Chinese Language Provision for Ethnolinguistic Minorities in Hong Kong Primary and Secondary Schools: Policy, Practice, and Phenomenology



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Abstract

After the 1997 handover, policymakers in Hong Kong have instituted a series of language policies that emphasise the importance of the Chinese language to rebrand the postcolonial city as a 'biliterate and trilingual' financial hub in Asia. One unintended consequence, however, is that a burgeoning population of linguistically and culturally diverse students struggles to learn Chinese — i.e., Cantonese as the spoken code and Standard Written Chinese as the written code — as an additional language (CAL), which has escalated into a notable language education issue because later-life prospects are increasingly dependent upon their proficiency in Chinese as a majority language. Informed by findings of a systematic review carried out as part of the present study, and the Douglas Fir Group's (2016) call for a transdisciplinary framework encompassing the micro, meso, and macro levels of additional language learning in a given milieu, a multi-dimensional, mixed-methods design was adopted to problematise CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students with CAL needs as the focal language policy and planning (LPP) phenomenon in post-1997 Hong Kong, as well as to particularise local realities with a cross-section of CAL instructional spaces and key participants therein.

Through uniting both emic and etic paradigms, exploratory light was shone on the following dimensions of the existing phase of CAL provision (i.e., from 2014 onwards): (i) CAL policy intentions; (ii) CAL policy enactments; and (iii) experiences of CAL students and teachers who have lived through the current policy ecology. Five methods — qualitative content analysis, language assessments, questionnaires, lesson observations, and phenomenological interviews — were employed. Concerning CAL policy intentions (i.e., the 'Policy' domain), textual data from a sample of 173 policy documents published since 1997 were gathered and analysed using the method of qualitative content analysis. As for CAL policy enactments (i.e., the 'Practice' domain), two primary schools and two secondary counterparts were purposively recruited to explore CAL instruction vis-à-vis the primary-secondary interface. Data from this domain consisted of (i) student data drawn from having administered language assessments and questionnaires with 101 students, and (ii) classroom data from having observed 24 lessons (i.e., 1394 minutes) taught by four CAL teachers. To further triangulate policy and practice data, phenomenological interviews (i.e., the 'Phenomenology' domain) were administered with a subsample of 15 CAL students from the four CAL settings observed, as well as their four teachers.

At the macro level of policy, the current phase of CAL provision is largely intended as decentralised programmes of policy measures at K-12 levels, which is further

supported by CAL measures aiming to strengthening the infrastructural and/or nonformal aspects of CAL provision (e.g., research and resources). Despite demonstrably enhanced CAL provision since the introduction of 'Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework' in 2014, results of the analysis point to the existence of policy incongruities: on one hand, the government intends to facilitate CAL students' integration into the *mainstream* curriculum; on the other hand, the government authorises and subsidises CAL students to seek *alternative* qualifications in Chinese. At the micro level of policy enactment across the primary-secondary interface, classroom data demonstrate, among other findings, that CAL instruction at secondary levels is associated with a narrower range of CAL talk and task characteristics, with noticeable alignment with overseas Chinese-as-a-foreign-language assessments (i.e., prioritising alternative arrangements). Yet, this pattern of instructional alignment is not identified among CAL settings at primary levels, with classroom data pointing to their orientation towards the mainstream curriculum, as well as the affordances of adopting mixed-abilities grouping and differentiated materials to manage CAL learner diversity. Apart from corroborating findings gleaned from the classrooms, interview data offer additional insights into the diverse realities experienced by CAL teachers and their minority students, especially in areas relating to CAL curriculum development and implementation, CAL learning experiences in postcolonial Hong Kong, and their respective identity trajectories.

Taken together, although CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students has received ample policy attention and been accordingly enhanced from 2014 onwards (e.g., increased commitments of recurrent funds, and CAL measures targeting the kindergarten sector), it has all along been subject to the ecological influences of a laissez-faire policy ecology favouring school-based management and loose coupling (see Weick, 1976), as well as the broader examination-driven culture. Against this backdrop of CAL decision-making (e.g., curriculum development and resource allocation) devolved to frontline practitioners situated at various key K-12 stages, it is argued that secondary CAL teachers' agentive actions instantiate what Cummins (2000) refers to as 'the narrowing of the curriculum brought about by teaching to the test' (p.248). In other words, CAL instructional spaces lack coordination between primary levels and secondary counterparts. The tight coupling formed between CAL instruction at secondary levels and overseas Chinese assessments (i.e., short-term CAL goals) might possibly undercut the intended efficacy of existing CAL provision as a whole. Potential future research avenues are explored with implications for further policy optimisation that attends to the constraining effects of the policy ecology (e.g., the lack of a sound assessment-cum-accountability system) on local actions, in hopes that more efforts will be purposively channelled towards the long-term and worthwhile CAL goals of mainstreaming and socially just integration.

Dedication

To my parents,
my strength and source of optimism and resilience.

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List of Abbreviations

ACL	Alternative qualifications in Chinese Language
ApL(C)	Applied Learning (Chinese)
AQA	Assessment and Qualifications Alliance
CAL	Chinese-as-an-Additional-Language
CDC	Curriculum Development Council
CFL	Chinese-as-a-First-Language
CIE	Cambridge Assessment International Education
CLLSC	Chinese Language Learning Support Centre(s)
EDB	Education Bureau
EOC	Equal Opportunities Commission
GCE	General Certificate of Education with
	AS-level standing for Advanced Subsidiary level
	A-level standing for Advanced level
GCSE	Generate Certificate of Secondary Education with
	IGCSE standing for its international version
HKCEE	Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination
HKDSE	Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education
HKEAA	Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority
HKSAR	Hong Kong Special Administrative Region
IndP	Induction Programme(s)
IniP	Initiation Programme(s)
KGCG	Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide
LA	Language Assessment(s)
LBQ	Language Background Questionnaire(s)
LF	Language Fund
LPP	Language Policy and Planning
LO	Lesson Observation(s)
MMR	Mixed-methods research

NGO	Non-governmental Organisation(s)
OCR	Oxford, Cambridge and RSA Examinations
PIS	Phenomenological Interview(s) with Students
PIT	Phenomenological Interview(s) with Teachers
PRC	People's Republic of China
QCA	Qualitative Content Analysis
QEF	Quality Education Fund
SBP	Summer Bridging Programme(s)
SBSS	School-based Support Service(s)
SCOLAR	Standing Committee on Language Education and Research
SEN	Special educational need(s)
SLA	Second Language Acquisition with **iSLA** standing for instructed Second Language Acquisition
SME	Subject Matter Expert(s)
ST	Student turn(s)
SWCsim	Standard Written Chinese (simplified script)
SWCtra	Standard Written Chinese (traditional script)
TEI	Tertiary institution(s)
TSA	Territory-wide Assessment(s)
TT	Teacher turn(s)
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
USP	University-School Partnership

1. Introduction

1.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- introduces the focal issue under investigation (1.2);
- includes a historical account of Chinese-as-an-Additional-Language (CAL) policies from 1997 to the present (1.3);
- outlines the statement of the problem (1.4), the background and positionality of the researcher (1.5), the overarching research question that guided the present enquiry (1.6), as well as its significance (1.7); and
- summarises the organisation of this doctoral dissertation (1.8).

1.2. The issue

The historic handover of Hong Kong from the United Kingdom to the People's Republic of China on 1 July 1997 is often regarded as one of the most momentous events in the twentieth century because it marked not only the symbolic end of the British Empire (see Judith, 1998; Brendon, 2007), but also the beginning of a new chapter for post-1997 Hong Kong as a highly autonomous polity after 156 years of British rule. The enshrinement of 'One Country, Two Systems' in the Sino-British Joint Declaration gave the impression that the 1997 change of sovereignty might be nothing more than the replacement of the Union Jack with the Five-starred Red Flag, or the supersedence of the royal insignia by the national emblem of the People's Republic of China. Yet, since 1997, policy makers in Hong Kong have incrementally instituted a series of de-colonising language policies — for notable examples, Mother Tongue Education (Education Department, 1997) and Putonghua-medium Education (Curriculum Development Council, 1999; SCOLAR, 2003, 2008) — that emphasise the importance of the Chinese language in a bid to rebrand the city as a cosmopolitan 'biliterate and trilingual' financial hub in Asia. It is against this backdrop that one unintended consequence — that of linguistically and culturally diverse students struggling to learn Chinese as a majority language[1] — has gradually become a noteworthy concern both internationally and locally[2]. The situation has

[1] The Chinese language is a polycentric language with several codified forms. In Hong Kong, Chinese is commonly understood as the combination of Cantonese with Standard Written Chinese with the traditional Chinese scripts. That said, as per the policy of 'biliteracy and trilingualism', Chinese includes the learning of Putonghua as a spoken code. For details of the sociolinguistic situation in Hong Kong, refer to 3.3.1.1.

[2] Chinese language education to ethnolinguistic minority children and youth has been regularly discussed in United Nations committees on human and child rights, and the elimination of racial discrimination (see South China Morning Post, 2013a, 2013b, 2018b). Locally, China language education has been repeatedly raised as an educational issue in the Legislative Council since 1997.

been further compounded by global patterns of step migration fuelled by globalisation and transnationalism. Like other low-conflict world cities (e.g., London) around the globe, post-1997 Hong Kong[3] is a preferred destination of international migrants and is experiencing what Vertovec (2007, 2010) and others (e.g., Blommaert, 2013; Phillimore, 2015) have theorised as superdiversity.

Although postcolonial Hong Kong remains a predominantly Chinese society (Loper, 2004; Kennedy, 2006; Law & Lee, 2012), its population of ethnolinguistic minorities has grown by 70% from 342,198 in 2006 to 584,383 in 2016 (Census and Statistics Department, 2017). According to the latest population by-census conducted in 2016, this growing population of ethnolinguistic minorities, accounting for 8% of the overall population of Hong Kong, can be further divided into various ethnolinguistic subgroups with non-Chinese Asians constituting the majority. These non-Chinese Asian groups are mostly of South and Southeast Asian origins with the majority of their children born in Hong Kong and receiving formal education across various educational levels (Census and Statistics Department, 2012). They continue to face difficulties in livelihood, education, employment, and adaptation to a primarily homogeneous Chinese society, as documented and reported by the press (New York Times, 2013; Al Jazeera, 2014; South China Morning Post, 2013a 2013b, 2014, 2015a & 2015b; BBC, 2015; China Daily, 2017), statutory bodies (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2011, 2017; Legislative Council, 2015, 2016), academia (Loper, 2004; Kennedy & Hue, 2011; Bhowmik & Kennedy, 2012; Hong Kong Institute of Education, 2013), and non-governmental organisations (Yang Memorial Methodist Social Service, 2000; Save the Children Hong Kong, 2003; Hong Kong Unison, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2017).

Specifically, Hong Kong's Chinese language provision for minority and immigrant students has been intensely criticised as insufficient and is often considered a chief cause for limited social mobility of ethnolinguistic families and inter-generational poverty. In this respect, Gao's (2011) analysis of colonial and postcolonial policies demonstrates a policy shift from the former pre-handover diglossic bilingualism to the present-day 'biliteracy and trilingualism', which offers a useful point of entry to approach the phenomenon of inadequate Chinese language provision. She argues that English's high linguistic capital as a lingua franca is increasingly being shared by Chinese in post-1997 Hong Kong (Bourdieu, 1986, 1991; Silver, 2005). Therefore, the combination of Standard Written Chinese with Cantonese — a prestige variety of the Chinese language — has instantaneously become a high language since 1997,

[3] Data from United Nations has indicated that, as of 2019, Hong Kong has a net immigration rate of 2.1 migrants/1000 population. Migration Policy Institute has listed Hong Kong SAR as one of the top 25 destinations of international migrants.

which inevitably forms the main obstacle for non-Chinese-speaking groups (i.e., South Asians) to be upwardly mobile since access to higher education and career prospects are dependent on a satisfactory command of Chinese. In fact, in a report submitted to the then Central Policy Unit of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) government before the enactment of the *Race Discrimination Ordinance* in 2008, Kennedy (2006) deems the provision of Chinese as a majority language as 'the single most important issue for ethnic minority students' (p.2).

Language provision for ethnolinguistic minority students, as the focal phenomenon under investigation in the present study, falls into the applied linguistics terrain of language policy and planning (LPP). An existing consensus among LPP scholars (e.g., Lo Bianco, 2004; Hornberger, 2006; see also Haugen, 1966; Kloss, 1969) is that language planning activities entail status planning, acquisition planning, and corpus planning with each category mapping respectively onto the uses of language, the users of language, and language itself. While these three main types of planning may not be distinctly demarcated in practice, it can be seen that, in post-handover Hong Kong, there is a focus on status planning with minimal attention paid towards acquisition and corpus planning. Given that the attainment of 'biliteracy and trilingualism' is now widely considered a prerequisite for the full membership into the present-day Hong Kong society (Lai, 2001), ethnolinguistic minority groups are among the most affected groups after the handover. Their low literacy or even illiteracy in Chinese — which had never been an issue in British Hong Kong owing to diglossic language policies which privileged English — has become increasingly salient and urgent as a socioeducational issue in postcolonial Hong Kong.

1.3. A brief history of CAL provision from 1997 to the present

CAL policies since 1997 in Figure 1 are systematised from a series of policy papers and briefs from the Legislative Council (see Appendix 1.1 on page 393; see also Tsang, 2020), and can be periodised into three key phases. In Phase 1, CAL support was almost non-existent, and students could choose from a narrow pool of schools which offered classes in foreign languages such as French and Urdu. In Phase 2, which marked the beginning of governmental consciousness of the need to facilitate ethnolinguistic minority students' integration into the Hong Kong community, the Education Bureau (EDB) implemented two momentous policy measures: firstly, minority parents were allowed to opt for mainstream primary and secondary schools (including both Chinese- and English-medium schools) in the public sector, which wedged open spaces for mainstreaming; secondly, the EDB commenced a special support scheme to allocate designated funding to 15 chosen primary and secondary

schools, spearheading a unique breed of English-medium schools with a focus on delivering a mediated Chinese curriculum to assist ethnolinguistic minority children in learning Chinese with greater support.

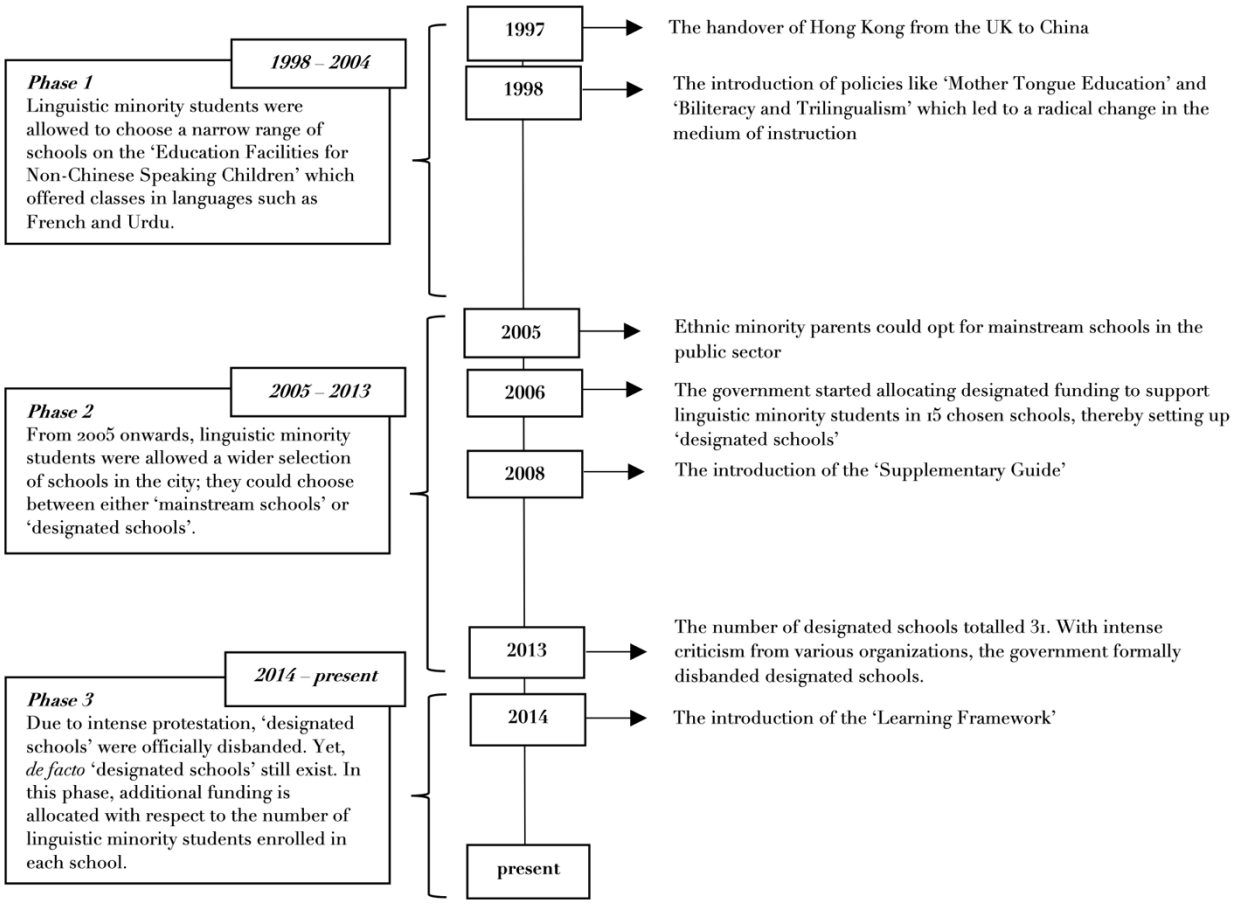


Figure 1 | CAL policies from 1997 to the present

Regrettably, both designated schools and mainstream counterparts fell short and were deemed inadequate (see Shum, Gao, & Ki, 2016; Tsang 2020). On the one hand, the total number of designated schools doubled from only 15 in 2006 to 31 in 2013, which signified a demand for such schools among ethnolinguistic minority groups. However, reports from a local advocacy group, Hong Kong Unison, and other documents submitted to the Legislative Council identified that more than half of Hong Kong's ethnolinguistic minority students were, consequently, concentrated in these 31 designated schools at both primary and secondary levels, where minority students could constitute up to 99% of the student population in some settings. Designated schools, therefore, became sites of government-induced racial segregation where ethnolinguistic minority students seldom interacted with ethnic Chinese students and had no systematic access to Chinese commonly expected of mainstream schools. On the other hand, mainstream schools were deemed

ineffective because their associations with sink-or-swim practices, otherwise known as submersion, which have been traditionally criticised for failing to meet the needs of ethnolinguistic minority students. Understandably, there were high dropout rates among mainstream schools admitting minority students (Li & Chuk, 2014). In this regard, Shum, Gao and Ki (2016), in a study documenting language challenges faced by minority students in mainstream settings, aptly observe that equality of presence does not necessitate equality of access to quality Chinese education. In 2011, 'there were 7,703 non-Chinese minority students enrolled in mainstream primary schools compared to 13,260 in "designated" schools, and 6,373 in mainstream secondary schools compared to 9,023 in "designated" secondary schools' (Census and Statistics Department, 2012, as cited in Shum, Gao, & Ki, 2016, p.535), which meant there was roughly a 6:4 distribution of ethnolinguistic minority students in both designated and mainstream schools respectively.

Up until 2013, following intense criticism from the media, statutory bodies, and activist groups, the government disbanded designated schools, which marked the commencement of Phase 3 of CAL provision, a period the present study seeks to investigate. In this phase, the government has largely adopted a mainstreaming policy which intends to encourage parents of minority students to choose mainstream schools in the public sector. As a signature feature of the mainstreaming policy in this phase, the government has introduced the 'Learning Framework', an official yet sub-curricular document, that aims to help CAL teachers adapt and simplify the mainstream Chinese-as-a-first-language curriculum for ethnolinguistic minority students with the eventual vision of enabling CAL students to bridge over to 'mainstream Chinese Language classes'. In tandem, starting from the 2014/2015 school year, the government has been providing additional, recurrent funds to *all* local schools (i.e., both ordinary and special schools) admitting CAL students to enable them to enact the 'Learning Framework' and the bridge-over.

In sum, CAL policies through these two decades are tangible (as opposed to merely rhetorical and symbolic) and largely reactive to public scrutiny. It should also be noted that the government has put in place an assessment policy of exempting minority students from taking the mainstream Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (HKDSE) (or its predecessors) Chinese assessment throughout Phases 2 and 3, and of subsidising them to take alternative qualifications in Chinese from the UK, as long as they have been educated in Hong Kong for less than 6 years, or that they have been exposed to a simplified Chinese language curriculum. As such, the policy of allowing and subsidising minority students to seek alternative qualifications in Chinese is non-selectively available to both newly-arrived and locally-born CAL students insofar as they have been exposed to simplified curricula.

1.4. Statement of the problem

To date, the HKSAR government has, among other measures, been allocating additional, recurrent funds – roughly around $200 million (around £20 million) per annum since the 2014/2015 school year – to facilitate CAL provision across K-12 levels. The central mission is to help CAL students 'overcome the difficulties of learning Chinese as a second language with a view to facilitating their effective learning of Chinese and enabling them to *bridge over to mainstream Chinese Language classes* [emphasis added]' (Education Bureau, 2017, p.1), and to 'prepare them for further studies and career pursuits' (Legislative Council, 2018b, p.847). That means, the policy shift towards mainstreaming, apart from merely disbanding 'designated schools' and incentivising CAL students' schooling in mainstream settings, is ambitiously defined as a process of strengthening the capacities of all K-12 schools to serve CAL students, so that a bridge-over to native-like Chinese proficiency is possible for further education and employment purposes. In view of the urgency of the mainstreaming imperative, questions abound regarding why the government has yet to make arrangements for a tailor-made CAL curriculum with an appropriate language assessment to realise the rather focused policy goal of a bridge-over. Concerning that, the government dismisses the necessity of such measures, assuring that current provision 'can be seen as a "Chinese as a Second Language Curriculum" (Legislative Council, 2014, p.8361), and urging relevant parties to be patient with the existing measures whose 'effectiveness…can only be clearly seen over time' (p.8362).

	2012	2013	2014*	2015	2016	2017
Total numbers of CAL students sitting the HKDSE Examination	510	568	731	830	1046	1072
Total numbers of CAL students taking the HKDSE (Chinese) Examination (%)	95 (18.6)	120 (21.2)	113 (15.5)	97 (11.7)	116 (11.1)	106 (9.9)
Total numbers of CAL students attaining Level 3** or above (%)	22 (23.2)	37 (30.8)	27 (23.9)	21 (21.6)	32 (27.6)	28 (26.4)
Percentages of all students attaining Level 3** or above	49.0	51.5	50.7	52.6	55.2	54.4

**2014 is the year when 'Phase 3' – with the policy measures of disbanding 'designated schools' and allocating funding to any schools admitting CAL students – began.*

***Level 3 is considered a pass in the HKDSE (Chinese) Examination.*

Table 1 | HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination statistics tabulated from Hansard by Legislative Council (2018a)

However, available statistics paint a rather grim picture. Official figures relating to the numbers of CAL minority taking the mainstream HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination[4] (see Table 1) reveal that although the total number of CAL students

[4] Please note that these figures are the only publicly accessible statistics indicative of the extent to which the policy of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes' has happened on a satisfactory scale. They were released at the request of a Legislative Council member.

sitting the local HKDSE examination has increased by 50% since 2012, the proportion of CAL students taking the local HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination halved from 18.6% in 2012 to 9.9% in 2017. That indicates, despite more CAL students admitted onto the New Senior Secondary Curriculum leading to the qualification of HKDSE, fewer and fewer CAL students felt the need to sit the high-stakes HKDSE (Chinese Language) examination. Furthermore, the percentages of CAL students passing the HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination fluctuated between 30.8% and 21.6%, which are consistently lower than the overall passing rates of all candidates who took the HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination. Taken together, extant statistics reveal that the prevailing mode of CAL provision with mainstreaming as its central intent, on the whole, is not effecting the desired outcome of enabling minority students with CAL needs to bridge over to mainstream Chinese Language classes, with a downward trend in the proportion of CAL students sitting the mainstream HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination.

It has been quite some time since the government disbanded 'designated schools' in the 2013/2014 school year and put in place fresh CAL measures, as well as instituting a revamped funding scheme open to all local schools serving CAL students. Also, over the years, the number of primary and secondary schools admitting CAL students has also climbed from 590 in the 2013/2014 academic year to about 620 in the 2017/2018 academic year, which 'covers about two-thirds' of the entire school population in Hong Kong (Legislative Council, 2018b, p.844) and, by implication, signifies a higher demand for public funds for CAL purposes. In view of statistics suggestive of the ineffectuality of existing CAL policies in bringing about a bridge-over, as well as the rising demand for CAL provision and support, it has become increasingly important to query the current state of CAL provision available to ethnolinguistic minority students in Hong Kong especially from 2014 onwards (i.e., Phase 3 of CAL provision).

1.5. The role and positionality of the researcher

In addition to the worrying policy trajectory depicted above, the motivation for this research also stems from my experiences as a master's student with considerable exposure to research and insights into the issues relating to minority learners around the world, and subsequently as a language teacher across secondary schools serving ethnolinguistic minority students with CAL needs. Upon graduation from undergraduate studies in Hong Kong in 2012, I went on to read an MSc in Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (ALSLA) at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. The ALSLA programme which differed

significantly from the undergraduate programme that primarily emphasised generic language research and pedagogies introduced me to the state-of-the-art theories and empirical evidence relating to English-as-Additional-Language students in the United Kingdom and language minority learners around the world. Through immersion in ALSLA research, as well as department- and university-wide experiences, I became aware of the importance and urgency of harnessing education as an instrument of social justice to empower minority learners and engage other stakeholders. That was when I became curious about the situation of language education for minority learners in Hong Kong, which led me to start my career as a language teacher in secondary schools serving ethnolinguistic minority students.

One common thread weaving through my experiences across these learning spaces was that although most of the CAL students I taught were motivated learners with a demonstrable resolve to make something of themselves in postcolonial Hong Kong, they seemed to struggle to develop proficiency in Chinese even after years of formal schooling, with some failing or unwilling to express themselves in basic conversational Cantonese. This issue was also highlighted by the media coverage of the plights of ethnolinguistic minority students with CAL needs (e.g., New York Times, 2013; BBC, 2015; South China Morning Post, 2015a & 2015b), as well as some pioneering research from academia and the non-governmental sector (e.g., Loper, 2004; Kennedy & Hue, 2011). What was further perplexing to me was that most of the CAL students were born and raised in Hong Kong (some with ancestry traceable back to the early days of colonial Hong Kong, for example, descendants of Gurkha brought to Hong Kong through military services), where they had access to the city's free and quality schooling, as well as an intensely Cantonese-speaking language environment. I could not help but wonder why the learning of CAL, despite these favourable factors, was fraught with such stagnation and uncertainty. That was when I was beginning to re-familiarise myself with some of the research and theories on minority learners and related language learning issues. From this point, I developed a research interest in exploring and understanding post-1997 CAL provision with the intention of contributing to the wider policy dialogue on how existing CAL arrangements could be further enhanced.

