian literacy curricula in varied classrooms in China. Through our extensive dissemination plan, Canadian ministries of education who are major transnational education players will be informed of innovative curricular approaches that the offshore Canadian schools are applying to assist Canadian policy-makers in expanding 21st Century learners' literacy and identity options in their fast-growing offshore programs.

The information collected will be used for research purposes only. Only we and our research assistants will have access to the tapes and transcripts. The researchers will keep any personal information about you in a secure and confidential location for a minimum of 5 years. A list linking your study number/pseudonym with your name will be kept by the researchers in a secure place, separate from your study file. With your permission, we will use direct quotes. You may (or may not) be quoted directly in the research report, but once you are quoted, you will not be identified as the source of the quotation and any information that could identify you will be removed. While we will do our best to protect

the identity of your school and other potentially identifying information, there is no guarantee that we will be able to do so as your school might be the only school using a specific Canadian province's curriculum in your area. If the results of the study are published, your name will not be used. If you would like to receive a copy of any potential study results, please contact Dr. Zhang. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any time with no effect on your status at your institution. If you choose to withdraw from this study, your data will be removed and destroyed from our database. Representatives of The University of Western Ontario Non-Medical Research Ethics Board may contact you or require access to your study-related records to monitor the conduct of the research.

There are no known risks or discomfort to participating in this study. We will make sure that your organization does not have any knowledge of your participation into this research if you require us to do so. We will give you new information that is learned during the study that might affect your decision to stay in the study. You do not waive any legal right by consenting to this study. You may be or may not be selected as participants for the study if the number of interested teachers who sign the consent forms reaches the estimated maximum to ensure the feasibility of the study. After we receive a maximum number of 5 consents from teachers at your school, we will respectfully inform you that we have finished teacher recruitment at the school.

We will present a souvenir to you as a thank-you note for your contribution to the current knowledge about literacy curriculum in offshore Canadian schools.

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Human Research Ethics, Western University, at 1-844-720-9816 or ethics@uwo.ca. If you have any questions about this study, please contact Dr. Zheng Zhang (Canada: XXX; China: XXX; Email: XXX). This letter is yours to keep for future reference.

Dr. Zheng Zhang
Assistant Professor
Faculty of Education
Western University

Consent Form

Project Title: A multiple case study of literacy curricula in Canadian transnational education programs in China

Principal Investigator: Dr. Zheng Zhang

Western University, London, Ontario, Canada

I have read the Letter of Information and have had the nature of the study explained to me. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate and give permission to the research team to (please select):

1. quote me directly in reports or publications on the premise that a pseudonym is used.

Yes No

2. audio-record the face-to-face interview. Yes No

3. audio-record interactions in the selected English and/or Mandarin classes. Yes No

4. take notes of my responses to the interview questions, if I do not wish to be audio-recorded but

still wants to take part in the study. Yes No

5. collect my students' assignments with my comments

Yes No

Name of teacher participant (please print): _____

Signature of teacher participant: _____ Date: _____

Name of Person Obtaining Informed Consent: Zheng Zhang

Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent: _____

Date: _____

Contact Information of Principal Investigator:

Zheng Zhang (Canada: XXX; China: XXX; Email: XXX)

Note: Once the consent form is signed by all the above signers, the signed form will be returned to the Principal Investigator Dr. Zheng Zhang or her research assistants (Pam Malins: XXX; Wanjing Li: XXX or XXX) via encrypted emails. We will provide help regarding how to encrypt and decode emailed documents. Alternatively, the signed form can be returned to Dr. Zheng Zhang or her research assistants (Pam Malins; Wanjing Li) in person at a place upon which is mutually agreed.

Appendix E: Interview Questions for Teachers

Interview Questions for Teachers (Mandarin)

Overarching structure, philosophy and key planning texts (Intended and Hidden Curricula)

1. 请描绘您执教的班级（如班级的学生组成，规模，这个班级在加拿大联教育项目中担当的角色，学生的学业水平，和学生中文英文的水平）。
2. 请描述您所执教班级学生的类型和他们家庭的类型（比如学生的民族，他们家庭的社会经济阶层状态，学生是否通过了高中统考分数线，及他们选择加拿大离岸教育项目的原因）。
3. 请谈谈您对于你现在所采用的针对英语/语文教学的教育理论或教学方法的理解。
4. 现在您所在学校所采用的加拿大英文和中文课程规划的具体教学内容是什么？
比如您可以从以下方面详细描绘英文课程：英语阅读课、写作课、口语课、听力课、观看与作品展示类的课程（多元媒体语言能力）、和批判性语言学习类课程。
5. 贵校将上述中文课程和英文课程相结合的理论依据是什么？上述各种英文课程之间又是如何相关联的？