In terms of positionality, I considered myself straddling the spaces between an insider and an outsider (i.e., taking a non-dualistic view of researcher membership). I was an insider because I previously taught in local secondary schools serving ethnolinguistic minority youth and formed a close rapport with ethnolinguistic minority groups and other stakeholders, such as CAL teachers and policy advocates. Simultaneously, my membership to the majority group, in terms of both ethnicity and language, rendered me as an outsider to the minority experience in post-1997

Hong Kong. Both statuses have inherent strengths and weaknesses (see Schatzman & Strauss, 1973; Gerrish, 1997; Chhabra, 2020). On the one hand, supposed benefits of being an insider (e.g., privileged access, rapport) might accrue biases that could pose a risk to valid data collection and analysis. On the other hand, the status as an outsider, despite known limitations (e.g., cultural and linguistic barriers), allowed the necessary distanciation for me to conceptualise the phenomenon in question more objectively. Hence, acknowledging the complexities and tensions in occupying the spaces in between could be argued as one of the first steps towards responding to Acker's (2000) call for creative solutions to transcend the insider-outside dichotomy, with the potential of innovating methodologically to carve out spaces for social transformation and policy reforms (Mertens, 2009, 2015).

Overall, my life experiences and positioning dynamically shaped the research process. For example, my desire to more fully explore the phenomenon of post-1997 CAL provision (especially Phase 3), as well as my experiences of bearing witness to ethnolinguistic minority youth's CAL underachievement, motivated me to adopt a pragmatic-transformative approach to knowledge production. This orientation sought balance between etic and emic methods to maximise the utility of research outcomes (i.e., pragmatism), while championing an ethic of social justice in partnership with the marginalised group (i.e., transformative research). For details, refer to 3.2.2 and Appendix 3.2 on page 416. Another example would be that my awareness of the limitations associated with insider/outsider statuses led me to take action for purposes of quality assurance and risk mitigation. Notably, to minimise the risk of over-rapport with research participants, I engaged in regular reflections to sustain reflexivity towards preconceived biases and assumptions about the CAL phenomenon under exploration. For details of my journey towards reflexivity, see Appendix 4 on page 474. Likewise, to address the perceived lack of insider perspectives, I formed an advisory group that would enable a channel to exchange views on optimising research arrangement and procedures in the present study. For details, see also 3.3.4.

1.6. Aims of the study and the overarching research question

As a predominantly hypothesis-generating research inquiry into 'the problem of CAL provision' particularly from 2014 onwards, the present study was operationalised as an exploratory case study that aimed to problematise CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students within an LPP framework, and to particularise the policy enactments of and lived experiences with CAL provision in a cross-section of CAL instructional spaces. To fulfil these research aims, the present

study was guided by the following overarching research question which was further divided into sub-questions (see 3.2.1 Research Questions for the full list):

> *How is CAL provision in Phase 3 (i.e., from 2014 onwards) intended, enacted, and lived?*

To answer the overarching question, there were two distinct yet related components in the present study first, a systematic review component; second, a tripartite component exploring different dimensions of CAL provision from 2014 onwards. These two components, entailing the collection of primary and secondary data, were conducted sequentially. In Stage One, which took place in the 2017/18 academic year, the topical and methodological features of a non-selective sample of CAL studies were synthesised to yield insights into the existing CAL research landscape and research gaps therein. Findings from the systematic review (see 2.7 CAL research gaps), as well as regular consultations with the supervisors and subject matter experts (SMEs), formed the basis of how the tripartite design was pursued in Stage Two, particularly the decision to explore the enactments and experiences of CAL provision using a primary-secondary sample. Apart from contributing to research conceptualisation, Stage One laid the necessary groundwork such as, securing ethical approval, piloting, and access negotiation for data collection involving human participants later on. As for Stage Two, which took place in the 2018/19 and 2019/20 academic years, empirical data were collected from a cross-section of CAL instructional spaces, as well as from databases of associated policy documents. Analysis of data collected in Stage Two took place across 2019/20 and 2020/21 academic years. In summary, an overview of the study can be found in Figure 2

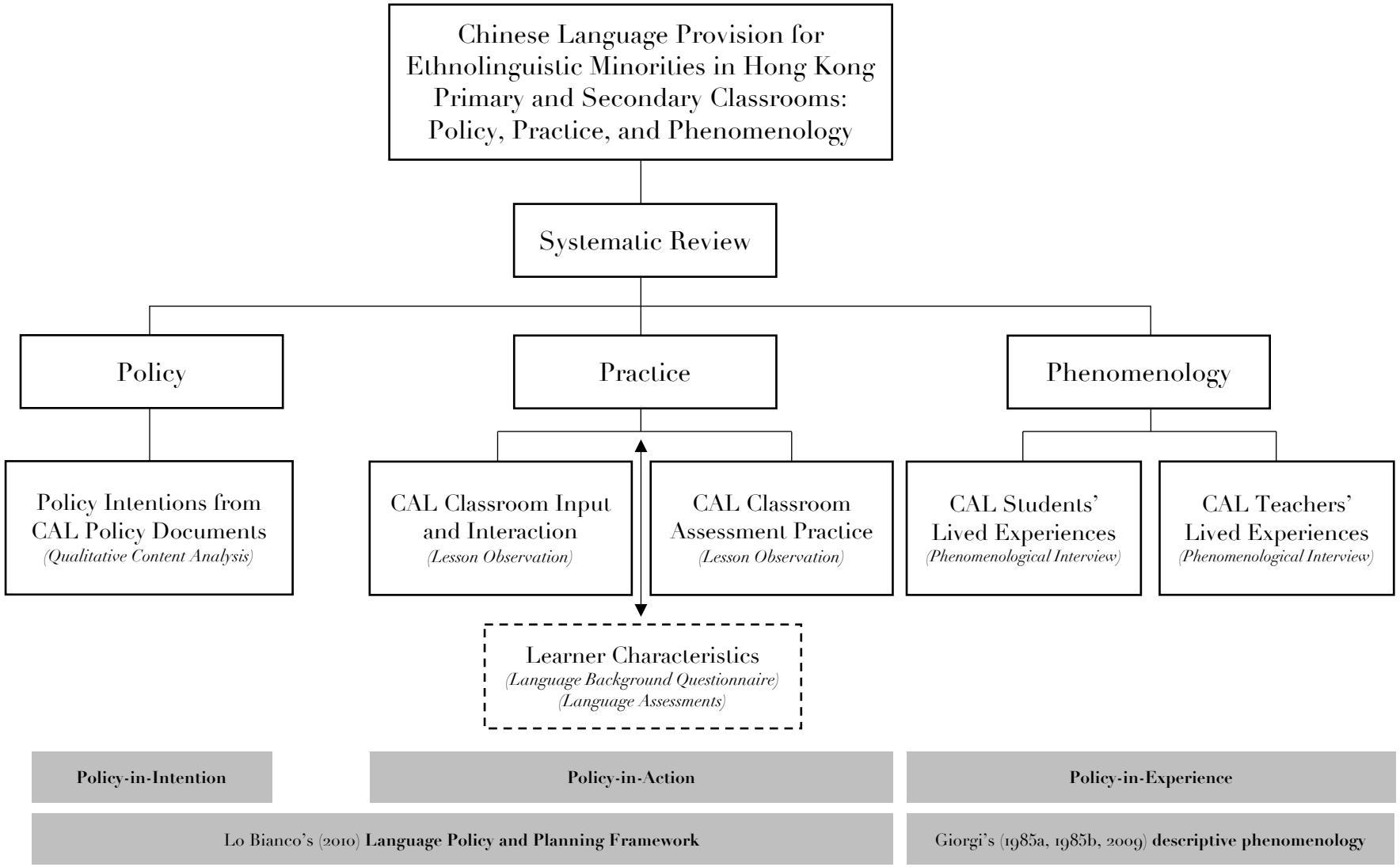


Figure 2 | An overview of the study

1.7. Significance of the study

The present study, with its empirical focus on CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students as an LPP phenomenon in postcolonial Hong Kong, contributes original insights to both global and local scholarship, as well as advancing the dialogue on how CAL policies can be further optimised.

Significance to global scholarship. Firstly, by contributing a more comprehensive understanding of the mode of CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong, the study adds to global scholarship on majority language provision for minority groups (including immigrant-origin groups) in multilingual, world-city contexts. Particularly, the Hong Kong context is of high research value because it typifies a broader category of non-Anglophone[5] countries and cities with normative expectations of elite multilingualism (e.g., a local dominant language alongside English as a lingua franca in settings such as South Korea, China, and Europe; see also Barakos & Selleck, 2019), which has been under-studied when compared with the sizeable body of research on linguistic and educational provision for language minority and immigrant students in Anglophone contexts (e.g., English-as-an-Additional-

[5] In the present study, the term 'non-Anglophone contexts' refers to a diversity of countries or economies where English is *not* used as a majority language across a range of communicative domains. This distinction is made with reference to Kachru's (1985) three concentric model on World Englishes (see also Crystal, 2003; Jenkins, 2009). The Inner Circle refers to a core group of Anglophone countries — namely, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States — where English is primarily used as a native language across everyday and formal domains. The Outer and Expanding Circles are contexts where English is used and learnt as a second (i.e., ESL) and/or foreign language (i.e., EFL) to varying extents. The latter settings, especially those belonging to the Expanding Circle, are usually characterised by the existence of a local dominant language. This 'World Englishes' model, albeit its broad-brush simplifications of sociolinguistic complexities and histories around the world (see Bruthiaux, 2003; Pennycook, 2007; see also Rose and Galloway, 2019 for a discussion on the general move towards 'Global Englishes'), is strategically appropriated in the present study because it helpfully highlights the distinction between the Inner Circle (i.e., core Anglophone contexts) and the Outer and Expanding Circles (i.e., ESL and EFL contexts as dialectically opposed to core Anglophone contexts), thereby shining a light on the qualitatively different language learning conditions of minority learners situated across these spaces. As argued previously, although applied linguistics research on minority learners' acquisition of English as a majority language has mounted over the years in core Anglophone contexts, there remain research gaps in 'non-Anglophone' settings, especially the acquisition of a local dominant language (in addition to English and a given heritage language). In this sense, the use of 'non-Anglophone' is intended as an expedient referent describing a continuum of sociolinguistic contexts across the Outer and Expanding Circles, therefore encompassing a broad spectrum of ESL and EFL contexts. In the case of postcolonial Hong Kong, given that the majority of its residents (close to 90%) use Cantonese as their usual language, with English use restricted mostly to the written modality in certain communicative domains, the context of post-1997 Hong Kong is classified as a non-Anglophone setting (i.e., a setting belonging to the Outer and Expanding Circles where English is not primarily used as a majority language). For more details of the sociolinguistic situation in Hong Kong, refer to 3.3.1.1..

Language students in the UK; English Language Learners in Canada and the US). Moreover, existing literature on minority students is primarily focused on the learning and teaching of English as a majority language, which means that exploratory research involving a non-phonetic language (i.e., Chinese) enriches and complements an understanding of the learning conditions of ethnolinguistic minority students from a linguistic standpoint. Also notable is the potential contribution of implementing a policy-practice-phenomenology framework as a response to the Douglas Fir Group's (2016) call for a transdisciplinary research agenda in applied linguistics that attends to micro, meso, and macro levels of additional language learning in a given milieu.

Significance to local scholarship. The present study is significant to local scholarship because it is the *first* empirical study seeking to explore CAL provision with a cross-section of CAL instructional spaces with a focus on the primary-secondary interface. The reason why a sample straddling both primary and secondary levels is deemed illuminating is that existing CAL research (see also Table 4.2 of 2.6.1.2. Educational levels and coverage) has never before explored CAL learning conditions across educational levels, which constitutes an urgent knowledge gap especially when existing CAL provision does not explicitly offer centralised guidelines on curricular coordination between primary and secondary schools. Shining an exploratory light on primary-secondary progression therefore offers original insights into CAL learning conditions macroscopically intended, instructionally enacted, and subjectively experienced across primary and secondary settings. Additionally, rather than describing classroom realities impressionistically, the present study is also the *first* empirical study that systematically quantifies classroom data to yield a comparative perspective on CAL instructional spaces using established methods pioneered by Macaro (2001) with emphasis on classroom input and interaction (see also Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Lo & Macaro, 2012, 2015; Lo, 2010, 2014; Pun, 2017). Altogether, findings of the study hold the potential to further local research efforts on a range of CAL-related issues.

Significance to policy optimisation. As a policy arena, CAL provision has been in a process of continual development and renewal, as evinced by the evolving phases of CAL policymaking vis-à-vis public scrutiny as well as the government's internal assessment of the situation. Given the well-documented roles of social science research in shaping policymaking processes and policy change (Adams, 1983; Jennings & Callahan, 1983; Tseng, 2012; Boswell & Smith, 2017), findings of the present study as a policy-oriented inquiry, when properly disseminated, will constitute a volume of timely information germane to CAL provision in Phase 3 and its associated effects. Particularly, as highlighted above, there are a number of policy

variables within the investigative ambit of the present study, including but not exclusive to the issues of (i) curricular continuity, (ii) ethnic concentration[6] and the legacy of the now-defunct policy of 'designated schooling', (iii) mainstreaming, (iv) exempting minority students from high-stakes testing in Chinese and so forth. Increased knowledge of these aspects of CAL provision will present an instrumental stream of empirical insights for policymakers, as well as various policy actors and CAL practitioners, to review and renew the existing CAL policies, which may in turn contribute to more principled and evidence-based CAL decision-making and planning processes, as well as a more judicious allocation of public funds to enable a just and equitable form of CAL provision.

[6] The term 'ethnic concentration' refers to the concentration of ethnolinguistic minority students with CAL needs in a local school, one of the central variables of interest in the present study. Its use is established among both local (e.g., Yuen & Lee, 2016; Gao & Gube, 2020) and international (e.g., Dustmann, 1997; Dunn, 1998; Vervoot, Dagevos, & Flap, 2012; Danzer & Yaman, 2016) research circles. Although this term may give the impression that it singularly emphasises ethnicity, it is argued that ethnicity shares 'a more striking relationship to language than other social factors such as gender, age, or social class' (Fought, 2011, p.238). Given the intertwinement between ethnicity and language, the researcher did not deem it necessary to deviate from conventional use and adopted the term 'ethnic concentration' to denote the extent to which a given school, primary or secondary, is overcrowded with ethnolinguistic minority students with CAL needs.

1.8. Organisation of the thesis

This dissertation is comprised of eight chapters. This chapter has introduced the issues relating to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students in postcolonial Hong Kong, while presenting a brief overview of its evolving history since 1997. This chapter further argues that a more comprehensive understanding of CAL provision from 2014 onwards is needed, with an outline of the study's overarching mission to explore the existing mode of CAL provision as intended, enacted, and experienced with emphasis on the primary-secondary interface; and with a justification of its importance of the present inquiry to knowledge advancement and policy renewal.

In order to properly situate the present study within a growing body of empirical and theoretical efforts on language acquisition for ethnolinguistic minority students, Chapter Two briefly reviews existing literature from international, national, and local perspectives, while highlighting the key theoretical issues pertinent to the present study. Integral to Chapter Two is the description of findings from a systematic review of the CAL literature, with a view to objectively identifying research gaps in existing efforts, as well as strategically aligning the present study with CAL research priorities.

Building on the conceptual foundation laid, Chapter Three presents the overarching mixed-methods, multi-dimensional design and its methodological considerations vis-à-vis research questions that guided the present study, complemented with an overview of the sociolinguistic and educational contexts of postcolonial Hong Kong. Importantly, Chapter Three also elucidates how the samples were purposively selected across the three principal investigative domains, while describing the processes of piloting, refining, and quality-assuring the instruments adopted with respect to data collection and analysis. This chapter concludes by discussing how the present research design facilitates triangulation.

Through content analysis of policy documents pertinent to CAL provision in Hong Kong since 1997, findings relating to existing policy intentions are described in Chapter Four. Structurally, qualitative findings are presented in the following three ways: (i) CAL policy intentions at kindergarten levels, (ii) CAL policy intentions at primary and secondary levels, and (iii) other CAL policy intentions that are infrastructural and/or peripheral in nature. Illustrative extracts from policy documents, as well as related statistics and documentation, are incorporated throughout these three sections to enable a macroscopic understanding of evolving CAL policies since the handover, with a focus on the period from 2014 onwards.

Chapter Five is concerned with the findings emerging from the four CAL classrooms sampled. Predominantly quantitative findings are presented with reference to the three research questions formulated for this domain. Through language assessments and background questionnaires, the characteristics of the sample are compared and contrasted across groups. Based on quantified classroom data, findings germane to the (i) input and interaction, and (ii) assessment practices across CAL instructional spaces are summarised with use of both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses.

In Chapters Six and Seven, patterns and trends of the lived experiences of key participations from the four CAL instructional spaces are presented with illustrative quotes incorporated. In these two chapters, two distinct yet related analyses of key CAL participants — CAL teachers and subsamples of CAL students — are presented. The heterogeneity present within the samples is brought to bear on the analysis, such that a richer perspective of the lived experiences across individuals is yielded.

Tying findings from the three investigative domains together, Chapter Eight provides a summary of major findings, discusses emergent insights of the present study vis-à-vis existing literature, and considers the implications for future research and policymaking. Importantly, limitations of the study are highlighted in this chapter to enable the readers to situate research findings in context, as well as to interpret the validity of the present inquiry. This chapter ends by reiterating the value of the present study as one of the first steps to understand CAL provision as an LPP challenge facing various policy actors in postcolonial Hong Kong.

2. Systematic Review of the Literature

2.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- contextualises the present study, with a justification of the need for conducting a systematic review (2.2);
- introduces the method and procedures of the systematic review of CAL literature from 1997 to 2017, including its review objectives and scope (2.3), as well as strategies and study selection (2.4);
- presents a synthesis of existing CAL research studies (2.5); and
- argues potential research gaps (2.6) pertaining to CAL provision to ethnolinguistic minorities at K-12 levels in postcolonial Hong Kong.

2.2. Contextualising the study

The present study concerns the provision of language education to ethnolinguistic minority students in postcolonial Hong Kong. Despite its emphasis on the Hong Kong context, it can be situated within the larger nexus of international and regional literature on educational provision vis-a-vis the language and literacy development of minority students.

2.2.1. The international context

At an international level, since the late twentieth century, migration has been on the increase. One consequence is that trans-border flows of peoples have given rise to noticeable linguistic and cultural diversity in school settings in various hosting countries and cities around the world (Cummins, 2000). Following that, education of minority children and youth especially in areas relating to access to quality language education, as well as the general academic attainments of such groups has become a policy priority and an enduring social justice concern high on the agenda of various stakeholders domestically and internationally. That said, as a policy arena, educational provision for minority and/or immigrant students varies from country to country. In the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) conducted in 2012 (OECD, 2015), after controlling for socio-economic status, 15-year-old immigrant and immigrant-origin students were more likely to repeat grades, drop out of school, and score lower on average in reading, mathematics, and problem-solving skills. PISA data in 2012 also revealed that academic attainments of immigrant and immigrant-origin students varied across countries because local practices, such as selective immigration policies and characteristics of school systems and education policies, have an influence on minority students' performance.

Take for example the cases of the United States (US) and United Kingdom (UK), western contexts with sizeable bodies of scholarly literature and public policymaking concerning minority and immigrant students. In the US, linguistically and culturally diverse students for whom English is not their first language are usually categorised as 'English language learners' (ELL) or 'limited English proficient' (LEP) students. The ELL/LEP population, with its inclusion of over 100 language groups (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002), is on steady rise. Particularly, Spanish speakers are in the majority of such a population, followed by speakers of Asian languages. From 1990 to 2013, the ELL/LEP population residing throughout the country has grown around 80% from roughly 14 million to 25 million (Zong & Batalova, 2015), which has implications for policymaking, programmatic designs and resource allocation in K-12 settings. As another epicentre of research on and support for language minority students, the UK has also witnessed a rise in linguistically and culturally diverse groups from former colonies and Commonwealth countries since World War II, with the school-aged populations officially labelled 'English-an-additional' (EAL) students. Research indicates that, when socioeconomic status is controlled for, EAL students of South Asian ancestries generally lag behind White counterparts in primary schools. Despite the persistency of the lag at the entry of secondary schooling, it is suggested that most EAL students can by and large catch up during secondary school years (Maugham & Rutter, 1986; Smith & Tomlinson, 1989). However, achievement differs among ethnic groups: students of Indian backgrounds consistently outperform those of Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Black Caribbean ones (Haque & Bell, 2001; Abbas, 2010; Rollock, Gillborn, Vincent & Ball, 2015).

Existing research emerging from western contexts has generally agreed that majority languages could present barriers and lead to performance penalties if immigrant and immigrant-origin students do not speak or read the language of instruction and/or assessment in the host country, with consequences for later-life prospects. Moreover, a cursory review of relevant literature furthermore indicates that majority language learning is shaped by, inter alia, a diversity of factors

Societally, an important distinction can be made between contexts where English is usually taught as a majority language and minority students have to learn content knowledge through English, and those where there is an expectation of acquiring a local dominant language alongside English and minority students have to learn content subjects in either the local majority language or English or a combination of both. The former contexts include but are not limited to the UK (e.g., Leung, 2007; Leung & Creese, 2010; Murphy & Unthiah, 2015; Flynn & Curdt-Christiansen, 2018; Oxley & de Cat, 2019), North America (e.g., Ladson-Billings, 1994; Cummins, 2000;

Adamson, 2005; August & Shanahan, 2008), and Oceania (e.g., Hammond, 2009; Gilmour, Klieve, & Li, 2018); the latter are, to name but a few, China (e.g., Gladney, 2004; Zhu, 2007; Wang, 2013), Japan (e.g., Kanno, 2008), South Korea (e.g., Choi, 2021), and Europe (e.g., Somers, 2018). Expectations of bilingualism or even multilingualism in the latter contexts further complicate the extent to which language learning mediates academic attainments, as well as majority language learning experiences. In both contexts, the roles of home languages and practices as potential funds of knowledge are generally downplayed and sometimes considered extraneous (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005).

Linguistically, the writing systems and orthographies of the required majority languages shape the learners' abilities to develop automaticity in oracy and literacy (Frost, 2005; Seymour, 2005), as well as their strategic behaviours and learning trajectories. Scripts around the world are broadly dividable into phonetics and logographics (Taylor & Olson, 1995). Phonetics are sound-based scripts which can be further divided into alphabetic scripts (e.g., English and French) and syllabic scripts (e.g., Japanese), whereas logographics are meaning-based scripts with Chinese being an oft-cited example. McBride (2016) opines that it takes longer for one to learn logographics than to learn phonetics. Understandably, in contexts where minority students are expected to acquire multiple orthographies (e.g., the case of Hong Kong where minority students are expected to learn Chinese and English orthographies in addition to their mother tongues), majority language learning experiences, developmental trajectories, and instructional practices could manifest and interact in unexpected ways due to the inherent linguistic features of required majority languages and the native language.

When approached from a political lens, educational provision for minority students falls within the realm of multicultural education, with an oft-made distinction between policymaking in accordance with liberal-democratic principles and that in accordance with non-liberal-democratic principles (Joppke, 2004; Skerret & Hargreaves, 2008). This lens is primarily related to diversity management vis-à-vis the political orientation of a given context, with Kennedy's (2011) review pointing to three noticeable trends in multicultural education literature. A monocultural-educational orientation (see Edmonds, 1979; Gilborn, 2004) recognises the importance of all students learning from the same curriculum, instructional strategies, and assessment practices. In a multicultural-educational orientation (see Banks, 1986), schools and their curricula reflect the knowledge and values of all groups in the community and seek to recognise and celebrate their contributions to the host society. In a critical-multicultural orientation (see Troyna & Carrington, 1990), explicit teaching against all forms of racism and the eradication of

discrimination is a key goal. Such orientations, ranging from contexts where there cultural differences are minimised and pedagogical decisions are based on notions of ability and equality to those where cultural differences and antidiscrimination are celebrated, offer a helpful lens to appreciate the multifariousness of policymaking and local practices in relation to ethnic and linguistic heterogeneity in K-12 classrooms around the world.

Regardless of the above nuances, analyses of large-scale test data from western contexts have provided insights into ethnolinguistic minority students' trajectories of majority language and literacy development. Most notably, Cummins (1981a, 1981b, 1984, 1991, 2000) theorises a distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), arguing that CALP essential for acquiring content knowledge takes more time to develop than BICS. Therefore, students may be misdiagnosed as ready for learning content subjects in a medium of instruction they may yet be proficient in. Such a lag in proficiency has also been supported by research by Collier (1987, 1989). Another insight could be found in the seminal work by Thomas and Collier (1997), with analyses of more than 700,000 students in five geographically dispersed U.S. school systems from 1982 to 1996. Three predictors of long-term school success defined as 'English learners reaching eventual full educational parity with native-English speakers in all school content subjects' (p.7) are as follows:

1. The provision of cognitively complex on-grade-level academic instruction through students' first language till at least Grade 5 or 6, and cognitively complex on-grade level academic instruction through the second language (i.e., English, in the US) for part of the school day is often considered a success factor. Such a recommendation has theoretical support from what Cummins (1981a, 1981b) posited as the common underlying proficiency in which language abilities in the home language facilitate the development of a second language.

2. Another factor concerns the adoption of interactive approaches in which language learning and content learning are integrated. Such a recommendation finds empirical support in the recent proliferation of research on content and language integrated learning (CLIL). Such programmatic designs have their roots in the Canadian immersion model where Anglophone children are immersed in French-rich (i.e., L2) instructional environments where learning language and content learning are blended (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). Empirical evidence from various contexts (e.g., de Courcy, 1997; Lazaruk, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2011) acknowledges the supreme results of academic parity and bilingualism among

CLIL students, when compared with counterparts studying in traditional settings where the second language is learnt as an isolated subject.

3. The importance of a transformed sociocultural context for language minority students' schooling is also highlighted. This recommendation chiefly concerns the creation of an inclusive environment that promotes additive bilingualism among language minority students. Although the link between culture and literacy development is not explicitly mentioned in the report, such a relationship has long been established and championed as a cornerstone of effective and just language education (see Goody, 1977, 1982; Ong, 1982; Said, 1983; Ferdman, 1990). Recent advancements, such as culturally responsive pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Gay, 2002a, 2002b, 2005, 2010) and multicultural education (Banks, 1986), have also confirmed the role sociocultural factors play in identity formation and literacy development among ethnolinguistic minority students.

As can be appreciated, there exist ample theorisation and empirical studies from Anglophone contexts where minority students usually learn English as the majority language, and they are afforded extra exposure through learning academic content using English as a medium of instruction. However, descriptions germane to language minority students remain limited in non-Anglophone contexts. As said earlier, in these contexts, minority students learn a local dominant language alongside English, with considerable variations in the linguistic medium through which they learn content knowledge (i.e., medium of instruction). One notable case in point is Japan — although linguistic and cultural diversity has long been a defining feature of its demographics (Kanno, 2008), it was only until recently — around the late 1980s — that minority students' access to quality language instruction has surfaced as an educational issue. Despite a growing population of linguistic minorities in Japan, educational welfare and rights of minority students in public schools are often neglected (Vaipae, 2001). In particular, as regards minority students' learning of Japanese as a majority language, Kanno (2008) sums up the situation:

> 'A vast majority of language minority students, scattered as they were throughout the country, received no JSL (Japanese as a second language) instruction. When JSL classes were available, they focused on basic conversational skills in Japanese rather than academic literacy. Most JSL teachers were regular classroom teachers who happened to be assigned to that role, and few of them received professional training in second language acquisition, assessment, and language pedagogy after their designation as JSL

> teachers. Teachers and administrators denied that language minority students had special needs.' (pp. 14 – 15)

Granted, Japan's example as a normatively monocultural and monolingual nation may not be easily generalised elsewhere, yet it does hint at the level of complexities linguistically and culturally diverse student populations in non-Anglophone contexts are grappling with. All in all, ever since World War II, continuous research attention has been paid to the provision of quality language education to minority students. As briefly touched upon above, language and literacy outcomes are highly dependent upon contextual variables such as the mode of language learning (as an isolated subject and/or a medium of instruction), the availability of second language support, teachers' readiness for instructing linguistically and culturally diverse population and so forth. Also, the distinction between Anglophone and non-Anglophone contexts presents a helpful avenue to conceptualise the educational provision available to ethnolinguistic minority students around the world. Hong Kong, like Japan, belongs to the latter. Although research on the education of ethnolinguistic minorities in eastern contexts has been growing (e.g., Japan, as remarked by Kanno, 2008; and China, as described below), more research remains necessary to describe and delineate the prevailing models of majority language provision in these contexts for evidence-based policymaking and practices in the future.

2.2.2. The regional context

At a regional level, the contexts of the Sinophone parts of Asia (e.g., Greater Chain as an informal geographical location encompassing various geographical regions with ties to the Han (i.e., ethnic Chinese) people; see Harding, 1993) are noteworthy. Across the region, the Chinese language is a polycentric language with multiple standardised forms that interact with one another, with varieties of the Chinese language used communicatively and academically to varying extents across a broad range of settings. These necessitate diversified language provision arrangements for minority groups settled in the region, with further implications for individuals interested in learning Chinese as a foreign language in overseas contexts.

Most notably, in the People's Republic of China (PRC) with a population of 55 officially recognised ethnic minority groups, majority language provision for ethnolinguistic minorities constitutes not only an ongoing policy area, but also a growing research priority against a backdrop of increased governmental spending in promoting Chinese as an important language within and beyond PRC (see Zhao & Huang, 2010). Domestically, as part of the national-building efforts to unite various ethnic groups (including the Han group with their varieties of the Chinese language)

through minimising the considerable sociocultural, historical, and linguistic differences across mainland China, the promotion and mastery of Chinese specifically, Putonghua paired with simplified Chinese characters as 'a national unifying standard' have long been considered a matter of utmost urgency and strategic importance (Feng & Adamson, 2015, p.2). Coupled with the importance of preserving minority languages and the global spread of English, a policy of *Sanyu Jiantong* (i.e., 三語兼通 mastery of three languages) has been formulated for domestic ethnic minorities across PRC (Adamson & Feng, 2009), intending to enable them to be proficient in the indigenous minority language, Standard Chinese, and English. Yet, local realisations of the *Sanyu Jiantong* mandate vary vis-à-vis the complexities of the context, for example, the rural-city divide, ethnolinguistic vitality, and local leadership of the ruling elites. From a national review of trilingual education by Feng and Adamson (2015), four models of trilingual education in PRC are identified: (i) *the accretive model* where both the home language and Standard Chinese are taught as subjects and used as the medium of instruction; (ii) *the balanced model* where minority learners in a given milieu are instructed in either minority language and Chinese streams at primary levels; (iii) *the transitional model* where instruction in the minority language is phased out systematically in preference of Standard Chinese; and (iv) *the depreciative model* where the minority language is not taught or used as the medium of instruction. In all these models, English is usually learnt as a language subject starting from Primary Three (i.e., Grade Three). Also, considering the inherent disadvantages and lack of access to modern facilities, ethnic minority groups in PRC struggle to compete on an equal footing with the Han counterpart. For decades, a policy of state-approved preferential treatment has been in place to promote access to higher education (Feng & Sunuodula, 2009), yet existing research reveals that many minority students fail to graduate (Lin, 1997; Adamson & Xia, 2011).

In tandem, there are ongoing efforts by the PRC government to standardise, raise the prestige of, and facilitate the acquisition of Putonghua coupled with simplified Chinese characters as a foreign language beyond PRC (Li & Wang, 2016). For example, *Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* (i.e., 漢語水平考試 Chinese Proficiency Test for foreigners), as analogous to internationally recognised assessments in English (e.g., TOEFL and IELTS), was launched in the 1990s, with regular updates and issuance of course materials. For another example, Confucius Institutes have mushroomed on a global scale with the intention of promoting the Chinese language and culture beyond PRC. Against the backdrop of China's growing global influence over the past three decades, the Chinese-as-a-foreign/second-language (CFL/CSL) research community has also expanded rapidly. Despite its exponential growth in quantity and marked improvement in methodological sophistication over the years (Gong, Gao, & Lyu, 2020), the CFL/CSL research community is still very much in the 'initial

stage of disciplinary building' (Zhang & Zhang, 2018, p.197; see also Wang & Ruan, 2016). As a field, it has theoretical roots in Chinese linguistics and second language acquisition (Zhang, 2016), emphasising how factors related to the linguistic and typological specificities of the Chinese language shape the cognitive and social processes of additional language learning of CFL/CSL learners situated in various contexts. According to a recent review of 336 empirical CFL/CSL studies by Gong and colleagues (2020), the CFL/CSL research landscape has the following key characteristics: (i) existing efforts correspond mainly to 'local needs and interests' (p.58), with a particular focus on language learning research (e.g., learner-based factors, such as Chinese character, phonetic, lexical, and grammatical development, as well as strategy use) accounting for around 70% of the sample; (ii) primarily quantitative research designs are used, accounting for around 87% of the sample, and reflecting the largely 'positivist' paradigm driving the CFL/CSL community; and (iii) the existing knowledge base on additional/second/foreign language pedagogy, which is primarily framed from the lens of 'English or other European languages' (p.57), has been broadened by CFL/CSL research with light shone on the validity of pedagogy with a long history in East Asia, such as rote learning or 'reciting-imitating-creating' teaching mode. Beyond PRC, according to a bibliometric analysis of CFL/CSL studies within Greater China, 'Singapore is playing a central part in international scholarship on Chinese language education, followed by Taiwan and Hong Kong' (Gong et al., 2018, p.286).

To summarise, existing CFL/CSL research communities are thriving and are progressing in ways similar to English-as-a-second/foreign-language counterparts. Yet, more research efforts remain necessary, as recommended by Gong and colleagues (2020), to heed the multiple groups of learners with vastly different CFL/CSL needs, especially the differences between school-age and adult ethnolinguistic minorities residing in domestic contexts and foreign language learners in overseas contexts.

2.2.3. The local context

At a local level, although minority groups of South and Southeast Asian origins had been present since the early years of colonial Hong Kong (Vaid, 1972; Plüss, 2005; Law & Lee, 2012), their formal status as ethnic minorities as a demographic category was only acknowledged as recently as 2001 (Census and Statistics Department, 2002). Historical literature (e.g., Luk, 1991; Sweeting & Vickers, 2007) exploring colonial Hong Kong's educational systems and language policies was also characterised by a lack of representation of non-White ethnolinguistic minority groups. For the past

two decades since the 1997 handover, amid reports of challenges facing ethnic minorities, as well as human rights advocacy and lobbying from non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and pressure groups, provisions for ethnolinguistic minority populations — whether it be educational, social, or legal — have been much enhanced. Notably, public consultations proposing to legislate against racial discrimination were initiated in 2006 (Home Affairs Bureau, 2004), culminating with the passing of *Racial Discrimination Bill* in 2008 and the enactment of *Racial Discrimination Ordinance* in 2009. In tandem, given the evident urgency of socially just and educational solutions to problems facing minority groups, concomitant research — conducted by not only academic researchers but also research staff in statutory bodies and NGOs — is piling up at an unprecedented rate, with two broad types: (i) studies on the general wellbeing of minority students and (ii) studies focused predominantly on Chinese language education for minority students.

The first type of studies — exploring minority students' schooling in diverse settings, their life satisfaction as well as career aspirations in postcolonial Hong Kong — is characterised by the use of surveys to cross-sectionally investigate the correlations of various associated factors. For example, Yuen and Lee (2016) measured life satisfaction of 1522 students, finding that schools exerted a noticeable influence on the life satisfaction of diverse students sampled. In another survey study by Cheung and colleagues (2015), 632 Southeast Asian adolescents were surveyed to map the correlations between macro factors and their academic and career expectations, with one pertinent finding suggesting that efficacy in learning Chinese significantly correlated with ethnic identity and learning experiences, and predicted the adolescents' academic and career aspirations. This body of research illustrates the wider educational realities experienced by minority learners with CAL needs in the public school system.

The second type of studies, characterised by its emphasis on various aspects of the CAL phenomenon in postcolonial Hong Kong, engages a more diverse range of CAL stakeholders, including but not limited to minority students (e.g., O'Connor, 2010; Tsung, Zhang, & Cruickshank, 2010; Kennedy, 2012; Gu & Patkin, 2013; Gu, 2015; Lai, Gao, & Wang, 2015; Shum, Gao, Tsung, & Ki, 2016), Chinese teachers (e.g., Chee, 2012, 2013; Gao, 2012a, 2012b; Gao & Shum, 2012; Hue & Kennedy, 2012; Chan, 2013; Hue & Kennedy, 2013; Gu, Kou, & Guo, 2017), and parents of minority students (e.g., Lisenby, 2011; Tsung & Gao, 2012). Studies of both quantitative and qualitative nature are identified, illuminating the microsystems of various dimensions and phases of CAL provision (see Bronfenbrenner, 1994). This body of research plays an important role in documenting the impact of CAL provision (or the lack thereof, in earlier

phases of its implementation) on minority learners and relevant stakeholders situated at different key schooling stages.

As regards CAL-focused research, one key recurring theme from survey-based studies concerns ethnolinguistic minority students' low literacy in Chinese. One example is a 2017 survey of a convenience sampling of 699 minority respondents by the Hong Kong Council of Social Services and the Hong Kong Christian Service which has found that a majority of respondents reported an inability to speak (54%), to read (88%), and to write (89%) Chinese. Its findings echo an earlier survey conducted in 2014 by Oxfam, which has also found that although a majority of 469 South Asian families agreed that learning Chinese is essential to their children's educational attainments (80%), many of them reported an inability to read Chinese (58%) and to speak Cantonese (27%). Concerning instructed settings, as revealed by a survey by Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union and Hong Kong Unison (2007), 83% of 102 teachers from 44 schools attested to the huge disparity in literacy skills between Chinese students and minority counterparts, with only half of them remarking that, for listening and speaking skills, both groups were comparable. Although these survey studies rely heavily on self-reporting, they are consistent with similar surveys suggestive of minority populations' illiteracy to low literacy in Chinese (e.g., Society for Community Organization, 2004; Ku, Chan, & Sandhu, 2005). In an empirical study of Chinese listening and reading proficiency levels of Grade 4 (i.e., Primary 4) CAL students, Wong and Siu (2009) could only adopt a normed test pegged at Grade 1 (i.e., Primary 1) level and, despite that, Grade 4 CAL students still lagged behind the normed standards of Grade 1. Succinctly, extant research on Chinese proficiency of minority students with CAL needs has painted a consistently grim picture with similar themes of low literacy. In fact, Kapai (2015) has estimated that the average Chinese proficiency levels for ethnolinguistic minority students are only around second grade upon graduation from high school.

As for scholarly conjectures about the possible factors in contributing to the persistence of ethnolinguistic minority students' low proficiency in Chinese (i.e., Cantonese as the spoken code and Standard Written Chinese as the written code), a growing consensus is that both external and internal factors are at play. For example, in a study by Tsung and colleagues (2010) that investigated the relationship between minority students' proficiency and teaching practices in mainstream contexts, low proficiency in Chinese was argued to be linked to Chinese-as-a-mother-tongue teaching methods failing to heed their second language learning needs. Apart from instructional factors, Shum and colleagues (2011) argued that students' low proficiency in Chinese could be attributed to their lack of language learning motivation, which might explain why minority students do not avail themselves of

the rich resources in a Chinese/Cantonese-as-a-majority-language environment in post-handover Hong Kong. Existing research is far from conclusive as to the symptoms of low CAL proficiency of minority students – especially those of South and Southeast Asian descent – in Hong Kong, which may explain why existing research efforts focus primarily on basic conversational and word recognition skills.

In addition to the theme of minority students' low proficiency in Chinese, research studies are increasingly pointing to the theme of CAL teachers' professional and pedagogical readiness to serve minority students with CAL needs. In this regard, CAL teachers' lack of cultural sensitivity has been repeatedly emphasised as a potential risk factor that mitigates minority students' Chinese language and literacy development. Notably, in a systematic review conducted by Arat and colleagues (2016), it was found that, among 36 academic articles reviewed, there were 14 studies that reported findings of culturally insensitive teachers. Yet, it is not all doom-and-gloom, with qualitative research painting a more nuanced picture of the experiences of CAL teachers as crucible enablers of CAL provision. In Gao's (2012b) study on teacher identity and pedagogical vision, Chinese Language teachers were found to be willing to negotiate with South Asian students to adapt their teaching methodologies, and to cater more effectively for needs and abilities of their students. The study by Gu and colleagues (2017) can be taken as evidence of the nuances of CAL teachers' language ideologies and praxis, locating contradictory beliefs among Chinese Language teachers: on one hand, they acknowledge the value of students' heritage languages as a form of knowledge; on the other hand, they engaged in practices that could marginalise heritage languages and cultures.

Overall, with the gradual expansion of the CAL research landscape in recent years, it has become increasingly important to offer an aggregated picture of existing research efforts vis-à-vis the teaching and learning of CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong. To map out the CAL research landscape, as well as to identify potential research gaps pertaining to CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong, a systematic review was conducted to synthesise two decades of CAL-related research published between 1997 and 2017, with a focus on the topical and methodological features of peer-reviewed and doctoral research. The reason why a systematic review was adopted at the conceptualisation stage of the present study is that, as a type of 'structured' and literature reviews (see Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003; Kraus, Breier, & Dasí-Rodríguez, 2020), systematic reviews not only offer an overview of the extent and range of existing knowledge (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005), but they also map key concepts, synthesise existing research output, and identify knowledge gaps in a defined area through systematic searching, selecting and synthesising existing knowledge (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Levac, Colquhoun, O'Brien, 2010; Colquhoun

et al., 2014). Moreover, systematic reviews are considered comparatively more transparent than traditional reviews in synthesising prior research with objectivity and reproducibility (Fink, 2005). Hence, systematic reviews, as well as the principles of systematicity (Perry & Hammond, 2002), are increasingly recommended as an integral part of larger research inquiries to inform hypotheses and methodology (Knopf, 2006), or sometimes as standalone efforts that illuminate the status quo of a certain research field or topic (Okoli, 2015).

2.3. Review objectives and scope

This systematic review is the *first* attempt to synthesise knowledge thus far produced on the topic of learning and teaching CAL in the context of postcolonial Hong Kong, where Cantonese (as the spoken code) and Standard Written Chinese (as the written code) are used. The Hong Kong context is distinct from the linguistic contexts of Mainland China and Taiwan where there are established research bases relating to the learning and teaching of Chinese as a second/foreign language. Also, this review argues that 1997 marks the beginning of an emerging research field — multitudinous in its topical interests and methods, as will be demonstrated below — that revolves around Chinese language provision for diverse populations in post-1997 Hong Kong, as well as factors associated with Chinese language and literacy development. Given these, this study contends that a methodical survey of this burgeoning body of research systematises and synthesises existing knowledge in CAL with implications for future research.

Hence, the overarching objective of the systematic review was to provide a state-of-the-art overview of the topical and methodological features of research studies on the learning and teaching of CAL in Hong Kong from 1 July 1997 to 31 December 2017. Particularly, research studies are defined here as empirical research efforts whose knowledge is generated through 'direct observation of phenomena' (Bhattacharya, 2008), and is disseminated as either peer-reviewed research articles or doctoral dissertations. The focus on research that has undergone some form of quality appraisal and enhancement by virtue of peer review (see Daudt, van Mossel, & Scott, 2013) serves to filter out research of unacceptable quality (Kelly, Sadeghieh, & Adeli, 2014). Principally, apart from synthesising the general characteristics of included studies, there are two review questions to deepen an understanding of the CAL research landscape

1. What are the topical interests of peer-reviewed CAL studies (including doctoral dissertations) that have met the inclusion criteria?

2. What are the methodological features of peer-reviewed CAL studies (including doctoral dissertations) that have met the inclusion criteria?

2.4. Review strategies and study selection

Five major databases — namely, (i) Education Resources Information Center, (ii) Linguistics and Language Behaviors Abstracts, (iii) Modern Language Association International Bibliography, (iv) Web of Science, and (v) ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global — were searched to ensure that no previous systematic or scoping reviews of a similar nature had been conducted. These databases were later piloted, in consultation with a certified librarian of the Bodleian Libraries, as to their coverage. The piloting process entailed the selection of five research studies[7] deemed directly relevant to the learning and teaching of CAL in post-1997 Hong Kong, with direct searches of the titles made across four databases (except ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global). These four databases demonstrated acceptable coverage, with the librarian recommending that a broader range of complementary search strategies — notably, snowballing and hand searching — be adopted to help identify potentially relevant studies.

In tandem, search terms, as shown in Table 2 were developed in consultation with the librarian and supervisors, with views of local subject matter experts elicited to further render the list of search terms as comprehensive as possible. Based on comments from all parties, search terms were organised into five clusters covering (i) terminological variants of CAL, as well as related terms; (ii) ethnic concentration as a prominent constituent of CAL learning and teaching; (iii) CAL students; (iv) CAL teachers; and (iv) parents of CAL students with the search period demarcated from 1 July 1997 up to and including 31 December 2017. 1 July 1997 was chosen as the start date with it marking the official transfer of sovereignty over Hong Kong from the UK to PRC, whereas 31 December 2017 was the cut-off date for the present review. Searches conducted yielded an initial sample of 1363 studies and were recorded in an Elsevier-owned academic reference management application, *Mendeley*, for de-duplication.

[7] The five studies used to pilot the study selection process were Shum, Gao, Tsung, & Ki (2011); Tsung & Gao (2012); Gao (2012); Shum, Gao, & Ki (2016); and Gao & Lai (2017). This sample of CAL-focused studies covered CAL students, their teachers, and parents. The selfsame sample was used to pilot the data extraction process.

To narrow the initial sample of studies down systematically, initial inclusion criteria were formulated to include research studies of ethnic minority issues (including CAL issues) vis-à-vis educational provision in post-1997 Hong Kong. They were:

1. Research targeting educational settings in Hong Kong;
2. Research published from 1997 to 2017;
3. Research published in either English, Chinese, or both; and
4. Research involving ethnolinguistic minority issues and relevant stakeholders.

Initial exclusion criteria were:

1. Research published before 1st July 1997; and
2. Research published after 31st December 2017.

Term Cluster 1		***Location***
Chinese as an additional language		Hong Kong
Chinese as a foreign language		
Chinese as a second language		
Chinese learning		
Chinese teaching		
Chinese provision		
Majority language access		
Majority language education		
Majority language teaching		
CAL		
CFL		
CSL		
Term Cluster 2		
Segregated schooling		
Segregat*		
Desegregat*		
Designated school*		
Term Cluster 3		
Non-Chinese speaking	*AND*	
ethnic minorit*		
linguistic minorit*		
language minorit*		
minority language learner*		
Chinese language learner*		
South Asian*		
South Asian learner*		
South Asian student*		
Term Cluster 4		
majority language teacher*		
Chinese language teacher*		
Chinese subject teacher*		
Term Cluster 5		
minority language parent*		
South Asian*		
South Asian parent*		

Time: From 1 July 1997 to 31 December 2017

Topic: The learning and teaching of Chinese as a(n) additional/foreign/second language in postcolonial Hong Kong

Search string:
'Chinese as an additional language' OR 'Chinese as a foreign language' OR 'Chinese as a second language' OR 'Chinese learning' OR 'Chinese teaching' OR 'Chinese provision' OR 'Majority language access' OR 'Majority language education' OR 'Majority language teaching' OR CAL OR CFL OR CSL OR 'segregated schooling' OR 'segregat*' OR 'desegregat*' OR 'designated school*' OR 'non-chinese speaking' OR 'ethnic minorit*' OR 'linguistic minorit*' OR 'language minorit*' OR 'minority language learner*' OR 'Chinese language learner*' OR 'South Asian*' OR 'South Asian learner*' OR 'South Asian student*' OR 'majority language teacher*' OR 'Chinese language teacher*' OR 'Chinese subject teacher*' OR 'minority language parent*' OR 'South Asian Parent*' AND 'Hong Kong'

Table 2 | Search terms

Based on the vetting of studies with initial inclusion and exclusion criteria using title and abstract analyses, an intermediate sample of 77 studies was formed. Among these 77 studies were studies with foci on the general well-being of ethnic minority children and youth, and those that addressed the teaching and learning of CAL. To further refine the intermediate sample, abstract analysis was performed with additional refinement inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Refinement inclusion criteria were:

1. Research focusing either prominently or peripherally on the learning and/or teaching of Chinese-as-an-additional-language (CAL) in Hong Kong;
2. Empirical research engaging human participants *(for example, but not limited to, CAL learners, Chinese language subject teachers, parents)*; and
3. Research published in peer-reviewed reports or doctoral dissertations.

A refinement exclusion criterion was:

1. Research with a sole focus on document analysis, or historical research.

35 studies passed abstract analysis and were deemed relevant to the learning and teaching of CAL in Hong Kong. This two-tiered vetting process afforded a gauge of the level of academic attention to CAL-related research issues, with CAL studies published from 1997 to 2017 accounting for 45% of all research studies with a focus on ethnolinguistic minority issues. Upon completion of full-text analysis, the final sample yielded 31 studies whose topical and methodological characteristics were extracted to answer the two review questions. Details of the review process can be found in the revised Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) flow chart (see Figure 3).

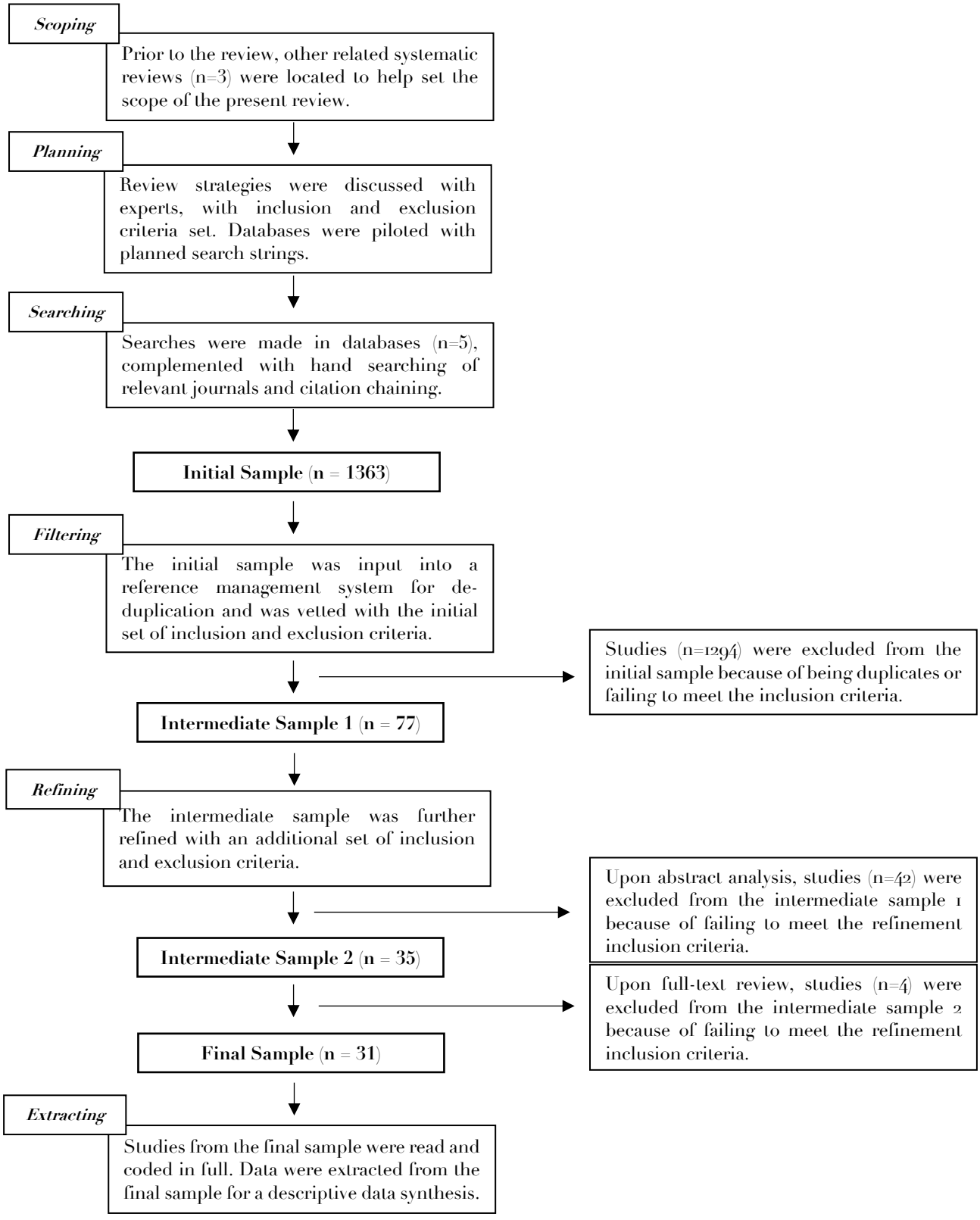


Figure 3 | Revised PRISMA flow chart

2.5. Data extraction and analysis

Data extraction is defined as the process through which information about topical and methodological characteristics from the included studies is validly and reliably extracted to answer the review questions. To operationalise this, a data extraction form was developed vis-à-vis the review questions at hand and was piloted with the five CAL studies used to pilot the study selection process. The piloting process included trialing the procedure of extracting general and specific information from these five studies by the researcher and one additional coder. The extractability of study information pertaining to topical and methodological characteristics was satisfactory and largely consistent between coders. The finalised data extraction grid (see Appendix 2.2 on page 396) covered (i) general study information, (ii) topical interests declared, and (iii) methodological approaches and instruments adopted. In short, inductive coding was performed on topical interests whereas deductive coding was used to glean methodological features of the included studies. For full lists of the final sample, please refer to Appendix 2.3 on page 397.