Opportunities for Students and Educators in the Canadian Offshore Program (Operational Curricula)

6. 有哪些主要的语言教育哲学或理论在总体上影响了您的教学呢？例如，将读者的个人体验与文化体验同阅读文本相结合的社会文化理论、语言教学惯例（语言教学技巧）、批判性理论、多元媒体语言能力理论、和新型语言能力理论。
7. 您在学生时代的英语/语文学习经验有没有影响您现在的教学？是怎样影响的？
8. 您个人生活经历经验有没有影响您现在的教学？是怎样影响的？比如跨文化婚姻，成为世界型公民，移民，您对社会公正，环境保护，性别的看法，或者有关于多语言多文化的经历。
9. 您在师范类院校或者其他教师培训机构接受的教育有没有影响您现在的教学？是怎样影响的？
10. 科学技术，批判性理论，多模态文学理论这些因素有没有出现在我国，加拿大，您的学校和您个人的教学理念或教学方法中？他们是怎样关联进这些教学理念或教学方法的？
11. 您在执教过程中有没有使用某些具体的教学方法或资源（比如科技设施）？您的学校在哪些方面帮助鼓励了您使用这些方法或资源？您还希望学校能在这些方面为您提供哪些帮助？

12. 读写能力的培养（比如纸质材料上的读写能力，口语能力）(i.e., literacy) 有没有出现在中国，加拿大，您的学校或您个人的教学理念或方法中？如果有，它是怎样关联进这些教学理论或方法种的？
13. 在您备课的过程中，您希望加拿大离岸课程项目为学生提供哪些有关语言的学习机会和身份内涵选择权？
14. 在将加拿大或者国际课程移植进您的学校，教授给学生时，您对课程做了哪些改变来使他们更适用于您的学生？
15. 您的学校有没有试图将英语课和语文课结合起来，以促进学生的“全面语言能力”的发展？
16. 您的学校计划在加拿大离岸课程中为学生提供哪些类型的语言学习机会（特别是那些与培养学生的新型语言能力、多元媒体语言能力、以及批判性语言能力相关的学习机会）？
17. 有哪些主要的因素（如教学理念、家长的期望、和学生校外的学习等因素）影响了您学校采用了现在的教学方式？
18. 您的学校在制定整体课程规划时，有哪些具体的文本、文件和政策是考量因素？

Opportunities for Students and Educators in the Canadian Offshore Program (Hidden, and Null Curricula)

1. 有没有您想为学生提供，现在却无法提供给他们们的学习机会？如果有，是哪些？是哪些原因限制了您？您认为在加拿大离岸项目中有哪些是遗漏的，有哪些是没有教授给学生的？
2. 你认为促进形成文学类课程学习的最大化需要哪些条件？
3. 您作为教育者，在为学生提供学习机会，决定教课内容和教授手段上，您在学校中的角色和定位是什么？
4. 在为加拿大离岸项目中的这些学生提供语言能力学习机会时，特别是为学生提供掌握不同类型的语言能力的学习机会时，教师们得到了哪些相关的支持或个人职业培训机会？

Comparison with Regular Public High Schools (all levels of curricula)

1. 您认为贵校的加拿大离岸课程项目与加拿大公立高中的课程项目有哪些不同或相似之处？请从以下几个方面谈一下您的看法：教育理论与教学途径、学生的语言能力学习机会、学生对自我身份内涵的选择、教育者、以及任何其它您认为相关的方面。
2. 您对中国的，以及稍落后地区中加拿大离岸教育项目现状的看法是什么？

3. 您会怎样批判加拿大离岸课程项目所导致教育不平等，英语在语言领域的帝国主义、和西方中心主义？

Interview Questions for Teachers (English)

Overarching structure, philosophy and key planning texts (Intended and Hidden Curricula)

1. Please describe your class (e.g., classroom make-up, size, its role in the Canadian offshore program, students' academic levels, and students' Mandarin or English proficiency levels).
2. Please describe the types of families and students you serve (e.g., ethnic groups, socio-economic status of the family, students above/below the cut-off level of high school entrance examination, and reasons that they chose the Canadian offshore program).
3. What's your understanding of the philosophy/approach of your school with respect to literacy? (institutional curriculum)
4. What is taught using a Canadian provincial English literacy curriculum (reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing and representing [multimodal literacy], critical literacy) and what is taught using the Chinese curriculum (Chinese and Canadian provincial/international programmatic curriculum)?
5. What's the rationale to combine the two at your school? How do these English curricula relate? (programmatic curriculum)

Opportunities for Students and Educators in the Canadian Offshore Program (Operational Curricula)

6. What major literacy education philosophies/theories (Sociocultural theory [connecting individual and cultural experience of the reader with the text], literacy conventions (literacy devices), critical theory/pedagogy/literacy, multimodal literacies, new literacies) inform your own approach of literacy education in general? (teacher's belief)
7. How would your approach of literacy education be influenced by your literacy learning experience when you were a student?