Upon confirmation of the final sample, all 31 studies in the final sample were read in full, with the initial round of coding performed by the researcher. Additional coding on topical and methodological features was performed on 10 studies, roughly 30% of the final sample, with a view to verifying the reliability of the coding performed, as well as exploring the validity of the initial coding categories. For topical interests which were inductively coded, Krippendorff's (2004) coefficient is $\alpha = .87$, which was above the customary cutoff requirement of .80. As for the coding of methodological approaches and tools, which was a markedly less subjective undertaking, Krippendorff's coefficient was $\alpha = .98$, indicating excellent inter-coder reliability. Concurrently, disagreements over coding were discussed and resolved by consensus between the researcher and the additional coder. Study characteristics were combined and categorised further to enable an aggregated understanding of the features of the included studies.

2.6. Synthesis of features of CAL research

2.6.1. General characteristics of CAL studies in the final sample

This section describes the general characteristics of the 31 included studies by population (2.6.1.1), educational levels and coverage (2.6.1.2), schooling type (2.6.1.3), and ethnic backgrounds of students (2.6.1.4):

2.6.1.1. Population

Coding of participants in all 31 studies has yielded 47 tokens[8] among nine population types (see Table 3.1), namely CAL students, non-CAL students, Chinese language subject teachers (i.e., CAL teachers), other teachers, senior management in schools, parents, government officials, non-governmental organisation personnel, and undefined individuals. Notably, students and teachers primarily account for 51% and 29% of all tokens yielded. Further coding was performed to categorise all 31 studies into three broad types: students-only (SO), teachers-only (TO), and hybrid (HST, HSTO, and HTO) studies. As shown by Table 3.2, SO studies, involving *only* students as primary participants, are a prominent category in current research responsible for 65% of all 31 studies in the final sample.

Population involved	n	%
CAL students	23	49
Non-CAL students	2	4
Chinese language subject teachers	11	23
Other teachers	3	6
Senior management in schools	3	6
Parents	1	2
Government officials	2	4
NGO personnel	1	2
Undefined	1	2

Table 3.1 | Population focus (N=31; n=47)

Study Types (by population involved)	Symbols	N	%
Students-only	SO	20	65
Teachers-only	TO	5	16
Hybrid (Students and teachers)	HST	1	3
Hybrid (Students, teachers, and other stakeholders)	HSTO	4	13
Hybrid (Teachers and other stakeholders)	HTO	1	3

Table 3.2 | Study types by population (N = 31)

[8] A given study may involve more than one type of participants. As such, coding performed on studies researching more than one participant type can result in more than one token. Considering that there are 47 tokens spread across 31 studies, the ratio of participant type per study is around 1.5.

2.6.1.2. Educational levels and coverage

Of the 25 studies (i.e., SO, HST, HSTO) that involve students as core research participants, further coding has been performed to explore educational levels and coverage of these studies, yielding 32 tokens[9] across 25 studies. Specifically, students at secondary levels (Secondary 1 6; Grades 7 12) are popular research targets (see Table 4.1), accounting for 78% of all 25 studies involving students.

Further analysis was performed to explore the educational coverage of these 25 studies. Since there are four broad educational levels (namely, Lower Primary, Upper Primary, Junior Secondary, and Senior Secondary), educational coverage is therefore operationalised as covering either a single level, or two levels. Two-level studies may be pan-primary, pan-secondary, or primary-secondary. As shown in Table 4.2, single-level studies are common, accounting for 68% of 25 studies involving students. What is also notable is that pan-secondary studies are the *only* type of empirical studies that attempt to cover two educational levels, which means that there is *no* research effort directed at pan-primary or primary-secondary issues.

Educational Levels	**n**	%
Lower Primary (Primary 1 3; Grades 1 3)	1	3
Upper Primary (Primary 4 6; Grades 4 6)	5	16
Junior Secondary (Secondary 1 3; Grades 7 9)	11	34
Senior Secondary (Secondary 4 6; Grades 10 12)	14	44
Others	1	3

Table 4.1 | Breakdown by educational levels reported in SO, HST, HSTO studies (N=25, n = 32)

Study Types (**by educational levels**)		**N**	%
Single-level studies		17	68
Two-level studies	Pan-primary (P1 P6)	0	0
	Pan-secondary (S1 S6)	7	28
	Primary-secondary (P4 S3)	0	0
Undefined		1	4

Table 4.2 | Breakdown of SO, HST, HSTO studies by educational coverage (N = 25)

[9] A given student-based study may involve more than one educational level. As such, coding performed on studies researching more than one educational level can yield more than one token. Considering that there are 32 tokens spread across 25 studies, the ratio of educational level per study is around 1.3.

2.6.1.3. Schooling types

From Table 5, there are two predominant types of schooling under exploration: mainstream settings and accommodated settings. Since a given study can explore both settings, 36 tokens are identified from 31 studies in the final sample. Studies exploring settings with some form of CAL accommodation account for 69% of all tokens counted, which indicates a concentration of empirical research on accommodated settings (i.e., non-mainstream CAL settings overcrowded with ethnolinguistic minority students, or formerly designated CAL settings).

Schooling types	**n**	%
Mainstream settings	9	25
Accommodated settings	25	69
Undefined	2	6

Table 5 | Schooling types (N = 31, n = 36; not mutually exclusive)

2.6.1.4. Ethnic backgrounds of students

As shown by Table 6, three ethnic minority groups Indians (23%), Nepalese (23%), and Pakistanis (22%) are featured prominently in the final sample. These groups are also the three prominent ethnic minority groups identified in the 2016 by-census (Census and Statistics Department, 2017). The two studies that feature Han (i.e., ethnic) Chinese students take a comparative approach to explore similarities and differences between majority and minority language students. Overall, Table 6 illustrates the inherent diversity within the CAL population.

Ethnic backgrounds of the pupils involved in the studies	**N**	%
Bangladeshi	2	2
Han Chinese (i.e., ethnic Chinese)	2	2
Filipino	11	13
Indian	19	23
Indonesian	2	2
Nepalese	19	23
Pakistani	18	22
Thai	3	4
Others/Mixed	6	8

Table 6 | Ethnic backgrounds of pupils (N = 31, n = 82)

2.6.2. Topical interests

Table 7 records 59 topical types and 86 topical tokens from 31 CAL studies. Token-type ratio is 1.5. The average token-per-study ratio is 2.8 with its standard deviation being $\sigma = 1.4$, signifying that studies with only one interest — accounting for only 22% of the final sample — are not common. Of all 86 topical tokens, 3 broad categories are identified: quantitative interests (49%), qualitative interests (40%), and others (11%). Since quantitative studies are more interested in correlational and multivariate analyses of variables, it is understandable that comparatively more topical tokens are recorded in the quantitative category.

Specifically, for quantitative interests, certain topical types — for example, Chinese proficiency measures, including decoding measures — record more than one token, which suggests ongoing research activities germane to these topical types. Other quantitatively-oriented topical types record only one occurrence each, which implies the early stage of knowledge production vis-à-vis these interests. As for qualitative interests, there are repeated occurrences for a number of student-based topical interests, for example, self-identity, language attitudes/ideologies, and language practices. Notably, self-identity of CAL students as a research topic has emerged as the most popular qualitative topic in CAL research from 1997 to 2017. Topics in the 'Others' category, accounting for 11% of all included studies, are distinct from quantitative and qualitative categories by their macroscopic foci on policy and societal factors.

Categories		Topical types	n
Quantitative Interests (42; 49%)	Chinese proficiency	Reading	6
		Writing	2
		Listening	5
		Speaking	1
		Chinese learning progress	1
		Chinese character reading development	1
	Interventions	Reading-to-Learn (R2L) Pedagogy	1
		Copying	1
		Teaching radical knowledge	1
		Teaching phonological knowledge	1
		Look-say method	1
	Measurements	Academic expectations	1
		Acculturation orientation	2
		Career expectations	1
		Chinese character recognition skills	3
		Chinese language motivation	1

		Chinese language learning strategies	1
		Chinese orthography awareness and knowledge	3
		Comparing CAL and non-CAL students	1
		Efficacy in learning Chinese	2
		Ethnic identity	1
		General learning experience	1
		Ideal L2 self	1
		Intended effort to learn Chinese	1
		Parental encouragement in learning Chinese	1
		Self-report language competencies	1
Qualitative interests (34; 40%)	General	Schools' attempts at culturally suitable environment	1
		Schools' strategies in helping students learn Chinese	1
		Social mobility of Hong Kong ethnic minority youth	1
	Students' perceptions	Academic experiences in *mainstream* settings	1
		Academic experiences in *accommodated* settings	1
		Social experiences in *mainstream* settings	1
		Social experiences in *accommodated* settings	1
		Major challenges in learning Chinese	1
		Chinese language motivation	1
		Efficacy in learning Chinese	1
		Heritage language learning	1
		Language attitudes/ideologies	2
		Language practices	2
		Effectiveness of Reading-to-Learn (R2L) Pedagogy	1
		Self-identity	7
	Teachers' perceptions	Aims of Chinese language teaching	1
		Challenges in teaching CAL	1
		Chinese culture transmission	1
		Imagined community for South Asian learners	1
		Integration of South Asian cultures into CAL	1
		Language ideologies	1
		Reasons for students' low proficiency in Chinese	1
		Role of bilingual assistants	1
		Self-identity	1
		Concerns for South Asian students learning CAL	1
	Stakeholders' perception	Evaluation of governmental support measures	1
Others (10; 11%)	Policy	Primary-secondary linkage	1
		Assessment	2
		How inspection should be done	1
	Sociolinguistics	Societal language ideologies	1
	Curriculum	Implementation of school-based curricula	1
		Catering for learner diversity	2
		Pedagogical materials	2

Table 7 | Topical interests (n = 86)

2.6.3. Methodological approaches and tools

Table 8.1 shows that quantitative and qualitative studies account for 32% and 52% of the final sample respectively. This finding, when considered alongside the percentages of quantitative (49%) and qualitative (40%) topical interests, connotes that quantitative studies tend to explore more CAL-related topics (i.e., variables) than qualitative ones. Mixed-methods studies are a minority, accounting for 16% of the final sample. Table 8.2 categorises studies in the final sample into two types: either cross-sectional or time-series. Cross-sectional studies (i.e., data collection at one time point) are more frequently adopted than time-series counterparts (i.e., data collection at multiple time points). Table 8.3 summarises findings relating to methodological tools adopted in the final sample. In total, 90 methodological tokens are recorded. On average, each study in the final sample adopts around 3 tools. Language assessments and interviews account for 34% and 31% of all tools adopted respectively, with face-to-face individual interviews being the most used instrument of these 31 CAL studies included in the sample.

Research approaches (**by nature**)	**N**	%
Quantitative	10	32
Qualitative	16	52
Mixed	5	16

Table 8.1 | Research approaches by nature

Research approaches (**by time**)	**N**	%
Cross-sectional	24	77
Time-series	7	23

Table 8.2 | Research approaches by time

Instruments		**n**	%
Types	*Sub-types*		
Measurements	Reading	7	34
	Writing	3	
	Listening	5	
	Speaking	1	
	Chinese orthography awareness & knowledge	4	
	Chinese character recognition skill	4	
	Mental lexicon	1	
	Nonverbal IQ	1	
	Verbal knowledge	1	
	Chinese word reading	2	

	Chinese word writing	1	
	Pre/post tests	1	
Interviews	Individual interviews (face-to-face)	21	31
	Group interviews (face-to-face)	6	
	Smartphone/email interviews (virtual)	1	
Observations	General/participant observation	4	17
	Lesson observation	10	
	Activity observation	1	
Questionnaires		6	7
Content analyses	Analysis of pedagogical materials	4	9
	Analysis of institutional materials	2	
	Analysis of media	1	
	Analysis of blog entries	1	
Use of photography		2	2

Table 8.3 | Instruments (n=90)

2.7. CAL research gaps

This systematic review is the *first* review that provides an overview of both peer-reviewed research publications and doctoral dissertations with a focus on the teaching and learning of CAL for minority students in post-1997 Hong Kong. Findings from this systematic review have revealed that the research into various dimensions of the CAL phenomenon is still in its infancy. Although the review period covers two decades since the 1997 handover, the earliest empirical and peer-reviewed research study is a 2009 quantitative study published in Chinese by Wong and Siu (2009). One possible explanation for the lag may be that it takes time for the series of language policies implemented since 1997 to take effect, which has in time presented the learning of Chinese as a major obstacle for minority learners and as a pedagogical issue for CAL teachers at various schooling levels. That said, the study by Wong and Siu (2009) is preceded by the publications of several notable departmental reports (e.g., Loper, 2004; Ku, Chan, & Sandhu, 2005), which means that the research community began conceptualising and problematising CAL as a research area earlier than the present review suggests. In sum, Figure 4 suggests the body of peer-reviewed and doctoral research across the timespan of the review has been steadily growing, testifying to increased research interest in this area.

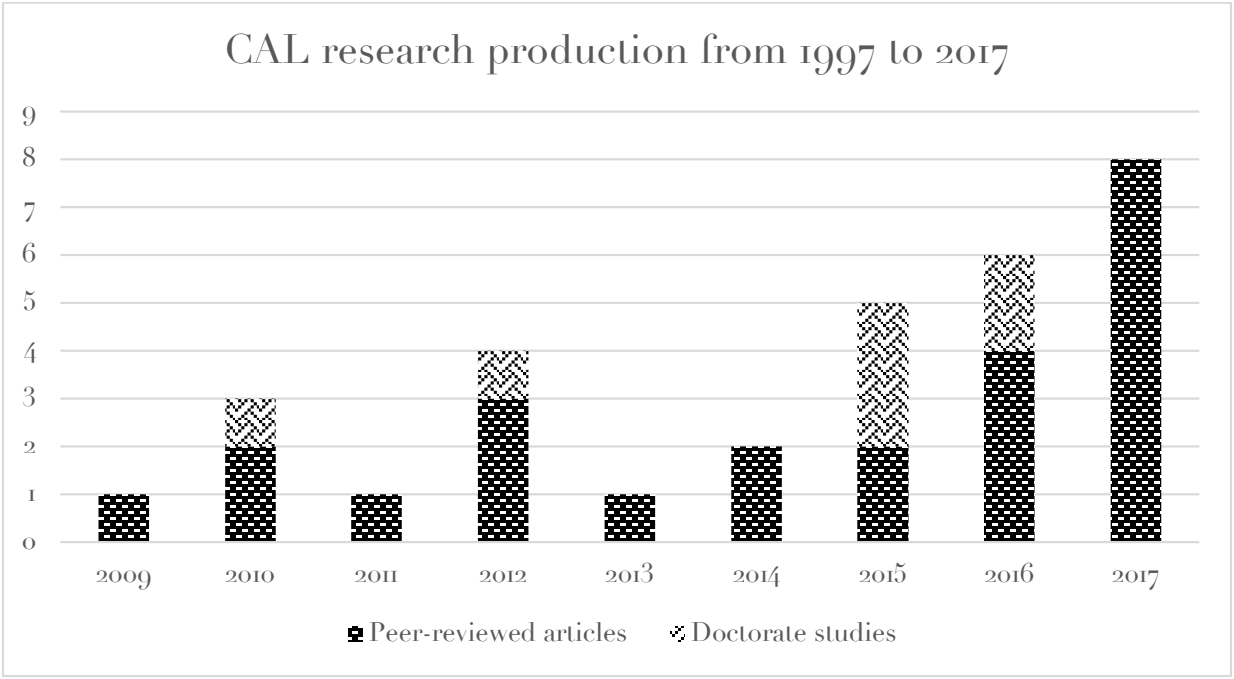


Figure 4 | CAL research production from 1997 to 2017

Aside from the upward trend, the early stage of CAL research production is further evinced by a wide spectrum of topical interests which are only pursued *once* (see 2.6.2). Further analysis of topical interests, by way of tallying the number of topical types with only one topical token, has shown that 46 topical types out of 59 were investigated only once, accounting for 78% of all topical types. Although topical clusters, formed out of topical types, can still be observed among both quantitative (e.g., measurements of proficiency) and qualitative (e.g., identity-related issues) interests, it is apparent that CAL knowledge base is still developing. More research efforts are needed to promote topical continuity, deepen an understanding of the CAL phenomenon vis-à-vis the evolving CAL policy ecology, and address research gaps present in the current literature. Considering the urgency of a more comprehensive understanding of various CAL issues for the Hong Kong community in general and the minority groups in particular, this review argues that there are both methodological and knowledge gaps relating to CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong.

2.7.1. Methodological gaps

Most of the peer-reviewed and doctoral research hitherto conducted grapples with what Bronfenbrenner (1994, 1995) terms as the microsystems, exploring primarily learner-internal factors vis-à-vis their immediate environments. While these

endeavours glean valuable data from specific circumstances and contexts, they may not offer much of a perspective on the influences from meso- and macro-systems. As further argued by Shum and colleagues (2015), and suggested by the findings of the present review, existing empirical research, whether CAL-focused or otherwise, can be easily dichotomised into two broad types: first, applied linguistics studies that offer microsystemic documentation of minority students' low literacy in Chinese (e.g., Tsung, Zhang, & Cruickshank, 2010; Tse, Ki, & Shum, 2012); second, sociological studies that focus on non-linguistic factors within largely macrosystemic framings (e.g., Chee, 2012; Yuen & Lee, 2016). However, both paradigms seem to operate in silos with distinct disciplinary boundaries, giving rise to potentially fragmented understandings of the CAL phenomenon.

In this regard, the study argues that the field of LPP within applied linguistics — with its focus on a multilayered understanding of the tension between macrosystemic acquisition planning and microsystemic factors (Lo Bianco, 2004) — presents a promising way forward for CAL research production, which aligns well with the Douglas Fir Group's (2016) call for a transdisciplinary agenda in applied linguistics research. As such, the scope of future CAL research shall be accordingly set to explore and examine relationships between microsystemic variables (i.e., proficiency and identity), and mesosystemic and macrosystemic variables (i.e., instructional features, school factors, and policy), which necessitates the amalgamation of methodological traditions within an LPP framework to yield a richer understanding of the interplay of variables across micro-, meso-, and macro-dimensions of the CAL phenomenon. Although mixed-methods research holds the potential to transcend disciplinary boundaries, the present review reveals that mixed-methods studies remain a minority, accounting only for 16% of all CAL-related studies in the final sample. This review has furthermore shown a bifurcation of the research hitherto conducted into either quantitative (49%) or qualitative (40%) interests that are more concerned with microsystemic factors. As such, meso- and macrosystemic structures (11%) — such as curriculum and policy, which are at present under-studied — can be further explored through multimethodology whose combination of traditions and research tools not only aligns well with LPP and transdisciplinary agendas, but also promotes the fit between research questions and data collection.

2.7.2. Knowledge gaps

There is a broad consensus about the presence of a Chinese language learning crisis among existing research, with studies documenting challenges facing CAL students, as well as their low literacy in Chinese, as they learn Chinese as a majority language in postcolonial Hong Kong (e.g., Shum, Gao, & Ki, 2015; Gu, Mak, & Qu, 2017).

Moreover, related research on minority parents points consistently to their high aspirations for their children to master CAL, as well as their own low literacy or even illiteracy in Chinese. Essentially, existing research suggests the existence of a linguistic mismatch between home settings and school ones, which dovetails with scholarly research relating to minority learners in western settings (Cummins, 2000). In addition, as for studies exploring instructed CAL settings, even though Chinese Language subject teachers' cultural insensitivity has been identified as a common risk factor (e.g., Arat et al., 2016), there also exists research indicative of their discourses to exercise agency and exert professionalism in response to inadequacies of prevailing CAL policies (Gao, 2012b).

Overall, despite a burgeoning body of research relating to the learning and teaching CAL from 1997 to 2017, there exist two noticeable research gaps emerging from the systematic review. First, CAL instructional spaces constitute an area ripe for further research attention, especially against the backdrop that ethnolinguistic minority parents, albeit having high aspirations for their children, can only play a restrictive role in supporting their children to acquire CAL (see Society for Community Organization, 2004; Oxfam, 2014). As such, schools are better reconceptualised as 'dominant extra-familial institution[s]' that hold the potential for successful learning of CAL (Gao, 2018, p.4), and sites of 'enactment of racial meanings' (Cohen, 1993, p.290), 'social and cultural reproduction' (Heller, 2006, p.16), access to academic language proficiency (Valdés, 2004), transformative power (Cummins, 2001; Barlett & García, 2011), ample opportunities to interact with people fluent in the target language (Wong-Fillmore, 1976; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2005) and so forth. Instructional spaces across schools, as well as their affordances, therefore, are increasingly important sites where CAL practices interact with evolving CAL policies. Yet, as the review has shown, lesson observations account only for 11% of all methodological tokens (see Table 8.3 of 2.6.3). Among studies employing some form of lesson observation, few examine input and/or interactional variables (e.g., code use, interactional patterns, discoursal functions, question types, and task use) constitutive of CAL lessons, with a propensity to make impressionistic use of lesson observation data to supplement other instruments. This presents an opportunity for further studies to fill the existing knowledge gap relating to CAL instructional spaces.

Second, given the prevalence of CAL studies focusing only on a single educational level (i.e., lack of research exploring two educational levels, especially the primary-secondary interface) (see Table 7.2 of 2.6.1.2), as well as a dearth of comparative studies of both mainstream and accommodated settings (i.e., insufficient knowledge of CAL provision as enacted and experienced across settings of varying ethnic concentration) (see Table 8 of 2.6.1.3), taking an empirical approach that compares

and contrasts various CAL settings thus enables a more nuanced understanding of the diversified CAL arrangements vis-à-vis the contextual variables of educational level and ethnic concentration. Contextual richness, on account of history and policy evolution, is further set against the backdrop of high implementational freedom as part of Hong Kong's school-based management policy. In a decentralised ecology, the onus is upon schools admitting minority students to, inter alia, respond instructionally to the CAL needs of their students to promote effective learning and teaching of CAL. Altogether, taking a comparative approach, paired with purposive sampling, generates more transferable knowledge relating to the current state of CAL provision.

Overall, despite mounting CAL-related research, there remains an incomplete picture of how various school settings — of varying degrees of ethnic concentration, as well as across key schooling levels — are enacting their school-based CAL curricula, and how CAL teachers are negotiating and responding as agentive language planners under the state-led mandate of the 2014 'Learning Framework' that intends to mainstream minority students with CAL needs within a laissez-faire[10] policy structure. In short, basing on the synthesis of topical and methodological features of existing CAL literature, this review argues the following two implications for future research. First, taking an LPP approach to researching CAL provision necessitates dual attention to both the policy itself and the manifestation of the policy across various sites at the school level, with implications for adopting a mixed-methods design. Second, CAL instructional spaces enacted in a range of CAL schools should be construed as a knowledge gap, especially against the backdrop of insufficient empirical research and high autonomy within a decentralised policy ecology.

[10] It should be noted that the term 'laissez-faire' has a local connotation that is derived from the cherished economic rhetoric of 'positive non-interventionism', a concept and coinage traceable to colonial administrators Sir John Cowperthwaite and Sir Philip Haddon-Cave (Mizuoka, 2018; Peck, Bok, & Zhang, 2020). Scholarly research has also identified traces of laissez-faireism on the trajectories of postcolonial public and social policymaking (Hung, 2012; see also a 2006 speech entitled 'Big Market, Small Government' by the then Chief Executive, Sir Donald Tsang). In this regard, the term 'laissez-faire' is intended in the present study as a referent describing the post-1997 education policies which have been oriented towards decentralisation and, by extension, school autonomy. One case in point is the policy of 'school-based management' where educational decision-making is deferred to the management of the school, with the government generally playing the minimised role of a facilitator (Cheng & Chan, 2000; Ng & Chan, 2008). Another example would be that schools are encouraged to engage in self-evaluation as part of the school accountability processes formalised in postcolonial Hong Kong (Yeung, 2010; Ko, Cheng, & Lee, 2016). According to a recent PISA report (PISA in Focus, 2011), Hong Kong is rated as relatively autonomous in curriculum and assessment, as well as resource use. Taken together, the term 'laissez-faire' functions to describe a general school governance structure oriented towards decentralised and devolved decision-making.

3. Methodology

3.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- expands research questions that guide this study (3.2.1);
- highlights the overall research design (3.2.2 3.2.4);
- details the processes of data collection (3.3) and analysis (3.4); and
- elaborates on ethical considerations and risk assessment (3.5).

3.2. Research design

This study has gathered simultaneous and sequential quantitative and qualitative data (i.e., a mixed-methods approach) in an equal-status design exploring CAL provision at macro, meso, and micro levels. In what follows, guiding research questions (3.2.1) are enumerated with research philosophy (3.2.2) presented and key design principles (3.2.3) highlighted.

3.2.1. Research questions

Informed by findings of the systematic review of CAL literature from 1997 to 2017, this study was further guided by the following research questions from three distinct yet connected domains exploring CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong. For tabulations of research questions vis-à-vis overarching research rationales, refer to Appendix 3.1 on page 451. For an overview of research questions vis-à-vis methods and data sources, see Table 9.

3.2.1.1. The 'Policy' domain

(1) What policy intensions are articulated in policy documents pertaining to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 levels from 2014 onwards (i.e., Phase 3)?

3.2.1.2. The 'Practice' domain

(2) What instructional practices are observed over the delivery of a thematic module in a cross-section of CAL settings? With reference to learner characteristics, how do these instructional practices differ as a function of educational levels and/or ethnic concentration?

Specifically, it is divided into the following three sub-questions:

(2a) What learner characteristics constitute CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by language proficiency, language use and exposure, and motivation and affect?
(2b) What interactional patterns are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by code, speaker, turn, and function?
(2c) What assessment practices are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by location, technology use, differentiation, and type?

3.2.1.3. The 'Phenomenology' domain

(3a) What are the lived experiences of teaching CAL for Chinese Language teachers observed?
(3b) What are the lived experiences of learning CAL for ethnolinguistic minority students from CAL classes observed?

3.2.2. Research philosophy

The present study was positioned as an exploratory LPP study straddling the transformative and pragmatic paradigms.