8. How would your approach of literacy education be influenced by your life experience? (teacher identity: inter-cultural marriage, being global, immigrant, social activism (social equity, environment protection, gender issues), experience with linguistic and cultural diversity)
9. How would your approach of literacy education be influenced by your teacher education in teacher's college? (teacher identity: teacher education)
10. How are information and technology literacy, critical literacy (to promote social change), and multimodal literacies (if any) related to China's Canada's, your school's, and your own philosophy or approach of literacy?
11. What specific literacy teaching approaches and resources (e.g., technological devices) are you using in your classes? What conditions that the school provides that enable your literacy teaching approaches and use of resources? What conditions do you think the school can provide to enable literacy teaching approaches and use of resources?
12. How is academic literacy (if any) (e.g., print-based; written and oral) related to China's Canada's, your school's, and your own philosophy or approach of literacy?
13. What do you hope to provide to your students in the Canadian offshore program vis-à-vis literacy and their identity options in your preparation for literacy teaching?
14. What accommodations do you intend to make for the Canadian/international literacy curricula to better fit the student population at your school situated in China?
15. What are some of the major ways, if any, your organization attempts to connect English and Mandarin curricula to enable students' "full linguistic potential"?
16. What types of literacy learning opportunities (particularly those related to new literacies, multimodal literacy, and critical literacy) does your organization

attempt to provide for students in the Canadian offshore program?

17. What major influences (e.g., school's mission statement, parental expectations, students' outside of school literacy practices etc.) inform your organization's approach in general?
18. What specific texts/documents/policies do you take into consideration in your organization's (curricular) planning in general?

Opportunities for Students and Educators in the Canadian Offshore Program (Hidden, and Null Curricula)

1. Are there literacy learning opportunities you would like to provide but cannot at this time? If yes, what are they? (constraints) What might be missing or not taught or provided in the Canadian offshore program?
2. What would be needed for the creation of optimum literacy-related learning opportunities?
3. What is your role as an educator in providing these opportunities and deciding how and what to teach within your school? [definition of literacy, material selection, genre choices, assessment design, language choices]?
4. What supports/professional development opportunities are provided to educators in the provision of literacy-related learning opportunities (particularly those related to different types of literacy) particularly for students enrolled in the Canadian Offshore Program?
5. What are your suggestions for teacher education for Canadian offshore schools?
6. In what ways, if any, is your organization's Canadian offshore program different or similar to those offered in the Canadian/Chinese public high schools with respect to: philosophy/approach, literacy learning opportunities, and identity options available to students, educators, anything else you consider to be pertinent?

Comparing with regular public high schools.

1. What are your thoughts regarding Canadian offshore programs in China or less developed regions? (particularly in relation to literacy learning opportunities and the identity options available for students)?
2. What are your thoughts regarding critique of offshore Canadian schools as promoting educational inequality, linguistic imperialism of English, and Western-centralism?

Curriculum Vitae

| | |
|---|--|
| Name | Wanjing Li |
| Post-secondary Education and Degrees | <p>Liaoning Normal University Dalian, Liaoning, China 2008-2012 B.A.</p> <p>Nanjing Normal University Nanjing, Jiangsu, China 2012-2014 M.T. I (Master of Translation and Interpreting)</p> <p>The University of Western Ontario London, Ontario, Canada 2015-present</p> |
| Honours and Awards | AER Graduate Scholarship for Literacy Studies in Education 2015, 2016 |
| Related Work Experience | <p>English Teacher of Grade 7 and Grade 12 Anhui Concord College of Sino-Canada 2015-2016</p> <p>Research Assistant of SSHRC IDG Project (PI: Zheng Zhang) The University of Western Ontario 2016-2017</p> <p>Research Assistant of FRDF Project (PI: Zheng Zhang) The University of Western Ontario February 2017</p> <p>Reviewer of submissions of the 14th LLRC Pre-conference CSSE</p> |

Ryerson University

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May 27th, 2017

Reviewer of Journal of Language & Literacy

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annual meeting

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