First of all, the present study's alignment with a transformative orientation reflects its commitment to engaging ethically with less privileged groups in the research context of postcolonial Hong Kong, as well as general principles of justice and beneficence. As defined by Mertens (2009, 2015), a transformative stance enjoins researchers to explicitly position themselves with less powerful groups to bring about social justice and transformation. There are two advantages to this orientation. First, taking a transformative stance enables greater sensitivity towards issues of power and justice, which is in alignment with the wider research community's concern toward culturally appropriate theories and methods pertaining to research into linguistic and cultural diversity (e.g., APA, 2002, 2017). Given that most of ethnic minority participants of South Asian origins in Hong Kong live below the poverty line (Census and Statistics Department, 2015) and are oftentimes characterised by the majority group as linguistically/culturally deficient welfare abusers (see Gao et al, 2011; Lee & Law, 2016) and minoritised as 'a non-Chinese, non-Anglo underclass' (Gao & Lai, 2017, p.2), it is imperative that issues of power differences are carefully considered, rather than either dismissed as extraneous or admitted simplistically, in the

processes of research design, data collection and analysis, and knowledge dissemination. Second, characterised as research that 'attempts to create conditions for empowerment and social justice' (Kincheloe, McLaren, Steinberg, & Monzó, 2017, p.421), transformative research furthermore emphasises multiplicities of perspectives and voices, respecting the bricolage method which advises against 'the parochialism of unidisciplinary approaches' and the singularity of perspective (Kincheloe, 2001, p.679).

Furthermore, the variety of research questions posed at the macro, meso, and micro levels of CAL provision evinces a pragmatic research stance (Morse & Richards, 2002), which consists in not swearing allegiance to a singular onto-epistemological paradigm (i.e., postpositivism versus constructivism). Also, it is characterised by its eclectic and pluralistic stance on guaranteeing the fit between research aims and data collection methods. One benefit of adopting such a stance for the present study is methodological flexibility because a pragmatic research design does not have to revolve around a particular philosophical paradigm (Morse & Richards, 2002; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Onto-epistemologically, a pragmatic stance desists from engaging the metaphysical excesses characteristic of the debate as a result of 'the forced choice dichotomy between postpositivism and constructivism' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p.27), which lead inevitably to an undesirable situation which Morgan (2007) terms as 'the top-down privileging of ontological assumptions' (p.68) to the detriment of scientific inquiries. To avoid this situation where ontology takes precedence before all else, a pragmatic stance invites researchers to re-orient their inquiries by advocating the importance of methodology as a bridge between the abstract level of epistemological considerations and the technical level of methods. By not conceptualising incommensurability as 'an all-or-nothing barrier between mutual understanding' (Morgan, 2007, p.72), pragmatism synergistically synthesises from both postpositivism and constructivism, such that researchers do not have to 'be the prisoner of a particular method' (Robson, 1993, p.291), and that knowledge creation can attend to and capitalise upon '*shared meanings* and *joint action* [original emphasis]' integral to and inherent in any empirical endeavours (Morgan, 2007, p.67). Taken together, pragmatism exemplifies what Patton (2002, p.257) terms as a 'paradigm of choices' in social science methodology, in which the onus is upon the researcher to justify and defend the fit between methods and research aims.

Ethical and methodological strategies on account of the present inquiry's alignment with a transformative-pragmatic orientation are implemented with various risk factors minimised as far as practicable (see Appendix 3.2 on page 416).

3.2.3. Design principles within a case-study approach

To further operationalise the transformative-pragmatic orientation as highlighted above, several design principles were adopted as part of the case-study approach of the present inquiry to heed both quantitative and qualitative logics, and to facilitate the synergistic use of multimethodology for analytical generalisation (Yin, 2009, 2010), as well as thick description (Geertz, 1993; Merriam, 1998) and particularisation (Duffy, 1987). Essentially 'a transparadigmatic and transdisciplinary heuristic that involves the careful delineation of the phenomenon for which evidence is being collected' (VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007), case studies are an apt, particularistic means of accomplishing the overarching research objectives in this study vis-à-vis the research philosophy described earlier. Therefore, taking a case-study approach is 'useful where one needs to understand some special people, particular problem, or unique situation in great depth, and where one can identify cases rich in information rich in the sense that a great deal can be learned from a few exemplars of the phenomenon in question…' (Patton, 1990, p.54), enabling the present study to achieve the necessary breadth and depth of the phenomenon in question.

3.2.3.1. Use of multiple methods

Pragmaticism, as Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) argue, lays the philosophical foundation for mixed-methods research (MMR). As a pragmatic response to the paradigmatic war between quantitative and qualitative researchers (see Pring, 2000a & 2000b), MMR is defined in this study as 'the type of research in which a researcher… combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches… for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration' (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p.123). Beyond the obvious benefits of bridging the quantitative-qualitative divide and redressing the rigidity inherent in adhering to a single onto-epistemological orientation, MMR has been credited as a means of ensuring triangulation and validation (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Bouchard, 1976; Denzin, 1979), generating thicker and richer data (Jick, 1979), promoting complementarity and methodological pluralism (Sieber, 1973; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Sechrest & Sidana, 1995), and optimising the sample through encouraging multiple perspectives and voices (Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Sutton, 2006). Additionally, MMR fits well with a transformative worldview (Mertens, Bledsoe, Sullivan, & Wilson, 2010). As shown in Figure 5, methodological pluralism was achieved in the present study by five major methods[11], namely, Qualitative

[11] 'Systematic Review' has been conceived as a standalone entity that informs 'Policy', 'Practice', and 'Phenomenology'.

Content Analysis (**QCA**), Language Assessment (**LA**), Language Background Questionnaires (**LBQ**), Lesson Observation (**LO**), Phenomenological Interviews with CAL students (**PIS**) and teachers (**PIT**). These five methods, following either quantitative or qualitative logics, were conducted both simultaneously and/or sequentially to achieve complementarity in the present study.

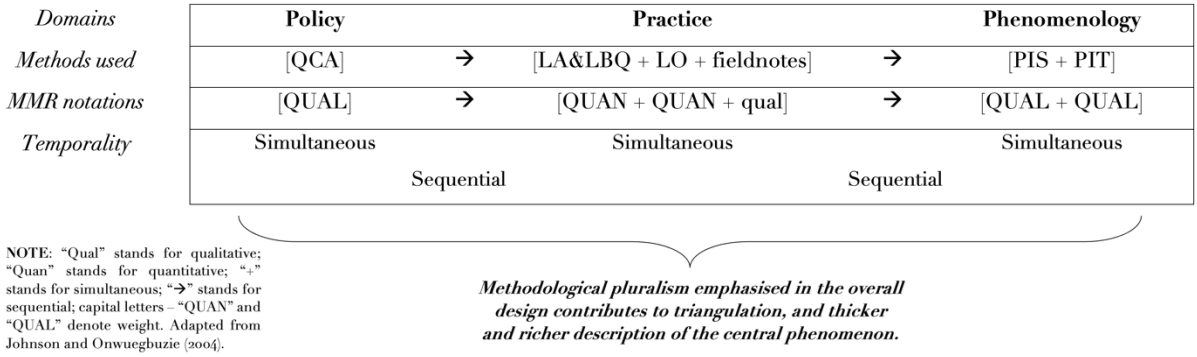


Figure 5 | An illustration of the mixed-methods design adopted in the present study

3.2.3.2. Attention to multiple sites and actors

Gaining popularity since the 1970s as a design principle to 'overcome some of the weaknesses of large quantitative evaluations without being limited by the particularism of the single-site case study' (Herriott & Firestone, 1983, p.14), multi-site by extension, multi-actor policy research has the advantage of optimising description while promoting representativeness. Given the spatial boundedness of sites and key CAL participants in them, it is crucial to sample multiple sites and actors in the present study to enable a fuller understanding of the phenomenon. Specifically, sites of interest are primary and secondary schools within which CAL classrooms are situated. Accordingly, key actors of interest are the CAL students and their teachers constitutive of these CAL instructional spaces. Proponents of multi-site policy research (notably, Metz, 1978) generally advise standardised procedures and instruments be uniformly administered across different sites through a single investigator, which is ideal for a doctoral project. Considering the labour-intensive nature of such an endeavour, the number of sites in the 'Practice' domain is best kept to 'no more than three or four' to maintain a balance between standardisation and in-depth description (Herriott & Firestone, 1983, p.18).

3.2.3.3. Acknowledgement of the multidimensionality of the phenomenon

Another design principle deals with the multidimensionality of the phenomenon under exploration. Often considered a corrective to unidimensional research that lacks ecological validity, having regard to multidimensionality allows for a more holistic picture of the phenomenon under investigation and has become a hallmark of quality research across the social sciences. In LPP research, investigating the tension between a macro-level dimension (e.g., policy) and a micro-level one (e.g., practice) has increasingly become the modus operandi upon which newer conceptualisations (e.g., Blommaert, 2010; Canagarajah, 2013; Mortimer, 2016) exploring complexities and nuances along the macro-micro continuum are built. In this regard, SLA and applied linguistics researchers have increasingly championed multidimensionality as a crucial design principle. Notably, in the centenary issue of *The Modern Language Journal*, The Douglas Fir Group (2016) comprising leading applied linguists from North America has put forward a rethought SLA research framework which addresses dimensions of a central phenomenon ranging 'from the neurobiological and cognitive micro levels to the macro levels of the sociocultural, educational, ideological, and socioemotional' (p.39). This 'from-cell-to-society' approach to additional language learning holds the potential to better approximate ecological validity (Cicourel, 2007), as well as to capture the dynamism among the components of the phenomenon (Hult, 2019).

3.2.4. Summary of the research design: Policy, Practice, and Phenomenology

In sum, Figure 6 visualises the research design in the present study from conceptualisation to operationalisation, with an overview of the research questions vis-à-vis methods and data sources presented in Table 9. Through the medium of the case-study approach, three interrelated yet distinct dimensions were the key foci in the present study. They are theoretically informed by Lo Bianco's (2010) language planning analytical framework with the incorporation of a phenomenological method pioneered by Giorgi (1985a, 1985b, 2009). Lo Bianco's (2010) framework enables a more comprehensive approach to investigating the *objective* realities of CAL provision through examining (i) policy documents, (ii) circulating discourse and rhetoric, and (iii) local action and practice. The added phenomenological component allows the exploration of *subjective* realities of key participants situated in the CAL ecology specifically, multilingual students (Kramsch, 2009) and their teachers (Kramsch & Zhang, 2018) as they are experiencing prevailing CAL policies. Furthermore, at the technical level of data collection and analysis, considering that the linkages between dimensions were complemental and equal in nature, each domain was treated as a self-contained unit woven into a larger case study.

Complementarity in the current design enables the development of corresponding quality assurance strategies and promotes triangulation. An equal-status design allows delayed merging of MMR findings without privileging *a priori* directional assumptions such as structuralism (i.e., structure over agency) or individualism (i.e., agency over structure); doing so affords a more nuanced picture of having recognised the intertwinement between structure and localised action. Succinctly, the current study is positioned as an LPP case study that explores different domains of CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students through engaging multiple actors and using multiple methods.

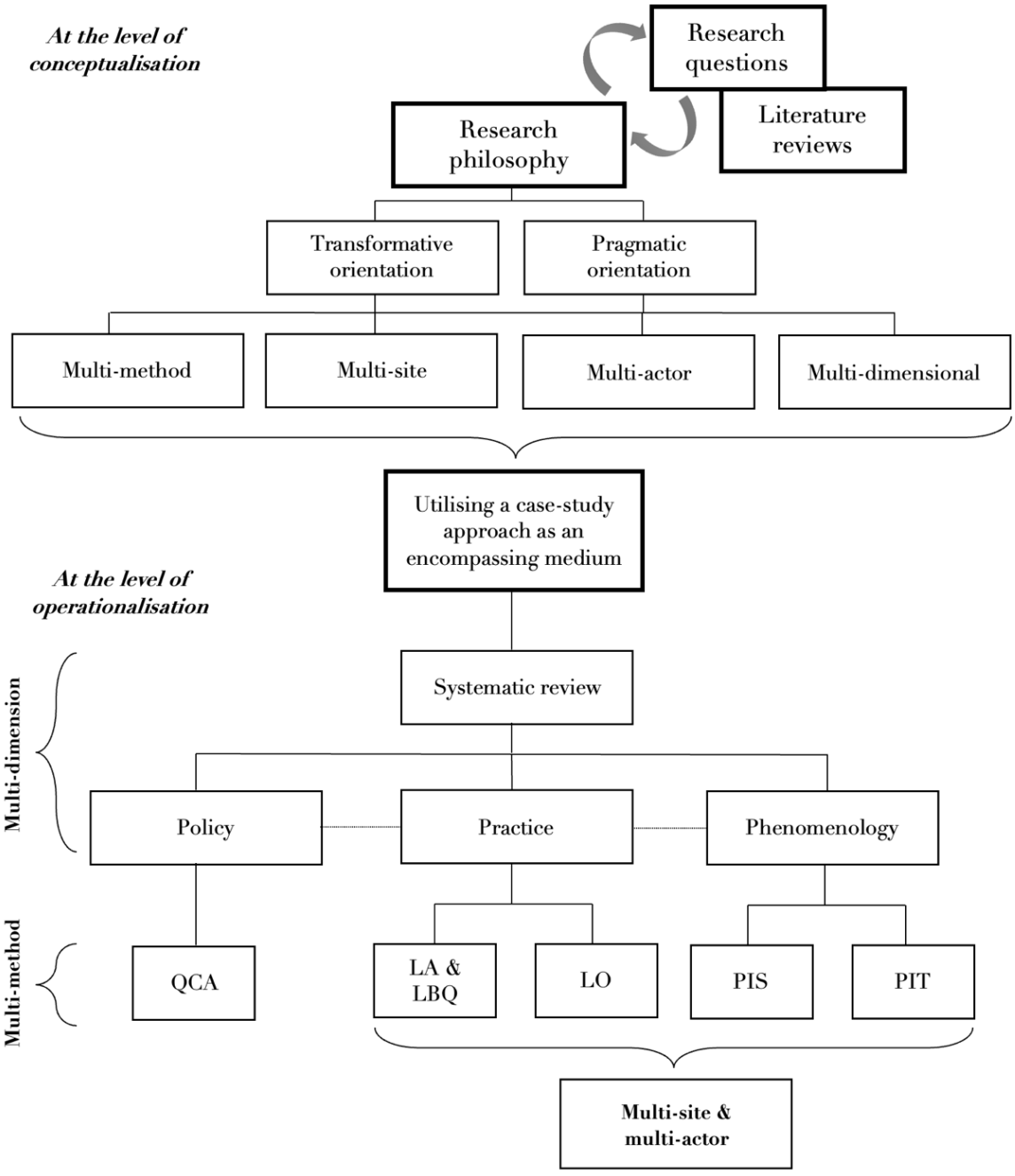


Figure 6 | From conceptualisation to operationalisation

Domains	Research questions		Methods	Data generated
Policy	What policy intensions are articulated in policy documents pertaining to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 levels from 2014 onwards (i.e., Phase 3)?		Building **a corpus** with relevant policy texts and associated documents, and analysing them in multiple iterations over a sustained period	Qualitative data from **policy analysis via qualitative content analysis**
Practice	What instructional practices are observed over the delivery of a thematic module in a cross-section of CAL settings? With reference to learner characteristics, how do these instructional practices differ as a function of educational levels and/or ethnic concentration?	What learner characteristics constitute CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by language proficiency, language use and exposure, and motivation and affect?	Conducting **lesson observations** over the delivery of a modular unit in a heterogeneous sample of four CAL contexts (marked by differences in educational levels and ethnic concentration), complemented with the administering of a battery of **language proficiency measures** and **language background questionnaires**	Quantitative data from **language background questionnaires** and **language proficiency measures**
		What interactional patterns are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by code, speaker, turn, and function?		Quantitative data of **talks** in CAL classrooms by code, turn, and function, supplemented with qualitative fieldnotes
		What assessment practices are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by location, technology use, differentiation, and type?		Quantitative data of **tasks** in CAL classrooms by extent, variety, and cognitive demand, supplemented with qualitative fieldnotes
Phenomenology	What are the lived experiences of teaching CAL for Chinese Language teachers observed?		Conducting **phenomenological interviews** with CAL teachers in CAL contexts that have been observed in the 'Practice' domain	Qualitative data from **phenomenological interviews** with teachers
	What are the lived experiences of learning CAL for ethnolinguistic minority students from CAL classes observed?		Conducting **phenomenological interviews** with CAL students in CAL contexts that have been observed in the 'Practice' domain	Qualitative data from **phenomenological interviews** with students

Table 9 | An overview of research questions vis-à-vis methods and data sources

3.3. Data collection

The present study collected data in HKSAR of the PRC in 2018 and 2019. Data collection comprised two broad phases: the piloting and access negotiation phase which lasted three months from October 2018 to December 2018; the main phase which lasted eight months from January 2019 to August 2019. For an overview of data collection vis-à-vis the academic year 2018/2019, refer to Figure 7. Unlike systematic review and the analysis of policy documents which involved the collection of secondary data, methods adopted in the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains involved human participants and, by implication, required ethical clearance and informed consent. Furthermore, methods adopted underwent individualised processes of instrumentation, piloting, sampling, and quality assurance, with a view to adhering to the onto-epistemological logics of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. In what follows, attention will be paid to how data collection was conducted in the present study, especially in areas relating to research context (3.3.1), access negotiation (3.3.2), samples selected across domains (3.3.3), and instrumentation and quality assurance of major instruments used (3.3.4).

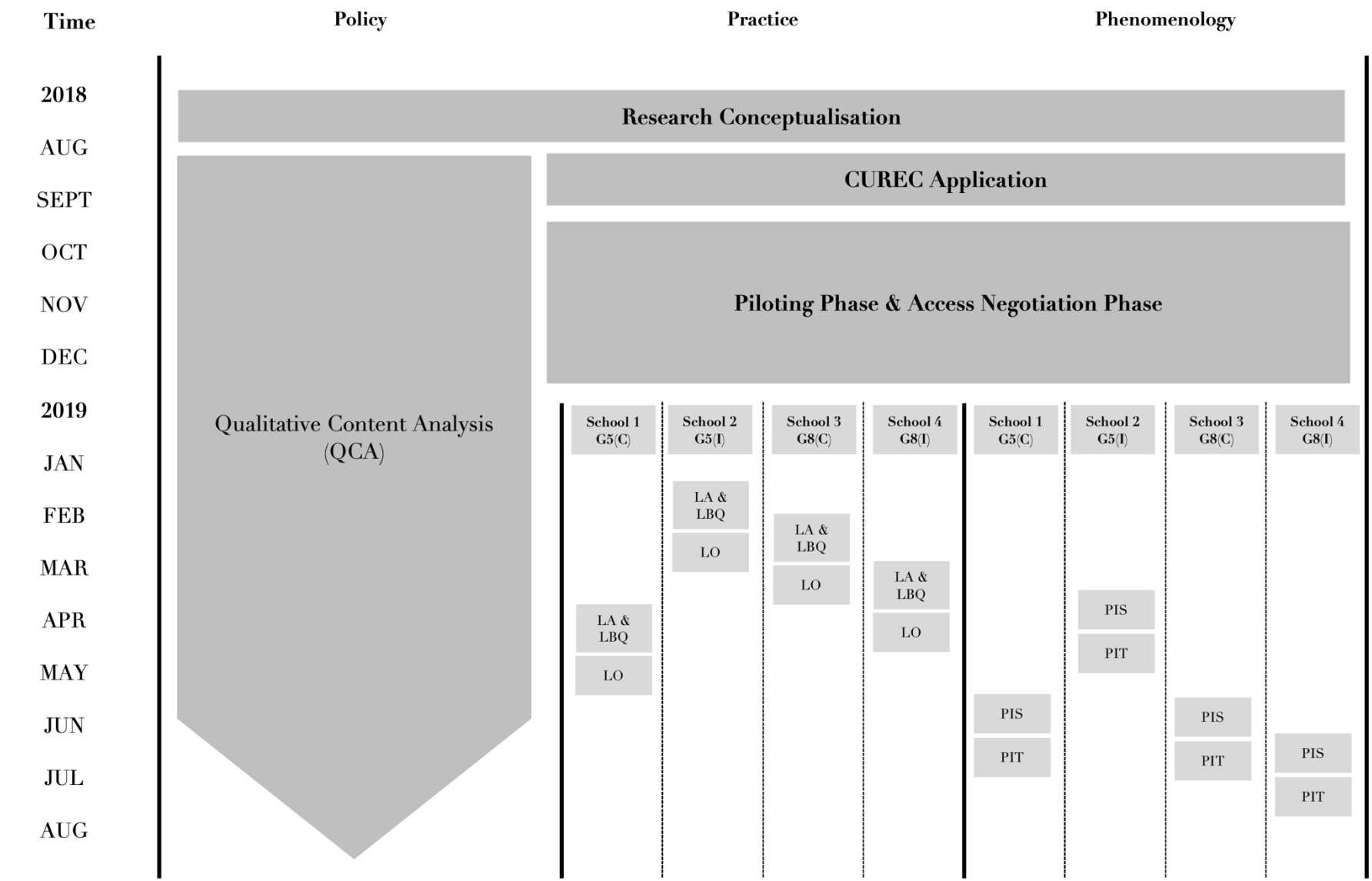


Figure 7 | An overview of data collection

3.3.1. Research context

In this section, key aspects germane to the research context — namely the sociolinguistic situation (3.3.1.1), who CAL learners are (3.3.1.2), and education system available to them (3.3.1.3) — are presented.

3.3.1.1. Sociolinguistic situation

Early years of colonial Hong Kong exemplified Fishman's (1967) notion of 'diglossia without bilingualism' in which two monolingual populations co-existed in the same community without very minimal interaction with each other. For more than a century since the founding of the colony in 1841, there was no statutory provision for the use of official languages in the territory, with English serving as the *de facto* official language across executive, judicial, and legislative domains (So, 1996). Gradually, the situation morphed into what Richards (1982) characterises as 'societal bilingualism' where a select group of bilingual Cantonese elites served as the linguistic middlemen between Cantonese-speaking locals and English-speaking expatriates. Against this backdrop, free basic education was made compulsory since 1971 (Ou, 2013), helping raise the literacy rates of its citizenry. Around this time, upon public pressure, the Official Languages Ordinance was enacted in 1974 to declare the English and Chinese languages as 'the official languages of Hong Kong for the purposes of communication between the Government or any public officer and members of the public', and to affirm their 'equal status' and 'equality of use' (Cap. 5, Section 3) (Evans, 2000). Between the 1980s and 1990s, the city was becoming an international financial hub with considerable economic growth, with the Hong Kong citizenry turning bilingual during this period (Lord, 1987). That said, considering the colonial legacy, the situation of diglossia persisted with English being the principal and preferred language of higher education, business, public administration, and law, to name but a few (So, 1996).

Subsequently, with the Basic Law of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region coming into effect after the 1997 handover, Chinese and English are re-affirmed as the two official languages in postcolonial Hong Kong (Article 9), although the Chinese language is not specifically defined *de jure*. Yau (1992) speculates that the intended ambiguity in connection with the Chinese language allows for 'more leeway' to introduce language reforms and language-in-education policies after the handover. In this regard, the signature postcolonial policy of 'biliteracy and trilingualism' (see Table 10) — introduced under the first Chief Executive, Mr. Chee Hwa Tung, and hitherto pursued as a central language-in-education initiative — is

far-reaching and has substantively raised the status of the Chinese language (including both Cantonese and Putonghua). Notable initiatives were incrementally put forth to valorise the value of the Chinese language, such as Mother Tongue Education (Education Department, 1997) and Putonghua-medium Education (Curriculum Development Council, 1999; SCOLAR, 2003, 2008). Clearly, these measures can be taken as evidence of a policy shift from the pre-handover mode of diglossic bilingualism (Gao, 2011). In sum, as Michael Halliday said, the post-1997 sociolinguistic landscape in Hong Kong can be described with the catchphrase, 'One country, two cultures, and three languages' (Lai, 2001), which provides a useful summary of the sociolinguistic situation in postcolonial Hong Kong.

Biliteracy	Standard Written Chinese
	English
Trilingualism	Cantonese
	English
	Putonghua

Table 10 | The policy of 'biliteracy and trilingualism' in post-1997 Hong Kong

It is of interest to note that, as regards Cantonese and Putonghua as spoken varieties of the Chinese language, earlier predictions of a linguistic eventuality — that of the replacement of Cantonese by Putonghua — have not yet materialised (Bauer, 1984; Lord, 1987; So, 1996). Quite on the contrary, the linguistic capital of Cantonese has continued to increase since 1997, as evinced by the functional replacement of English in certain domains, such as, medium of instruction and its use in the Legislative Council discussions (Pennington, 1998). Yet, in recent years, the status of Cantonese has been under renewed threat, as evinced by the following: (i) ongoing controversy over the status of Cantonese as the 'official language' in Hong Kong (South China Morning Post, 2014b), or even as the 'mother tongue' of people of Hong Kong (South China Morning Post, 2018c); (ii) the Secretary for Education's public expression of doubt over the suitability of teaching Chinese in Cantonese (South China Morning Post, 2018d); and (iii) removal of all Cantonese-related components — i.e., listening and speaking papers — from the high-stakes, exit-point HKDSE Chinese Language examination (Education Bureau, 2021; EDB Circular Memorandum No. 20/2021). In Hansen Edwards's (2021) survey study of the views of 568 students across 15 tertiary institutions in Hong Kong, perceived tensions exist between Cantonese and Putonghua, with participants sceptical of the government action fostering 'linguistic mainlandisation' of Hong Kong.

Likewise, tensions exist, albeit to a lesser extent, between use of traditional Chinese characters and that of simplified ones. Given the colonial legacy, Hong Kong has

retained the use of the traditional Chinese script, despite the formalisation of simplified Chinese throughout People's Republic of China (PRC) since 1950 (Li, 2009; Lai, 2013). These differences are 'culturally very sensitive in present-day Hong Kong' (Danielewicz-Betz & Graddol, 2014, p.24), with the use of simplified Chinese constituting a potential source of 'hostility from local residents' (p.32). Also, simplified Chinese is not actively taught in local schools (Lai, 2013). That said, its use is supported by the government (e.g., the provision of information in English, traditional Chinese, and simplified Chinese) and is present in the wider community owing to the influx of tourists from the mainland. On a pedagogical front, the most recent Chinese Language Education Key Learning Area Curriculum Guide (Primary One – Secondary Six) published in 2017 has recommended nurturing local students' abilities to read in simplified Chinese with a view to strengthening cross-border communications. As for territory-wide and high-stakes assessments, candidates' use of simplified Chinese is allowed, although all examination papers – including both Chinese Language and content subjects assessed in Chinese – are still printed in traditional Chinese. In recent years, views advocating the formalisation of the status of simplified Chinese – for example, a 2015 report by Bacon-Shone, Bolton, and Luke; a 2021 report by the Ministry of Education of PRC (RTHK, 2021) – are not uncommon.

As for the functions and status of English in postcolonial Hong Kong, existing sociolinguistic research consistently suggests that, notwithstanding the systematic de-emphasis on English since 1997 (Gao, 2011), English continues to hold 'tremendous prestige and symbolic predominance' (Li, 1999, p.67), because of its enduring status as a lingua franca in the civil service, legislature, judiciary, and higher education (Evans, 2010, 2011, 2013, 2016), and as a global lingua franca. Despite its instrumental value, English is generally not used in intra-ethnic communication among Hong Kong Chinese (Evans & Morrison, 2011), which sets postcolonial Hong Kong apart from traditionally English-as-a-Second-Language societies such as India, Singapore, Nigeria (i.e., the Outer Circle of Kachru's (1992) three concentric model of World Englishes; see also Kachru, 2005). This functional difference in English use – i.e., the restriction of its use to 'domains of education and employment' mostly as a *written* lingua franca (Evans, 2016, p.92) – is a crucial sociolinguistic characteristic of postcolonial Hong Kong. In brief, as Li (2018, p.12) helpfully summarises, 'English in Hong Kong is arguably still more characteristic of a foreign language (EFL) in speech, while societal patterns of its use in writing make it more like a second language (ESL)'.

Overall, as highlighted above with key sociolinguistic research findings, Hong Kong, before or after the 1997 handover, 'has been historically a site of linguistic struggles' (Hansen Edwards, 2021, p.308). In the postcolonial era, English remains a language

of high instrumental value for higher education, in the workplace, and as a global lingua franca (Lai, 2001, 2011); whereas Cantonese is claimed generally as a 'language of solidarity' (Chan, 2018, p.763), and by some as a 'political tool to assert a Hong Kong identity' (Hansen Edwards, 2021, p.322). Despite increased presence and use, Putonghua has not been assigned any 'significant social functions' (Li, 1999, p.67), except largely symbolic (e.g., official ceremonies involving PRC officials) and transactional (e.g., business encounters with mainland tourists) ones (Li, 2018). The latest by-census in 2016 (Census and Statistics Department, 2017) (see Table 11) has confirmed that, from 2006 to 2016, close to 90% of the overall population in Hong Kong considered Cantonese their 'usual language', whereas only a half of the population cited English and Putonghua as their 'another language'. It indicates that postcolonial Hong Kong remains an intensely Cantonese-speaking environment, with English use — especially written English — selectively preserved in certain domains. Putonghua, despite its importance as the national language and governmental initiatives promoting it, is still behind Cantonese and English in use.

Language/Dialect	**Proportion of population aged five and over (%)**								
	As the usual language			*As another language*			*Total*		
	2006	**2011**	**2016**	**2006**	**2011**	**2016**	**2006**	**2011**	**2016**
Cantonese	90.8	89.5	88.9	5.7	6.3	5.7	96.5	95.8	94.6
English	2.8	3.5	4.3	41.9	42.6	48.9	44.7	46.1	53.2
Putonghua	0.9	1.4	1.9	39.2	46.5	46.7	40.2	47.8	48.6

Table 11 | Proportion of population aged 5 and over able to speak Cantonese, English, and Putonghua in 2006, 2011, and 2016 (Census and Statistics Department, 2017)

This unique sociolinguistic situation has set the scene for the importance of learning 'Chinese' as an additional language by ethnolinguistic minority groups to 'enter the community of the bilingual academic, professional and business elite of Hong Kong' (Lai, 2001, p.130). In the present study, the use of the term 'Chinese' heeds the sociolinguistic situation of postcolonial Hong Kong described here, referring to the combination of Cantonese and Standard Written Chinese (traditional script) (SWCtra). It should be noted that this *de facto* mode of 'Chinese' communication from familial to official (i.e., governmental bureaux, the Legislative Council, and courts) contexts in both pre-1997 and post-1997 Hong Kong is distinct from how the Chinese language — i.e., combining Putonghua (普通話; an official referent to Mandarin in PRC) as the spoken code and Standard Written Chinese (simplified script) — is commonly understood in layman's terms. In this regard, this combination of Cantonese and SWCtra renders Hong Kong's CAL situation special because it is dissimilar from Mainland China's and Taiwan's. All in all, for the sake of brevity and

convenience, where the Chinese language is mentioned in this study, it refers specifically to the combination of Cantonese as a spoken form and SWCtra as a written form, unless otherwise specified.

3.3.1.2. Ethnolinguistic minority learners with CAL needs

Official statistics — after excluding foreign domestic helpers which form a working population on short-term contracts — indicate that, up until 2016, there are 262,588 ethnic minority residents in Hong Kong, accounting for 4% of the total population (Census and Statistics Department, 2017). Among them are minority students in the local education system. Legislative Council (2016) affirms that the number of ethnic minority students in public sector schools has risen from 7137 in 2005/2006 to 18,200 in 2016/2017. Most of them — if not all — are South Asian heritage learners who are an ethnolinguistic minority in Hong Kong. They are a diverse group as they come from various linguistic, cultural, and religious backgrounds. They may be locally born, recent returnees, or new arrivals from their countries of origin. Given the diversity in the target research populations, it is important to first discuss the existing referents available in the literature and adopt a unifying term throughout this study. On one hand, in Hong Kong, ethnolinguistic minority students (i.e., students speaking non-Chinese home languages) are officially referred to as *non-Chinese speaking students* (Education Bureau, 2008, 2014a). This term, although featured in many official documents, has come under intense criticism from researchers (e.g., Fleming, 2015; Gao, 2018) and NGOs since it encourages stereotypes and otherisation, and highlights learners' linguistic deficiency. On the other hand, they are also commonly referred to as *ethnic minority* or *South Asians*. Such terms, albeit without connotations of deficiency, remain generic and the emphasis on ethnicity may not be a suitable referent to participants in this study.

In consideration of the ongoing controversy surrounding the extant labels and the necessity of accurately capturing the linguistic needs of this population, this study has pioneered the use of a new referent, *Chinese-as-an-additional-language (CAL) learners/students*. Although this term has hitherto never been used in a Hong Kong context, it is employed in this study because of the following reasons: first, it is a politically appropriate term as it makes no explicit reference to one's ethnic status and does not connote deficiency and otherness; second, it is a more suitable term since it, unlike *Chinese-as-a-second-language (CSL)*, does not make assumptions of the learners' order and rank of languages being learnt, considering that most linguistic minority students are learning their home language and English; third, it is pedagogically pertinent because it effectively communicates learners' linguistic competence and the context of language acquisition, and acknowledges the group's

cultural and linguistic diversity (Webster & Lu, 2012); and lastly, it is symbolically affirmative because the word *additional* has a positive and wholistic overtone and represents something added to what is already available (Stevenson, 2010; Lu, 2014).

3.3.1.3. Education system in Hong Kong

Accounting for around 20% of total government expenditure, public education in Hong Kong is provided for free from kindergarten to Grade 12 (i.e., 15 years). On the whole, education in Hong Kong was modelled on that of the United Kingdom and has been subsequently updated after the handover (e.g., New Senior Secondary Curriculum since 2002). According to Hong Kong's Education Ordinance (Section 74), primary (Grades 1 – 6) and junior secondary (Grades 7 – 9) education is compulsory by law for every child in Hong Kong. The school year begins in September every year. Particularly, in terms of primary and secondary education which this study explored, CAL students usually attend local primary and secondary schools subsidised by the government, which include government schools, aided schools, and Direct Subsidy Scheme (DSS) schools. Both government and aided schools are considered public schools fully subsidised by public funds. DSS schools, which are distinct from private schools, are usually considered semi-public schools in that they have been encouraged as neoliberal entities to fill the service gap between public schools and private schools. That is to say, DSS schools are partially subsidised by the government and can charge fees with the additional advantages of being able to determine their own admission, curricula, medium of instruction, and staffing. Although some DSS schools are traditionally prestigious schools that charge exorbitant fees comparable to private and international schools, the DSS schools that CAL students usually attend are not prestigious and charge modest fees. Given that English-medium schools have become a sought-after option among ethnic Chinese parents after the governmental push for Mother Tongue Education, which led protesters of South Asian origins to demand more schooling in English (see BBC, 2007), this unique breed of DSS schools with modest fees – which are usually English-medium – helps relieve the shortage of English-medium schooling in postcolonial Hong Kong.

	School attendance rates by age group (%)											
	2006				*2011*				*2016*			
	3-5	**6-11**	**12-17**	**18-24**	**3-5**	**6-11**	**12-17**	**18-24**	**3-5**	**6-11**	**12-17**	**18-24**
Ethnic minorities*	83.9	99.5	96.7	36.1	86.9	100	96.6	38.4	90.7	100	96.2	43.3
Whole population	89.1	99.9	96.9	44.7	91.3	100	97.1	50.3	92.5	100	97.8	52.6

**Domestic helpers have already been excluded from the population of ethnic minorities.*

Table 12 | School attendance rates for ethnic minority groups (Source: Census and Statistics Department, 2017)

In terms of school attainment rates, a worrying trend can be observed from Table 12. School attendance rates for ethnic minorities aged 3-5 (i.e., kindergarten) and 18-24 (i.e., post-secondary education) are consistently lower than those of the whole population. While the gaps for those aged 3-5 are narrowing, the gaps for post-secondary education have persisted.

3.3.2. Access negotiation and sampling

In the present study, the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains required access to local primary and secondary schools, as well as the involvement of human participants situated in these settings. In selecting research sites, the researcher adhered to the sampling logics of purposive heterogeneity which entailed guaranteeing a degree of differentiation in the sample as a means to maximise an understanding of the phenomenon under exploration (Patton, 2002). Access to the potential research sites was negotiated from August to December 2018. It involved a strategic process of anchoring the researcher in large-scale research projects that served as leverage points upon which to gain access to school leaders in K-12 settings. Riding on such experiences and former services in various secondary schools across the city, the researcher invited potential schools for participation in the study through face-to-face meetings, emails, and referrals. When extending invitations and negotiating access, the researcher prioritised school sites characterised by contrasts between educational levels (i.e., primary versus secondary) and ethnic concentration (i.e., concentrated versus integrated), while taking account of their socioeconomic and educational backgrounds to minimise confounding interferences as far as practicable. After the expression of interest, school visits were scheduled between September to December 2018 to introduce the project formally, seek informed consent from the school principals and relevant participants, and schedule visits for empirical data collection.

3.3.3. Samples in the study

Samples in the present study were the results of purposive sampling techniques with a focus on meaningfully maximising the heterogeneity of certain traits of investigative importance. They could be categorised into two broad types: non-human samples (e.g., policy documents and CAL lessons) and human samples (e.g., CAL students and teachers). Considering that the current study was a naturalistic exploratory study, purposive sampling techniques allowed the researcher to minimise the confounding effects of other contextual factors, as per traditions in

other naturalistic-observational studies (Thomas & Collier, 1997; Lo, 2010), while promoting the overall transferability of findings to other CAL settings.

3.3.3.1. The 'Policy' domain: CAL policy documents

In the 'Policy' domain, a total of 173 policy documents formed the sample from which macro-level policy intentions vis-à-vis CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority learners were extracted. As summarised in Table 13, policy documents deemed relevant to the present foci of the thesis were categorised into three broad types: (i) official curriculum documents, circulars, circular memorandums, promotional materials, and policy briefs available on the website of Education Bureau, accounting for around 40% of all policy documents sampled; (ii) background briefs prepared by the Legislative Council Secretariat, and Hong Kong Hansard (i.e., the official record of proceedings of the Legislative Council), as well as the annexes of the Hansard, accounting for around 36%; and (iii) other policy documents of a supplementary nature. These documents were sourced in multiple iterations from relevant official websites in 2018, 2019, 2020, and 2021, with updates made to continuously enhance the representativeness of this corpus of policy documents in presenting a picture of governmental intentions in relation to CAL provision. For a full list, please refer to Appendix 9.1 on page 518.

Nature		N (%*)	Publishing Authorities	Sources	Descriptions
B/P/R	Brief/Paper/Reply	26 (15)	Education Bureau (of the HKSAR Government)	edb.gov.hk or otherwise indicated	This type of policy documents concerns policy briefs and discussion papers prepared by the Bureau, and executive reports of studies commissioned by the Bureau, which were submitted to the Legislative Council and its Panel on Education, as well as replies to submissions.
C	Circular	8 (5)			Both types of policy documents concern written communications from the Education Bureau to local schools. Circulars focused more on issues for long-term reference, whereas circular memorandums are for issues that are one-off in nature.
CM	Circular memorandum	24 (14)			
Cu	Curriculum document	5 (3)			This type of policy documents concerns formal curriculum documents to guide CAL teaching and learning at key K-12 levels.
Pub	Publicity materials**	8 (5)			This type of policy documents concerns publicity materials published to the public and schools to introduce existing and/or planned policy measures.
E	Estimate	20 (12)	The Financial Secretary (of the HKSAR Government)	budget.gov.hk	This type of policy documents concerns the annual financial estimates relating to the Education Bureau as a government secretariat (i.e., Head 156), or the Education Department (i.e., Head 40) in earlier years.
L	Legislative	63 (36)	Legislative Council (of the HKSAR)	legco.gov.hk	There are two types of legislative policy documents. The first type concerns the Hong Kong Hansard, official records of speeches and replies during the Council meetings. The second type concerns publications and briefs by the Legislative Council Secretariat vis-à-vis CAL-related policy issues.
O	Others	19 (11)	Other governmental bureaux and departments, as well as semi- and non-governmental organisations	N/A	This type of policy documents features a range of supplementary policy documents that were published by other governmental bureaux and departments, as well as semi- and non-governmental organisations.
	Grand total:	**173**			

**Please note that the total number is 101 owing to rounding of figures.*

***Some publicity materials may be a collaborative effort from other governmental bureaux and departments. Publicity materials sourced for this analysis were found on the Education Bureau's website.*

Table 13 | Policy documents sampled in the 'Policy' domain

3.3.3.2. The 'Practice' domain: CAL schools, classes, and lessons

Samples in the 'Practice' domain were drawn from a total of 101 CAL students and four CAL teachers from four CAL settings. Before any data collection, informed consent was sought from CAL students' parents, four principals and CAL teachers from those four CAL settings; students' verbal assent was obtained, where appropriate, before any data-collecting procedures.

In terms of student characteristics (see Table 14), there was comparability in sex (i.e., a rough ratio of 50:50) and birthplace (i.e., a rough ratio of 70:30 between locally-born participants and elsewhere-born ones). Concerning the birthplace, CAL students born elsewhere reported staying in Hong Kong for a shorter period of time, with some being recent arrivals who reported only zero to three years of stay in Hong Kong. On average, students in Grade 5 settings reported being three years younger than Grade 8 counterparts. The general ethnic composition of each respective setting was reflective of the larger ethnic composition of the city this is, Pakistani, Indian, and Nepalese groups were the three prominent ethnic minority groups, followed by other South Asian groups. Mixed ethnicity usually between a Caucasian parent and a South Asian parent was also found in the current sample; this group usually reported English as the usual language at home. By native languages, there were a diversity of named languages reported. However, it should be noted that some students remarked that their native languages were sometimes mixed with other varieties; therefore, these named languages reported could be construed as the predominant mode of communication in the home domain since birth. Also, there were both CAL and non-CAL (i.e., ethnic Chinese) students in the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting, with the latter reporting Chinese as their native language.

As for teacher characteristics (see Table 15), all four CAL teachers involved in the present study were experienced teachers with seven to 13 years of work experience in teaching Chinese. There were three female participants and one male participant. All did not report any specialised training in Chinese-as-a-second-language theories and pedagogy, except occasional in-service seminars organised by the Education Bureau and research dissemination seminars in local universities. All four CAL teachers were locally-born ethnic Chinese (i.e., native speakers of Cantonese) with bachelor's qualifications in Chinese language and literature complemented with teaching qualifications (i.e., Bachelor of Education or Postgraduate Graduate Diploma in Education). The CAL teacher in the Grade 5 (Concentrated) setting held a master's degree in youth studies from a local university.

As regards the four CAL settings selected, there are three sampling principles to consider: first, schools should be socioeconomically comparable; second, schools should vary in ethnic concentration to allow for meaningful comparison; third, both primary and secondary schools should be recruited. Table 16 outlines key school characteristics of these four settings. Although they were in four different districts in Hong Kong, those districts were socioeconomically comparable districts. All four schools were government-subsidised local schools commonly attended by ethnolinguistic minority students (see also 3.3.1.3) Grade 5 settings were aided schools (i.e., full subsidy) whereas Grade 8 counterparts were DSS schools (i.e., partial subsidy with school fees). All four settings provided English as a medium of instruction for content subjects, with both ethnically integrated settings also offering Chinese as a medium of instruction (for ethnic Chinese students mostly). That said, all CAL students associated with these four settings learnt content subjects in English, which meant Chinese was learnt as a language subject. As for the factor of ethnic concentration, principals and/or head teachers of the Chinese Language department in ethnically concentrated settings reported admitting around 90% ethnolinguistic minority students with CAL needs, whereas those in ethnically integrated settings reported having around 50% to 60% of CAL students.

Class selection was subject to a given school's availability and recommendation. Since there were six grades in each level, Grade 5 and Grade 8 were chosen to be educational levels under investigation[12]. Because there were different CAL classes in each grade, it was agreed that the class deemed the most capable and motivated, which shall offer a glimpse of the optimal curriculum mode, should be selected in each setting to allow for comparability in terms of academic performance and CAL learning motivation. Once CAL classes were selected, lessons were subsequently selected (see Table 17) using a module-based sampling technique in which lessons delivered during the span of a module/unit were recorded and later quantified to give a representative and delimitable picture of CAL instruction vis-à-vis classroom interaction and task use. Lessons observed could be a single-period lesson or double. Total duration ranged from 320 to 365 minutes. In total, 1394 minutes (or around 23 hours) of CAL lessons were sampled from the above four CAL settings.

[12] Grade 6-Grade 7 pair was deemed inappropriate because there was pre-secondary examination preparation in Grade 6 and Grade 7 was usually an 'induction period' where instruction might be altered to help students transition to secondary school life, both of which might be a source of confounding influence on CAL instruction. Grade 4-Grade 8/9 pair was also considered to be too far apart. Overall, Grade 5-Grade 8 pair was judged to be the most ideal contrast to explore primary-secondary differences.

		Student characteristics			
		Grade 5 (Concentrated)	*Grade 5 (Integrated)*	*Grade 8 (Concentrated)*	*Grade 8 (Integrated)*
CAL status (%)	*CAL*	100	70	100	100
	Non-CAL	0	30	0	0
Sex (%)	*Female*	47	44	57	46
	Male	53	56	43	54
Birthplace (%)	*Hong Kong*	73	81	74	75
	Elsewhere	27	18	26	25
Length of stay (n)	*0 – 3 yrs*	2	0	3	2
	4 – 6 yrs	2	3	3	1
	7 – 10 yrs	11	24	3	3
	11 – 13 yrs	0	0	22	18
	14 yrs or more	0	0	4	0
Age (n)	*9*	3	5	0	0
	10	9	18	0	0
	11	3	3	0	0
	12	0	1	3	3
	13	0	0	26	18
	14	0	0	6	2
	15	0	0	0	1
	Mean (SD)	10.0 (.66)	10.0 (.68)	13.1 (.51)	13.0 (.62)
Ethnicity (n)	*Indian*	2	5	8	7
	Pakistani	8	6	9	9
	Bangladeshi	0	1	1	0
	Nepalese	3	3	6	3
	Filipino	2	4	5	3
	Indonesian	0	0	1	0
	Thai	0	0	1	0
	Vietnamese	0	0	1	0
	Chinese	0	8	0	0
	Mixed	0	0	3	2
Native language (n)	*Hindi*	2	5	8	6
	Urdu	2	1	2	1
	Punjabi	2	1	4	4
	Pashto	4	4	3	4
	Bengali	0	1	1	0
	Nepali	3	3	6	4
	Filipino	2	2	2	1
	Indonesian	0	0	1	0
	Thai	0	0	1	0
	Vietnamese	0	0	1	0
	Swahili	0	0	2	0
	English	0	2	4	4
	Chinese	0	8	0	0

Table 14 | Student characteristics in the 'Practice' domain

Teacher participants		Sex	Ethnicity	School information				Education	Teaching qualification[13]	CAL training	Teaching experience
				Educational level	*Ethnic concentration*	*Departmental affiliation*	*Teaching duty coverage*				
T1	G5(C)	Female	Chinese	Primary	Concentrated	Chinese	G3 G6	B.Ed. & M. Ed.	Yes	No	10 years
T2	G5(I)	Female	Chinese	Primary	Integrated	Chinese	G2, G5 G6	B.A. & B.Ed.	Yes	No	10 years
T3	G8(C)	Female	Chinese	Secondary	Concentrated	Chinese	G8 G9	B.A. & PGDE	Yes	No	13 years
T4	G8(I)	Male	Chinese	Secondary	Integrated	Chinese	G8, G10 G11	B.A. & PGDE	Yes	No	7 years

Table 15 | Teacher characteristics in the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains

[13] These teaching qualifications are qualifications in the teaching of Chinese as a First Language (CFL) for ethnic Chinese students. All four CAL students had served as CFL teachers at some point in their career.

	School characteristics			
	Grade 5 (Concentrated)	*Grade 5 (Integrated)*	*Grade 8 (Concentrated)*	*Grade 8 (Integrated)*
Location	District A	District B	District C	District D
*Median monthly household income**	$31000	$33000	$28000	$31000
School type	Aided	Aided	DSS	DSS
Ethnic concentration	90% CAL population	60% CAL population	90% CAL population	50% CAL population
*Medium of instruction***	EMI	CMI & EMI	EMI	CMI & EMI

** This indicator is referred to all households in the district, taken from Census and Statistics Department (2017);*

*** CMI stands for Chinese as the Medium of Instruction; EMI stands for English as the Medium of Instruction.*

Table 16 | School characteristics in the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains

Lesson characteristics						
Teachers		Topic/ theme	Period(s)	Exact length of lesson (mins)	Total (mins)	Grand total (mins)
T1	Grade 5 (Concentrated) Early May	Journey to the West	1	42.5	363.2	1394.3
			2	81.2		
			2	78.4		
			2	83.5		
			1	38.1		
			1	39.5		
T2	Grade 5 (Integrated) Early March	Mulan	2	61.0	364.8	
			2	59.6		
			2	60.5		
			1	31.2		
			2	62.9		
			2	61.2		
			1	28.4		
T3	Grade 8 (Concentrated) Late March	Road safety & Transportation	2	70.2	320.0	
			2	71.0		
			2	69.8		
			1	36.5		
			2	72.5		
T4	Grade 8 (Integrated) Late April	Taking the MTR	1	35.1	346.3	
			2	68.2		
			2	69.0		
			2	67.5		
			2	70.5		
			1	36.0		

Table 17 | Lesson characteristics in the 'Practice' domain

3.3.3.3. The 'Phenomenology' domain: CAL teachers and students

The 'Phenomenology' domain is intricately linked to the 'Practice' domain, with a systematic funnelling down of research foci and scope to deepen an understanding of the lived worlds of CAL learners and their teachers. Samples selected in the 'Phenomenology' domain – that is, a total of four CAL teachers and 15 CAL students – were drawn from the samples in the 'Practice' domain. For the teacher sample, informed consent obtained for the 'Practice' domain remained effective. For the student sample, owing to the change of research nature, separate informed consent was sought from their parents with verbal assent secured prior to interviewing.

The teacher sample was the same as the one for the 'Practice' domain. They were the four Chinese Language teachers whose lessons were observed for a sustained period of time. For a summary, please refer to Table 15. As for the student sample, 15 CAL students were recruited from the 'Practice' sample, accounting for around 15% of the overall student sample. The selection was based on two broad sampling principles: first, CAL students were selected from different proficiency brackets; second, CAL teachers' recommendations were considered. As corroborated from data regarding language assessment in Figure 8, the 15 students interviewed were distributed along the continua of Chinese language skills (i.e., computed from aggregating Chinese listening and speaking) and Chinese literacy skills (i.e., computed from aggregating Chinese reading and writing), forming roughly three proficiency clusters. For details of the student sample, refer to Table 18. Succinctly, there were seven males (47%) and eight females (53%); seven Grade 5 (47%) students and eight Grade 8 (53%) counterparts; 11 locally-born (73%) students and four students born elsewhere (27%); four Indians (27%), four Nepalese (27%), five Pakistanis (33%), two students of other ethnicities (13%). The demographic composition for the student sample was in keeping with the 'Practice' sample. The average age for the sample was 11.6 years of age. In terms of native languages, a number of languages – including Hindi, Nepali, English, Pashto, and Punjabi – were recorded for this sample.

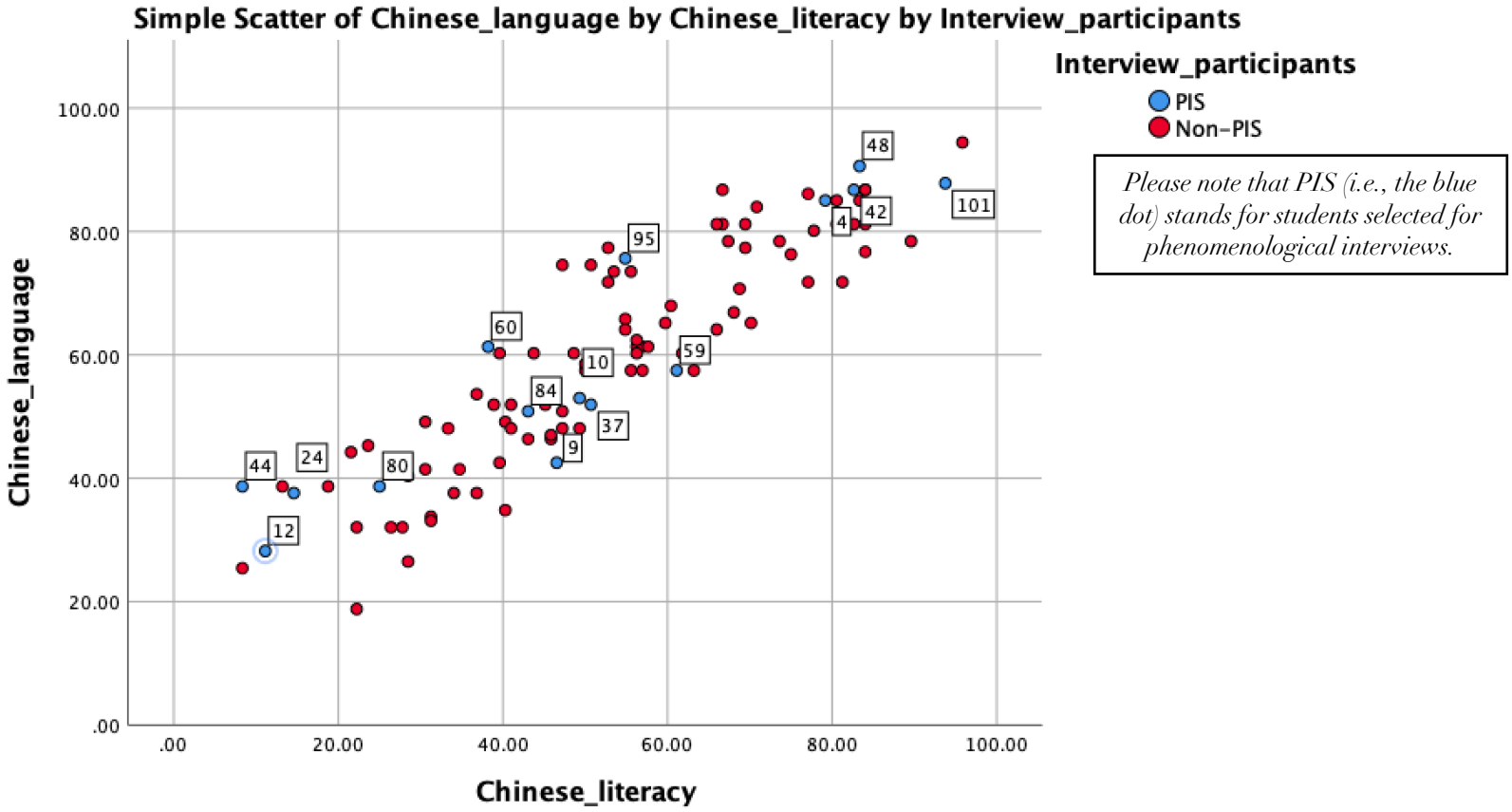


Figure 8 | A scatterplot of Chinese language against Chinese literacy

Student participants		SPSS ID	Sex	Age	Place of birth	Ethnicity	Native language	School information			CAL Proficiency
								Level	*Grade*	*Ethnic concentration*	
S1	G5(C)	4	Male	9	Hong Kong	Indian	Hindi	Primary	Grade 5	Concentrated	High
S2	G5(I)	42	Female	11	Hong Kong	Nepalese	Nepali	Primary	Grade 5	Integrated	High
S3	G8(C)	48	Male	13	Hong Kong	Filipino	English	Secondary	Grade 8	Concentrated	High
S4	G8(I)	101	Female	12	Hong Kong	Pakistani	Pashto	Secondary	Grade 8	Integrated	High
S5	G5(C)	9	Female	10	Hong Kong	Indian	Hindi	Primary	Grade 5	Concentrated	Mid
S6	G5(C)	10	Male	10	Hong Kong	Nepalese	Nepali	Primary	Grade 5	Concentrated	Mid
S7	G5(I)	37	Female	10	Hong Kong	Indian	Hindi	Primary	Grade 5	Integrated	Mid
S8	G8(C)	59	Male	13	Hong Kong	Nepalese	Nepali	Secondary	Grade 8	Concentrated	Mid
S9	G8(C)	60	Female	12	Hong Kong	Indian	Hindi	Secondary	Grade 8	Concentrated	Mid
S10	G8(I)	84	Male	13	Elsewhere	Pakistani	Punjabi	Secondary	Grade 8	Integrated	Mid
S11	G8(I)	95	Female	14	Hong Kong	Nepalese	Nepali	Secondary	Grade 8	Integrated	Mid
S12	G5(C)	12	Female	11	Elsewhere	Pakistani	Pashto	Primary	Grade 5	Concentrated	Low
S13	G5(I)	24	Male	10	Elsewhere	Pakistani	Pashto	Primary	Grade 5	Integrated	Low
S14	G8(C)	44	Female	13	Elsewhere	Pakistani	Punjabi	Secondary	Grade 8	Concentrated	Low
S15	G8(I)	80	Male	13	Hong Kong	Mixed	English	Secondary	Grade 8	Integrated	Low

Table 18 | Student characteristics in the 'Phenomenology' domain

3.3.4. Instrumentation and quality assurance

As highlighted earlier, the present mixed-methods study was such designed that there was a clear division between quantitative and qualitative components during data collection-cum-analysis, which enabled a series of quality assurance strategies to be devised to facilitate the rigorous implementation of the instruments. These quality assurance strategies allowed instruments used across the three investigative domains to undergo individualised processes of instrumentation that heeded not only 'instrument design, selection, construction, and assessment', but also 'conditions under which the designated instruments we[re] administered' (Hsu & Sandford, 2010, p.607). Given that quality criteria for quantitative and qualitative components differed according to onto-epistemological beliefs (see Mertens, 2015), tailor-made lists of quality assurance strategies also allowed quality to emerge bottom-up vis-à-vis (i) the instruments developed and administered (i.e., strategies before and during data collection), and (ii) the data they generated (i.e., strategies after data collection). The former included establishing content and face validity, piloting, offering language support, and formalising the use research diaries and field notes (i.e., quality assurance via *instrumentation*); the latter included member and reliability checks (i.e., quality assurance via *verification*). Taken together, these processes, under supervisory support and in collaboration with an advisory group of subject matter experts[14] (SMEs), enabled the instruments to be developed and refined to collect valid data reliably for the research questions being posed. In what follows, quality assurance strategies pertaining to each of the five instruments adopted across domains are set out as follows

3.3.4.1. Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA)

To answer the central research question in the 'Policy' domain, a large quantity of policy documents had to be processed such that macro-level policy intentions in relation to the prevailing phase of CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students could be extracted 'in a systematic way' (Schreier, 2012, p.1). To accomplish this principal goal, the method of QCA was adopted to glean CAL policy intentions articulated in policy documents collected. While QCA is considered an established approach to textual analysis (see Berelson, 1952) and has been extensively applied in

[14] The advisory group was formed as part of the overall strategy of a mixed-methods approach, as recommended by Mertens (2009, 2015). It comprised three subject matter experts: a research advisor with a graduate degree in Chinese as a second/foreign language; a Chinese language teacher with more than 15 years of experience; and a member of the ethnic minority of Pakistani descent. Research issues were raised through regular meetings and emails. The expert advisory group played a crucial role in operationalising a transformative-pragmatic orientation into research practices, formulating quality assurance strategies for each analytical procedure used, as well as other ad hoc research issues.

public health research (e.g., Downe-Wamboldt, 1992; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Kyngäs, 2020), its application in other disciplines of the social sciences is fairly recent (see Hall & Steiner, 2020). As such, the use of QCA in the present LPP study could be construed as a methodological innovation in the field of applied linguistics. With QCA, data collection in the 'Policy' domain hinged on the (i) systematic gathering of publicly available policy documents, and the (ii) reliable and valid categorisation of CAL-related policy intentions at K-12 levels in post-1997 Hong Kong. The simultaneous pursuit of both goals echoes the observation that 'there is no rigid separation between data collection and analysis' in QCA (Neale, 2016, p.1097). These two goals corresponded respectively to the formation and maintenance of (i) a representative corpus of publicly available policy documents and (ii) a representative coding frame that crystallised policy intentions thus far pursued by the government. In the present study, both research deliverables were products that emerged from an iterative process of categorisation (see Neale, 2016, 2020), or cycles of data gathering and coding until saturation, which had methodological implications for the quality assurance of QCA in this domain. Totally, eight quality assurance strategies were developed in response to the unique features of QCA as highlighted (see Table 19).

The Qualitative Content Analysis Method	Quality Assurance Strategies for Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA)							
	Pre-QCA			During-QCA			Post-QCA	
	Constructing an initial corpus of policy documents	*Constructing an initial coding frame*	*Pilot-testing coding procedures*	*Pursuing iterative data gathering and categorisation*	*Enriching the coding frame until saturation*	*Enriching the analysis with further snowballing*	*Having intra- and inter-coder reliability checks*	*Consultations with SMEs and policy advocates*
Qualitative Content Analysis (n=173)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 19 | Quality assurance strategies for QCA

Pre-QCA strategies. There were three pre-QCA quality assurance strategies implemented to develop and pilot-test QCA. The first two strategies dealt with the construction of an initial pool of policy documents and an initial coding frame. These two strategies were adopted with respect to the growing consensus among leading content analysis and/or QCA methodologists (e.g., Neuendorf, 2002; Schreier, 2012) that once the key research question has been decided, portions of available materials should be used to build an initial coding frame. In so doing, an interim research product can be formed for further pilot-testing and refinement. Following this, the initial coding frame can be further expanded and enriched with successive portions of new materials until data saturation. As Schreier (2012, p.1) advises, the coding 'frame is at the heart of QCA, and it covers all those meanings that feature in the description and interpretation of [the] material[s]'. That means, the finalisation of a stable coding frame (i.e., where expansion is no longer possible) that adequately describes a representative pool of selected materials can be taken as evidence of accomplishing the goal of QCA.

At the pre-QCA stage, the process of forming an initial corpus of CAL policy documents was conducted in consultation with doctoral supervisors and SMEs. Initial CAL policy documents used were key curriculum texts, which were then coded to construct an initial coding frame of policy intentions articulated in those curriculum texts. Specifically, two texts — the 2008 *Supplementary Guide to the Chinese Language Curriculum for Non-Chinese Speaking Students* (English Translated Version) and the 2014 *Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework* (Chinese Version) — were employed as exploratory materials for the initial coding of policy intentions. It was noted that (i) coding could be performed smoothly across texts written in different languages with relatively stable extraction of policy-related information; and that (ii) the initial coding frame conceived of policy intentions as consisting of policy measures (i.e., policy decisions, tangible in nature, that communicate governmental intentions at the macro level) and policy rhetoric (i.e., policy discourse, largely symbolic in nature, that accompanies the introduction, implementation, and justification of certain policy decisions).

Subsequently, the initial coding frame was piloted through (i) further trial coding, (ii) consistency checks, and (iii) adjustment of the coding frame and procedures. Further trial coding was performed on two additional policy documents, which were the *EDB Circular No. 8/2014* and the 2014 discussion paper *LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14(02)* submitted to Panel on Education at the Legislative Council. Both documents were not curriculum texts *per se*, focusing more on policy decisions associated with funding arrangements and other support measures adopted during Phase 3. Further

trial coding testified to the codability of policy intentions among these policy documents of different genres. Consistency checks were performed on the *EDB Circular No. 8/2014*, a policy document covering a range of CAL-related policy initiatives, with two foci: (i) the extent to which free coding by one SME yielded a similar coding frame; and (ii) the extent to which researcher-identified codes were consistently categorised by the researcher himself and another coder. The former dealt with the extractability of policy intentions from policy documents, and was undertaken discursively, with the SME extracting CAL-related policy intentions in a largely consistent manner as the researcher. The latter dealt more with the consistent categorisation of codes, yielding intra-rater and inter-rater reliability percentage agreements of 100% and 95% respectively. Informed by trial coding and consistency checks, adjustments and related methodological decisions were made, including (i) continuing to bifurcate coding into symbolic policy rhetoric and concrete policy measures, (ii) refining wordings and definitional descriptions to promote mutual exclusivity between categories, and (iii) allowing the data gathering-cum-analysis processes to take place over an extended period (i.e., pilot-testing in 2018 and iterations of data gathering-cum-analysis in 2019, 2020, and 2021).

During-QCA strategies. As highlighted, constructing a representative coding frame hinges on constructing a representative corpus of policy documents. Unlike research publications, policy documents are not neatly catalogued on established databases. The sourcing of a representative pool of CAL-related policy documents from a multiplicity of platforms, therefore, was a pressing methodological concern for QCA. By prolonging the duration of data gathering-cum-analysis, the researcher was afforded the time to construct a representative corpus of policy documents and to verify data saturation over time. As summarised in Table 20, main data collection for QCA underwent iterations of simultaneous data gathering and analysis from 2019 to 2021. The main iterations of data gathering took place predominantly in 2019 alongside the rest of empirical data collection in the field (i.e., the implementation of LO, LA, LBQ, and PI in other investigative domains). Initial searches were made on the websites of the Education Bureau and the Legislative Council to identify core policy documents relating to the HKSAR government's Chinese Language provision for ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 levels. From the 2019 iterations, most key CAL policy documents (n= 145) were identified and coded to outline the initial contours of the coding frame. Iterations in 2020 and 2021 were mainly undertaken to ensure that the coding frame was (i) comprehensive (i.e., presenting a valid description of policy intentions relating to CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong) and (ii) up to date (i.e., capturing the recent evolution of CAL policymaking). The last iteration was in May 2021. In total, 17 rounds of data gathering, gathering a total

of 173 policy documents, were conducted for QCA, with 27 categorises formed for the coding frame. For details, refer to Table 25 in 4.2 and Appendix 9.2 on page 541.

Apart from increasing the validity of the coding frame through extending the duration of policy data engagement, multiple iterations as a form of 'sustained field research' also presented ways to ascertain whether data saturation (Saumure & Given, 2008, p.196), a point in the research process 'when further coding is no longer feasible (Fusch & Ness, 2015, p.1408), was reached. Given that failure to reach data saturation could negatively impact content validity (Bowen, 2008), iterative data gathering-cum-analysis helped insure against the construction of a premature coding frame. As suggested in Table 20, the cumulative number of categories had consistently been 27 since late 2019, suggesting that despite the addition of policy documents the coding of CAL policy intentions by and large reached a point of saturation.

		Iterations		**Data gathering in QCA**	**Data analysis in QCA**
		No	*Month & Year*	*Cumulative no. of policy documents collected*	*Cumulative no. of categories in the coding frame*
Main Data Gathering cum-Analysis	**2018**	1	Oct 2018*	2	/
		2	Nov 2018*	4	/
		3	Dec 2018	22	10
	2019	4	Jan 2019	35	13
		5	Mar 2019	49	15
		6	Jun 2019	70	16
		7	Jul 2019	86	17
		8	Aug 2019	104	20
		9	Sept 2019	119	25
		10	Oct 2019	138	25
		11	Nov 2019	145	27
Refinement and Data Saturation Monitoring	**2020**	12	Jan 2020	149	27
		13	Mar 2020	153	27
		14	Aug 2020	160	27
		15	Dec 2020	164	27
	2021	16	Mar 2021	167	27
		17	May 2021	173	27

** This was the piloting phase of the QCA protocol.*

Table 20 | Iterations of data gathering-cum-analysis in QCA

In tandem, in order to further enrich the description of the categories that emerged from the analysis, other types of materials with relevance to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students were consulted and used to illustrate CAL policy decisions extracted. These types of materials included webpages, press releases, and other artefactual materials (e.g., pedagogical materials, activity/programme pamphlets, and PowerPoint Slides) relating to the specifics of certain CAL policy measures. The sourcing of these materials followed the principle of snowballing in which an initial pool of policy data was used as a signpost to supplementary information which added depth to certain policy intentions. The advantage of adopting this quality assurance strategy was that additional data from other types of materials relevant to CAL provision, apart from enriching QCA, constituted a form of data triangulation that further corroborated the validity of policy data from the 173 policy documents gathered.

Post-QCA strategies. Given the extended period of data gathering-cum-analysis, post-QCA stage was defined as the period following 2019 when the rough contours of CAL policy intentions were outlined. To generate indicators relating to QCA, particularly on the reliability of coding, post-analysis checks were in place at three time points (namely, February, April, and September) in 2020 to explore the inter-coder reliability, with intra-coder reliability taking place once in September 2020. Both types of reliability checks explored (i) average percentage agreement scores of code application in QCA and (ii) whether new codes, if any, were deemed necessary by the researcher at a different time point or other coders. For intra-coder reliability, one policy document was randomly selected from the third, sixth, seventh, tenth, and 12th iterations of data gathering-cum-analysis, with an average percentage agreement percentage of 99%. For inter-coder reliability, for each time point, around five to six policy documents (i.e., constituting around 10% of all policy documents coded) were randomly selected from the database, with an average inter-coder reliability agreement percentage of 94%. For both checks, no new categories of policy intentions were deemed necessary for the coding frame.

The last quality assurance strategy for QCA aimed to explore the perceived representativeness of the coding frame. To accomplish this, the researcher further consulted three senior teachers at local schools (one each from the kindergarten, primary, and secondary levels), two policy advocates, as well as the SMEs by email. The purpose of this strategy, inspired by the procedure of member checking or member validation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Birt, Scott, Cavers, Campbell, & Walter, 2016), was to leverage the expertise of policy actors with privileged access to CAL policy implementation in the hope that their opinions on whether the coding frame plausibly reflected their policy knowledge of the field could offer additional insights

into the overall credibility of policy data in the 'Policy' domain. Overall, all policy informants and SMEs involved suggested that the coding frame was comprehensive to their knowledge of the area they were familiar with, with some commenting that it enabled them to appreciate the full extent of governmental intentions with respect to CAL teaching and learning in post-1997 Hong Kong.

3.3.4.2. Language Background Questionnaire (LBQ)

The LBQ collected self-reported data on a wide range of learner-based variables in the 'Practice' domain. The existing LBQ was modified from the ones adopted by Beech and Keys (1997), and Murphy, Kyriacou, and Menon (2015), which gathered information on learner characteristics vis-à-vis language use and exposure. Two additional components were incorporated into the original LBQ: a scale for self-assessed language and literacy proficiency, and a scale for affective and motivational factors with respect to learning CAL.

For self-assessed language and literacy proficiency, a seven-point Likert-type scale requiring students to self-assess language proficiency in native language, English, and Chinese was designed in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). A self-evaluation grid with descriptors of language proficiency was adapted from Council of Europe and British Council to accompany this scale. As for the component exploring affective and motivational factors, a six-point Likert-type scale measuring four affective variables and two motivational orientations was assembled. The scale, acronymed CLLAMS (i.e., Chinese Language Learning Affect and Motivation Scale), was truncated from Pekrun and colleagues' (2011) Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (with four affective variables taken from the original list of eight) and Gardner's (1985) (see also Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a, 1993b; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001) motivation theory. The decisions to adapt longer scales and combine relevant aspects of them into a single scale were made in consultation with supervisors and SMEs. Totally, as presented in Table 21, ten quality assurance strategies were implemented for the LBQ.

Components included in Language Background Questionnaire	Quality Assurance Strategies for Language Background Questionnaire (LBQ)									
	Pre-LBQ			During-LBQ				Post-LBQ		
	Evaluating cultural appropriateness via SMEs	*Pilot-testing measures on students*	*Further validity and reliability checks*	*Standardising the administering process*	*Ensuring presence of the researcher*	*Identifying missing data*	*Curtailing extreme responses*	*Establishing alpha values and factor loadings*	*Establishing intra-rater reliability*	*Exploring concurrent validity*
Background information	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	
Self-assessed language proficiency	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Language use and exposure	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	
Affect and motivation (CLLAMS)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓

Table 21| Quality assurance strategies for LBQ

Pre- and during-LBQ strategies. Pre-LBQ and during-LBQ strategies promoted the validity of LBQ data. The LBQ was conceptualised and constructed around summer 2018 with pilot-testing done around late November 2018. 12 CAL students – six from Grade 5 and six from Grade 8 settings – were invited to fill out the LBQ in full. It took around 20 minutes for them to finish the entire questionnaire. They subsequently remarked on areas (including the self-assessment grid) they found unclear or difficult, with their comments used to revise the LBQ in late December 2018. Further validity and reliability checks were performed on the component of self-assessed language proficiency – test-retest reliability check on the stability of the scale with 12 CAL students (two weeks apart) was performed with a Spearman correlation value of .95 ($p<.01$); two English teachers (one in each respective grade) were invited to rate the English proficiency of their CAL students with a Spearman correlation value of .93 ($p<.01$); two CAL teachers were also invited to repeat the same process with a Spearman correlation value of .87 ($p<.01$). The trial also pointed to the need to guide students to ground their evaluation on the self-assessment grid, which entailed allowing extra time to get familiar with the grid. Additionally, checks of the internal consistency and stability of CLLAMS were performed. Two classes of CAL students in Grade 6 (n=24) and 7 (n=19) were recruited to complete CLLAMS with alpha (α) values ranging from .81 to .90 with factor loadings between .79 and .87. Test-retest reliability check on the stability of CLLAMS with 12 CAL students (two weeks apart) was performed with a Spearman correlation value of .87 ($p<.01$). Taken together, in terms of both validity and reliability, both incorporated components were deemed acceptable approximations of the learner characteristics of interest. The LBQ was formally administered in all four CAL settings from February to May 2019. The process of administering the LBQ was standardised procedurally with the presence of the researcher to handle ad hoc or language-related questions. 30 minutes was reserved for filling out the LBQ. Additional time was allowed for individual students who requested more time. All finished LBQs were examined by the researcher for missing data which were followed up.

Post-LBQ strategies. Post-LBQ strategies focused more on establishing evidence of reliability and validity. Internal consistency of CLLAMS was explored with Cronbach's alpha (α) values ranging from .83 to .91 and factor loadings between .83 and .92. Around 10% of LBQ (n=10) scripts were randomly selected for intra-rater reliability checks with three months apart. Intra-rater reliability agreement percentages were all 100% for 'background information', 'self-assessed language proficiency, 'language use and exposure', and 'affect and motivation' respectively. Correlational analyses of self-report language assessment and CLLAMS were used to make sure data made logical sense.

3.3.4.3. Language Assessment (LA)

LAs garnered proficiency-related data from 101 CAL students. Since student participants were 10 to 14 years of age, their finite attention spans were considered to minimise respondent fatigue (Ben-Nun, 2008), with modifications made such that proficiency measures were of developmentally appropriate lengths. Feasibility was also considered since CAL teachers did not prefer lengthy assessments that reduced students' learning time, formal or informal. All measures were adopted from measures used by published researchers or in large-scale language assessments used by Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (HKEAA), a local examination authority. Pilot-testing took place around late November to early December 2019 with main language proficiency data collected from February to May 2019. Summarised in Table 22, ten quality assurance strategies in total were implemented for this instrument.

Decoding measures. Both decoding measures Chinese character recognition test and Chinese orthographic knowledge test were adapted from Wong (2017a, 2017b), which was originally designed for senior-primary CAL students in Wong's (2017a, 2017b) studies. For the Chinese character recognition test, all test items were real Chinese characters, with both single characters and two-character words; Chinese characters were selected from Pan and Kang's study (2003) which was based on Chinese characters commonly used in Hong Kong primary schools. There were 100 characters in total, with 50 single characters and 25 two-character words. As for the Chinese orthographic knowledge test whose aim was to test students' abilities to draw upon their (i) visual-orthographic sensitivity and (ii) awareness of the semantic and phonological radicals' representational functions to decode novel characters, students were asked to do the following: (i) there was a radical perception component where they were required to divide a compound character into two immediate componential radicals; (ii) there were two semantic radical knowledge components where learners were required to decode a novel character based on the meaning of the semantic radical; and (iii) there was a phonological radical knowledge component where learners were required to decode a novel character based on the sound of the character. Trial items were included in both measures.

Pilot-testing was conducted with 12 CAL students (differing in grade levels and Chinese language abilities[15]) to examine whether there are any range-of-instrument

[15] The selfsame group of 12 CAL students was used for LBQ and proficiency measures in Chinese. They were: six Grade 5 students (three weak students, three strong ones) and six Grade 8 students (three weak students, three strong ones).

constraints (i.e., floor or ceiling effects) in any of the measures adapted, as well as checking code complexity (i.e., lexical and syntactical appropriateness), cognitive complexity (i.e., age-appropriate content familiarity and information processing), communicative stress (i.e., time required and feasibility), and concurrent validity (i.e., whether the measures are related to theoretically similar indicators). Modifications were made vis-à-vis (i) trial population's test performances, (ii) SMEs' advice on new characters/words drawn from the word lists used by Pan and Kang (2003) and (iii) the word lists prepared by Chinese Language Education Section of the Education Bureau (2008). Since both decoding measures were not normed, raw scores were compared across groups, which is an acceptable modus operandi in the research community (e.g., Wang et al, 2017). Before the main administration, test-retest reliability checks (two weeks apart), as estimated by Spearman correlation coefficient, were in place to explore the stability of both decoding measures with scores of .83 ($p<.01$) and .87 ($p<.01$) for Chinese character recognition and Chinese orthographic knowledge tests respectively.

Proficiency Measures	Nature*	Quality Assurance Strategies for Language Assessment (LA)									
		Pre-LA				During-LA		Post-LA			
		Evaluating face and content validity via SMEs	*Evaluating cultural appropriateness via SMEs*	*Pilot-testing measures on students*	*Establishing test-retest reliability coefficients*	*Standardising the testing process*	*Ensuring presence of the researcher*	*Establishing alpha values and factor loadings*	*Establishing intra-rater reliability*	*Establishing inter-rater reliability*	*Exploring concurrent validity*
Decoding (word recognition)	R	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Decoding (orthographic knowledge)	R	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Discourse comprehension (listening)	R	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Discourse comprehension (reading)	R	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Discourse production (speaking)	CR	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓**	✓
Discourse production (writing)	CR	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

** Nature here is operationalised as the frame of reference for the specific language measures adopted. R stands raw scores, whereas CR stands for scores from criterion-referenced tests. Both tests generate descriptive statistics which can be used for inferential purposes. Chiefly, CR tests entail the use of proficiency descriptors upon which evaluation can be applied.*

*** Since videotaping a speaking performance required more stringent ethical considerations which this doctoral project did not apply for, videotaping of the speaking assessment has not been conducted. As such, intra-rater reliability was not established. To establish inter-rater reliability, another rater (usually the teacher in charge of the class) was present to assess.*

Table 22 | Quality assurance strategies for LA

Internal consistency of both measures was determined by Cronbach's alpha coefficients with alpha (α) values being .97 and .85 for Chinese character recognition and Chinese orthographic knowledge tests respectively. Factor loadings ranged from .85 to .95. Roughly 10% of randomly chosen scripts (n=10) were checked with intra- and inter-reliability measures. Intra-rater reliability agreement percentages (three months apart) for Chinese character recognition (i.e., re-checking scripts only) and Chinese orthographic knowledge tests were both 100% respectively. Inter-rater reliability agreement percentage for Chinese orthographic knowledge was 100%. Inter-rater check was not performed on word recognition as the performance was not videotaped. Spearman correlational analyses of decoding measures with other proficiency measures made sense.

Whole-skill measures. Whole-skill measures covered discourse comprehension and production measures. In other words, they were listening and speaking measures (i.e., language-based), and reading and writing measures (i.e., literacy-based). They were adopted from Wong (2010) and the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA) developed by HKEAA, which provided local schools with objective data on students' performances in the subjects of Chinese Language, English Language, Mathematics at the end of Key Stages 1 to 3. Modifications were made to keep all whole-skill measures finishable within 20 minutes with action taken to guarantee valid and reliable approximations of the language skills being measured.

For listening and reading, since the full TSA examinations were rather long, which might cause respondent fatigue and pose feasibility challenges, the assessments were trimmed to adopt only one listening task and one reading task from the full assessments. To enrich the measures, pictorial tasks from Wong (2010) which were created for upper primary CAL students in Hong Kong were also adopted and combined with the TSA questions in both listening and reading. Question types involved pictorial arrangement tasks, multiple-choice questions, cloze items, and short questions. Both tasks were narrative-based discourse comprehension measures whose content was judged by experts as appropriate cognitively and culturally. In early December 2018, a trial population of 12 CAL students who also pilot-tested decoding measures were invited to examine range-of-instrument constraints, code complexity, cognitive complexity, communicative stress, and discriminant validity (i.e., whether values obtained from these measures could distinguish between weak and strong learners). In terms of face and content validity, these measures were judged to be of an acceptable level, which might be attributed to the fact that they

were adopted from existing assessments validated and widely used in Hong Kong. Both measures also satisfactorily discriminated between weak and strong CAL students, while not suffering from range-of-instrument constraints. Comments regarding code choices were considered with modifications accordingly made. Before the main administration, test-retest reliability checks (two weeks apart), as estimated by Spearman correlation coefficient, were conducted to test the stability of both discourse comprehension measures with scores of .88 ($p<.01$) and .86 ($p<.01$) for listening and reading tests respectively. Main data collection took place between February and May 2019.

Internal consistency of both measures was determined by Cronbach's alpha coefficient with alpha (α) values being .67 and .58 for listening and reading tests respectively. Given that there were only two components in both measures, lower alpha (α) values were understandable since Cronbach's alpha value is a function of the number of components in a given measure (Peters, 2014). Factor loadings ranged from .83 to .94. Roughly 10% of randomly chosen scripts (n=10) were checked with intra- and inter-reliability measures. Intra-rater reliability agreement percentages (three months apart) for listening and reading tests were both 100%. Inter-rater reliability values were both 100%. Spearman correlational analyses of decoding measures with other proficiency measures made sense. Given that both listening and reading tests were highly objective measures with clear-cut answers, perfect intra- and inter-reliability values were expected. Taken together, data generated from both discourse comprehension measures were considered reliable.

Like discourse comprehension measures, both discourse production measures were adopted from the TSA developed by HKEAA. For the speaking measure, a 2012 assessment question for Key Stage 1 was adopted. For the writing measure, a 2011 assessment question for Key Stage 1 was adopted. Experts' judgement of content validity and cultural appropriateness was sought on the adoption of both assessment questions. Both measures assessed students' narrative skills, which are consistently reported to be strong predictors of later language outcomes (see Bishop & Edmundson, 1987; Paul & Smith, 1993; Botting, Faragher, Simkin, Knox, & Conti-Ramsden, 2001; Johnson, 2006) and are held as a benchmark of language proficiency for school-age children, as well as an essential component of diagnostic language tests used by speech pathologists (e.g., To, Stokes, Cheung, & T'sou, 2010). In consultation with supervisors and SMEs, the question of whether academically-oriented genres (argumentative and expository) should be tested (as the TSA assessment does have such a component) was raised and, after deliberation, it was unanimously agreed the abilities in such genres were more dependent on school

instruction and might not give an accurate picture of students' discourse production abilities in Chinese. Narrative ability tasks were, thus, chosen with marking rubrics developed in faithfulness to the ones adopted in the TSA. After pilot-testing with the trial population of 12 CAL students in early December 2018, the resultant 12 speaking and writing samples were graded using the respective marking rubrics to ensure that criterion-referenced scores were generated reliably across raters. The researcher served as the primary rater for all 12 speaking and writing samples, with two CAL teachers serving as the secondary raters with each marking six speaking and writing samples. Overall, both marking rubrics were not associated with range-of-instrument issues, were considered easy to implement, and could discriminate between weak and strong students. Test-retest reliability checks were not performed on both discourse production measures because of feasibility issues. Inter-rater agreement values, as estimated by Spearman correlation coefficient, were .76 ($p<.01$) and .79 ($p<.01$) for speaking and writing tests respectively. Main administration took place between February and May 2019.

Internal consistency of both measures was determined by Cronbach's alpha coefficient with alpha (α) values being .87 and .94 for speaking and writing tests respectively. Factor loadings ranged from .79 to .92. Roughly 10% of randomly chosen scripts (n=10) were checked with intra- and inter-reliability measures. The intra-rater reliability agreement value for the writing test (three months apart), as estimated by Spearman correlation coefficient, was .93 ($p<.01$). Inter-rater reliability values, as estimated by Spearman correlation coefficient, were .84 ($p<.01$) and .78 ($p<.01$) for speaking and writing tests respectively. Spearman correlational analyses of decoding measures with other proficiency measures made sense. Given that both speaking and writing tests were comparatively more subjective than discourse comprehension measures, the range of intra- and inter-reliability agreement scores was deemed acceptable. Taken together, data generated from both discourse production measures were considered reliable.

3.3.4.4. Lesson Observation (LO)

LOs gathered data on the input and interaction in CAL classrooms. Specifically, classroom data collected were quantified to offer a more macroscopic picture of different aspects of classroom instruction. Unlike other more qualitatively-oriented analytical techniques that resulted in impressionistic findings subject to high researcher bias (see Lo & Macaro, 2012), the quantification of classroom data from a representative duration of the CAL instruction yielded replicable and reliable approximations of classroom instruction. Four broad analytical procedures timed

analysis, turn analysis, function analysis, and task analysis — were employed in the present study. The first three analyses are established quantification techniques in iSLA (see Tsui, 1985; Macaro, 2001; Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Lo & Macaro, 2012, 2015; Lo, 2010, 2014; Pun, 2017) whereas task analysis (see Sasson, 2018) is a tailor-made coding protocol expressly developed for the present study. Timed analysis quantifies the classroom interaction between teacher and class (not student-student interaction in pairs or groups) vis-à-vis code use. Turn analysis quantifies the turn-taking behaviour of teacher and students — this is to say, how frequent and 'how long teachers and students hold the floor (Lo & Macaro, 2015, p.244) — by tallying the total number of turns and 'timing the total and mean lengths of turns of teacher and students in lessons' (Lo & Macaro, 2012, p.37). Function analysis draws upon Tsui's (1985) Seventeen-Category System to structurally code classroom interaction according to functions, which gives an indicator of the quality of classroom interaction in addition to quantity. Task analysis explores task use by structurally coding all formative assessment practices by location, technology use, differentiation, and type. In total, ten quality assurance strategies were adopted for the method of LO (see Table 23).

Pre-LO strategies. All coding protocols were pilot-tested on an actual CAL lesson (single-period; 32 minutes) to test the suitability of proposed quantification techniques on CAL lessons. It was found that the implementability of all analytical procedures was high with high replicability. Intra-coder reliability checks (one month apart) — as estimated by the Spearman correlation coefficient — yielded .97 ($p<.01$), .95 ($p<.01$) .89 ($p<.01$), and .97 ($p<.01$) reliability scores for timed analysis, turn analysis, function analysis, and task analysis respectively. Overall, the process of pilot-testing demonstrated the suitability of proposed analytical procedures in quantifying and approximating to classroom instruction, with implications for the refinement of these analytical procedures for more efficient implementation on a larger scale. It is worth emphasising that while all proposed procedures were quantitative in nature, timed and turn analyses were more quantity-oriented than function and task analyses which focused more on the 'quality' of classroom interaction and task use.

During-LO strategies. It was decided that field notes should be kept alongside nonparticipant, unobtrusive LOs with attempts made to clarify unclear parts of CAL instruction, if any, after the lessons. Data from field notes offered a qualitative supplement to the above quantification procedures. In tandem, prolonged engagement was employed as a quality assurance strategy to reduce threats to validity, especially researcher reactivity and respondent bias (Robson, 1993, 2002). In this domain, prolonged engagement was operationalised as a school attachment period

of roughly two to three weeks, which also provided a systematic means of sampling lessons (i.e., the sampling of the delivery of a module/unit). Conducting LOs in such a manner — as opposed to arbitrary selection or cherry-picking of lessons — was a more valid sampling technique.

Post-LO strategies. Timed analysis, turn analysis, and function analysis were performed using ELAN (see Lausberg & Sloetjes, 2009; Pouw, Trujillo, & Dixon, 2019), a video annotation and archival software commonly employed to analyse audio-visual data; coded video data were further processed quantitatively in SPSS Version 26. In particular, ELAN afforded direct coding performed on video data, which meant that there was no need to first transcribe on NVivo and then time-tag transcription; it was noted during pilot-testing that transcription-then-tagging as a procedure was cumbersome and might be prone to human errors. Using ELAN, therefore, rendered the whole analytical process more efficient with a more substantial sample yet less prone to error. Additionally, the structured-coding grid for function analysis with a deductive list of 24 categories (expanded from Tsui's (1985) 17 categories; see Lo & Macaro, 2012, 2015) was further inductively expanded based on data from CAL lessons. In total, 28 categories — with the addition of *reprimand*, *applaud*, *tell jokes*, *dramatise* as new speech acts — were recorded. As for task analysis, binary coding for location, technology use, and differentiation was conducted; analysis by type — similarly to the structured-coding grid used in function analysis — was inductively coded with a list of 9 broad types of CAL tasks recorded.

The unit of analysis for timed analysis, turn analysis, and function analysis was CAL lessons (n=24). Intra-coder reliability check (three months apart), as estimated by the Spearman correlation coefficient, was performed on roughly 10% (n=2) of CAL lessons with reliability values being .94 ($p<.01$), .96 ($p<.01$), and .95 ($p<.01$) respectively, which were similar to Lo and Macaro's (2012) reliability value of .97 ($p<.01$). Inter-coder reliability check was performed on another 10% (n=2) of CAL lessons with reliability values being .96 ($p<.01$), .95 ($p<.01$), and .88 ($p<.01$) respectively, which were close to Lo and Macaro's (2012) reliability value of .96 ($p<.01$). For task analysis, the unit of analysis was CAL tasks (n=103). The intra- and inter-rater reliability of the coding process, as estimated by the Spearman correlation coefficient, was .98 ($p<.01$) and .94 ($p<.01$) respectively.

Analytical procedures related to Lesson Observations	Quality Assurance Strategies for Analytical Procedures related to Lesson Observations (LO)									
	Pre-LO		During-LO *(or right after the lesson)*				Post-LO			
	Pilot-testing measures on CAL lessons	*Revising measures based on CAL lessons*	*Fieldnotes*	*Prolonged engagement*	*Validation check-ups with teacher (CAL task use)*	*Audio-recording alongside video-recording*	*Refining analytical procedures*	*Establishing intra-rater reliability*	*Establishing inter-rater reliability*	*Exploring concurrent validity*
Timed analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Turn analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Function analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Task analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	

Table 23 | Quality assurance strategies for LO

3.3.4.5. Phenomenological Interviewing (PI)

PI gathered data on the lived experiences of the teacher and student participants from the 'Practice' domain, thereby offering an additional layer to the phenomenon of CAL provision in post-1997 Hong Kong. As a method, PI seeks to explore research participants' lived experiences as the main object of study through unstructured and/or semi-structured interview questions that 'elicit descriptions of the lifeworld[16]' (Brinkmann, 2013, p.23). Here, lived experiences are understood as domains of meanings and self-construal vis-à-vis a given phenomenon within the lifeworld. In Hult's (2019) opinion, investigating lived experiences is vital to research on additional language development because they offer insights into the personal histories and experiences of individuals engaging in overlapping nexuses of social action (see also Scollon & Scollon, 2004). Therefore, to explore CAL participants' experiences of CAL teaching and learning under the current policy ecology, PI aims to investigate 'the larger set of practices of knowledge production' connected to the CAL phenomenon (Briggs, 2007, p.566), with emphasis placed on the following methodological principles: (i) the notion of *openness* which is largely realised through not imposing a pre-existing theoretical structure onto the phenomenon under investigation, which has implications for the setting of research questions, the framing of interview questions and their delivery; (ii) the construct of *researcher reflexivity* which emphasises the role and embeddedness of the researcher in the process of knowledge production, as well as the identification of potential presuppositions and prejudices that may block or restrict access to the phenomenon; and (iii) the elicitation of *concrete descriptions of pre-reflective experiences*, rather than speculative generalisations regarding the phenomenon. Despite high procedural autonomy (see Adams & van Manen, 2008), there are broad guidelines by which a phenomenological investigator is encouraged to abide by to contribute to the overall quality in phenomenological data gathering. On top of these, it is crucial to acknowledge PI both as (i) an instrument and (ii) as a process dynamically shaped by the investigator(s) (Brinkmann, 2014), with implications for devising quality assurance strategies that pay attention to the tool and the administerer in the process of instrumentation. Hence, with respect to methodological issues briefly highlighted here, 11 quality assurance strategies were developed and implemented for the method of PI (see Table 24).

[16] The concept of the lifeworld has arguably laid an important foundation for the emergence of human sciences in the 20th century (e.g., psychoanalysis and psychology). Its popularisation as a concept is often attributable to Edmund Husserl, the founder of phenomenology, who conceptualised it as an inter-subjectively meaningful, dynamic world where events, objects, actions were experienced. In other words, it can be construed as the horizon of all lived experiences of a given group of perceiving individuals (see also Husserl, 1931; Merleau-Ponty, 1945; van Manen, 2001; Giorgi, 2009).

Phenomenological Interviews	Quality Assurance Strategies for Phenomenological Interviews (PI)										
	Pan-PI	Pre-PI		During-PI					Post-PI		
	Incorporating reflexivity as a procedure	*Pilot-testing interview procedures*	*Practising interview procedures*	*Ensuring sustained engagement*	*Attending to rapport-building*	*Attending to power relations*	*Following guidelines (content)*	*Following guidelines (delivery)*	*Exploring intra-coder reliability*	*Exploring intra-coder reliability*	*Exploring member checking*
Student Interviews (n=15)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Teacher Interviews (n=4)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 24 | Quality assurance strategies for PI

Pre-PI strategies. There were two quality assurance strategies devised for the pre-PI stage. As regards the first quality assurance strategy, which was concerned with the development of the interview guides to be used in the main study, a pilot study was conducted from September 2018 to Mid-February 2019. During this period, interview guides were conceptualised and constructed in consultation with supervisors and SMEs. Around January 2019, interview guides were piloted with two CAL teachers (one from a local primary school, and the other from a secondary school) and four CAL students (two from Grade 5, and two from Grade 8) respectively to explore the feasibility of adopting a phenomenological focus into interviews with CAL teachers and students, the appropriateness of interview questions, as well as other procedural issues. From both trial populations, potential issues surrounding the interview guides were identified for further discussions with supervisors and SMEs where necessary, with a view to facilitating the refinement of the interview guides for use in the main study, as well as the development of quality assurance strategies during and after phenomenological data gathering. Notably, the themes of reflexivity, rapport, power differences, and delivery were discussed as relevant to the credibility and dependability (i.e., validity and reliability) of data gathered, which were proposed to be attended to through specific quality assurance strategies. This process of instrumentation culminated in the finalisation of interview guides (see Appendices 3.18 and 3.20 on pages 465 and 469 respectively).

As for the second strategy, which concerned the role of the researcher in administering PIs, two small-scale trials, or practice projects as recommended by Seidman (2006), were conducted to sensitise the researcher to the process of delivering interview questions and negotiating meanings. The first trial was administered on 10 CAL teachers at both regular and senior ranks, whereas the second trial was administered on 20 CAL students who were recent graduates (i.e., over 16s) from local secondary schools. Both groups were recruited based on convenience and snowball sampling strategies. The reason why there were two trials was that both teacher and student interviews were different in research foci and language use, which necessitated different procedures and protocols. Furthermore, owing to the general difficulty in access as well as additional ethical complexities relating to the recruitment of school-aged participants (i.e., below 16s), the trial for students was conducted with an older group, in lieu of students in similar age brackets. Opportunities to practise the interview procedures with a focus on delivery led to the development of supplements to the interview guides (see Appendix 3.22 on page 471), which standardised the way the researcher delivered interview questions and prompts.

During-PI strategies. There were five quality assurance strategies during PIs. They could be categorised into two broad groups: strategies attending to the relational aspects of data gathering, and those standardising the involvement of the researcher. The overarching logic of attending to these two areas was to acknowledge instead of glossing over the ethico-onto-epistemological complexities inherent in the involvement of the researcher in the field as an instrument, and to take a proactive approach to rein in researcher reactivity and promote researcher self-awareness throughout data gathering via PIs.

Relational strategies aimed to increase the credibility (i.e., validity) of the qualitative data gathered through (i) sustained engagement, (ii) rapport-building and (iii) power consciousness. First, commonly considered by leading phenomenologists as crucial to the overall quality of qualitative data (see van Manen 2001; Vagle, 2018), sustained engagement was achieved through the prolonged period of school attachment in the 'Practice' domain. Central to the practice of sustained engagement were the promotion of mutual understanding between the researcher and the participants, and the routinisation of the nonthreatening presence of the researcher. As for building rapport which is broadly defined as promoting 'the degree of comfort in the interactions between the researcher and research participants' (Morgan & Guevara, 2008, p. 728) and is a hallmark of Rogers's (1945) nondirective approach to interviewing, attention was paid to the researcher's adoption of nonconfrontational and noninterfering research procedures, and the maintenance of an atmosphere of comfort and ease. Importantly, although rapport-filled atmosphere hinges upon principles of trust and respect, it calls for healthy distance from the participants such that ethical concerns relating to intimacy and closeness are kept to a minimum. Lastly, given the involvement of young ethnolinguistic minority groups, recognition of the potential adverse effects of differentiated power relations between the researcher and the participants is necessary. Guided by Cummins's (2000) framework of 'Collaborative Empowerment', the researcher nurtured a relationally ethical research attitude throughout the process of data gathering, with particular emphasis on affirming the identity of subordinated individuals, and amplifying rather than silencing 'their power of *self*-expression' (emphasis in original) (p.44).

Standardisation strategies were adopted with the aim of reining in the impact of researcher reactivity on PI and were developed vis-à-vis the small-scale practice projects. Considering that PIs with both CAL teachers and students were broadly semi-structured interviews in which 'participants [we]re encouraged and promoted to talk in depth about the topic under investigation without the researcher's use of predetermined, focused, short-answer questions' (Cook, 2008), these standardisation strategies helped accomplish the goals of retaining a phenomenologically acceptable

degree of specification over the content to be explored, and allowing maximum freedom for the participants to share and elaborate on their experiences. In particular, standardisation was grounded in the two sets of guidelines developed as regards content (see Appendices 3.18 and 3.20 on pages 465 and 469 respectively) and delivery (see Appendix 3.22 on page 471). Procedurally, the researcher rehearsed the interview guide and the supplement prior to data collection via PIs, and studied both materials immediately before all data gathering sessions. During PIs, both materials were placed within reach for easy reference with space to jot down participant-specific observations.

Post-PI strategies. There were four quality assurance strategies devised for the post-PI stage. Given the inherent diversity in how intra- and inter-coder reliability checks are carried out in the qualitative paradigm (Strauss, 1987), as well as the difficulty in imposing a structure of objectivity onto what is essentially a highly interpretive endeavour (van den Hoonaard, 2008), intra- and inter-coder reliability checks were flexibly adopted to ensure analytic rigor by verifying the consistency of code application. In view of the fact that the initial stage of coding was volatile and thus highly subjective, both verification measures were not implemented at the beginning stage. Instead, they targeted the final stage of coding when, after multiple iterations of refining and merging codes, the researcher was employing a stabilised set of codes. Intra-coder reliability checks were performed on around 10% of teacher and student interviews (i.e., around half an interview for teachers; around one full interview for students), yielding mean percentage agreement scores of 98% and 99% respectively. Inter-coder reliability checks were performed on randomly selected segments from each of the transcripts, yielding mean percentage agreement scores of 91% for teacher interviews and 95% for student interviews. Additionally, member checks, alternatively known as respondent validation, were in place to ensure that the interpretations of findings were in broad congruence with research participants' lived experiences. The main goal of member checking, however, was to check whether phenomenological descriptions were affirmed by CAL participants (particularly teacher participants) as descriptively (i.e., accuracy) and interpretively (i.e., meaning-making) valid from their perspectives (Maxwell, 1992). Owing to technical and ethical issues involved in reaching out to young children and adolescents, member checks were not performed on student interviews. All four teacher participants were shown a copy of phenomenological abstractions of teacher interviews and they affirmed the preponderance of findings shown.

Pan-PI strategies. As a method emphasising 'the *reflective* study of prereflective or lived experience [emphasis added]' (Adams & van Manen, 2008, p.614), PI deems the practice of reflexivity an essential feature so much so that it is a common thread

across key phenomenological schools of thought: notably, Giorgi's (2009) descriptive phenomenology from psychology, or Stanghellini's (2019) 'phenomenological unfolding' from psychotherapy. Operationalising reflexivity as a procedural requirement influencing all stages of data gathering and analysis, hence, figures high in the method of PI. Broadly speaking, reflexivity has been commonly understood as researchers' engagement in 'continuous examination and explanation of how they have influenced a research project' (Dowling, 2008). The declaration of as well as a justification of relevant procedures involved in how a researcher can reflect on his or her unavoidable situatedness throughout data planning, collection, and analysis is a hallmark of responsible research practices that yield quality-assured data in qualitative research.

Specifically, in the tradition of descriptive phenomenology that explores research participants' lived experiences in as nondirective and presuppositionless a manner as possible (see Vagle, 2018), reflexivity is generally operationalised as bracketing (Moustakas, 1994; Giorgi, 1997, 2009), or more recently as bridling (Dahlberg, 2006). On the one hand, the former is the earliest and most established methodological procedure vernacularised from philosophical phenomenology writ large, inviting the researcher to reflect on 'past knowledge about the phenomenon encountered' (Giorgi, 1997, p.240). Vagle (2018) further argues that bracketing is not about 'removing all past knowledge', but 'putting aside or rendering non-influential this knowledge' (p.119). On the other hand, the latter is an onto-epistemological response to bracketing, arguing that the equestrian act of bridling is a more fitting metaphor for how reflexivity can be achieved in reality. Despite onto-epistemological differences regarding how reflexivity can be carried out, these two procedures can be traced back to Husserl's phenomenological concept *epoché*. As Stanghellini (2019) explains, the concept of *epoché* is not the same as naïve, atheoretical stance in that the goal of *epoché* is 'not a *tabula rasa* that allows for a pure and unprejudiced impression of the real on [the researcher's] consciousness, but rather a wider and deeper awareness of [the researcher's] own prejudices' (p.954). Taken together, in a pragmatist sense, the methodological requirement of bracketing/bridling means the attainment and maintenance of 'ongoing self-awareness' (Finlay, 2012, p.317) throughout different phases of knowledge production, with implications for promoting research rigor.

In this study, practising reflexivity was operationalised as a pan-PI quality assurance strategy. As a pan-PI strategy, reflexivity was attended to in the form of keeping a research diary through all stages of phenomenological interviews: from planning, data gathering, to data analysis. At the planning stage (i.e., pre-PI), reflexivity was carried out in accordance with major recommendations from qualitative and

phenomenological researchers such as Macbeth (2001), Etherington (2004), Seidman (2006), Giorgi (2009), and Vagle (2018). The following areas covering both positional and constitutive reflexivities were reflected upon: a) how the researcher's personal history led to his interest in this topic; b) what presuppositions the researcher had about this field; c) how the researcher was positioned in relation to this knowledge; d) how the researcher's gender/ social class/ ethnicity/ culture influenced his positioning in relation to his informants; e) how the researcher stayed committed to interrogating his positioning. Overall, reflexive journaling at the planning stage sensitised the researcher to the necessity of routinising reflexivity in hopes that both phenomenological (i.e., awareness of bias, and commitment to minimising bias and researcher reactivity) and interculturally responsible (i.e., consciousness of ethical issues involved in researching multilingually with minoritised groups, and commitment to attending to power-related issues during research) attitudes could be promoted in the different stages of data gathering relating to PI. Therefore, the research diary was kept continuously to create a space for the researcher to reflect regularly on the extent to which he was positioning himself as a phenomenological and interculturally responsible researcher, and to keep track of researcher-as-an-instrument issues throughout data gathering and analysis. A fuller description of how reflexivity was practised as a quality assurance strategy can be found in Tsang (forthcoming) (see Appendix 4 on page 474).

3.4. Data analysis

In what follows, analytical procedures for multiple strands of collected data are set out with respect to the three principal domains under exploration: the 'Policy' (3.4.1), 'Practice' (3.4.2), and 'Phenomenology' (3.4.3) domains. Within an equal-status design, data analysis was pursued bottom-up from within a given domain, with implications for triangulation (3.4.4).

3.4.1. Domain 1: Policy

There was one chief strand of data gathered for this domain: textual data from 173 policy documents from which CAL policy-in-intention — defined here as articulated statements of policy intent and decisions, both rhetorical and tangible, vis-à-vis CAL provision at K-12 levels in postcolonial Hong Kong — were explored. The analytical method adopted was in line with QCA whose central goal, as explained by Mayring (2000) and Schreier (2012), is to offer a 'replicable and valid' account of a large quantity of recorded communication with a systematic series of steps (Krippendorff, 1969, p.103). As highlighted earlier (3.3.4.1), data gathering and analysis were implemented simultaneously over multiple iterations, such that a gradually expanding corpus of policy documents gave rise to a coding frame that crystallised existing CAL policy intentions. Procedurally, all policy documents were first stored onto NVivo 12, then catalogued with respect to their relevance to the research question, and finally coded and categorised by the researcher. This entire data gathering-cum-analysis process took place over multiple iterations from 2018 to 2021. Over time, a description of existing CAL policy intentions emerged with 27 categories that were further grouped under three superordinate categories: (i) policy intentions at kindergarten levels; (ii) policy intentions at primary and secondary levels; and (iii) miscellaneous policy intentions. Reliability of coding was explored through intra- and inter-coder checks on around 10% of all policy documents, with robust percentage agreements scores for both. Validity of the finalised coding frame was explored through member validation checks with five external policy informants (three members of senior management from local schools; and two policy advocates) and SMEs, with a consensus reached on the representativeness of the existing coding frame.

3.4.2. Domain 2: Practice

There were two strands of data collected for this domain: first, quantitative data from LA and LBQ; second, video data from LO. All scripts from LA were marked with raw scores recorded onto SPSS Version 26, with self-reported data from LBQ loaded

onto the same SPSS file for further statistical analyses. Both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were performed on both strands of quantitative data to shed light on learner traits across CAL settings observed. Quality assurance checks included the evaluation of internal consistency and factor loadings of scales adopted, with mean scores from each CAL group calculated and inferentially compared to explore concurrent validity of language proficiency and other language learning variables of interest. Inter- and intra-rater reliability checks were performed on randomly selected scripts of LA and LBQ (constituting around 10% of all scripts), with satisfactory agreement scores across both instruments. For video data from LO, quantification based on structured-coding frameworks (Tsui, 1985; Macaro, 2001; Macaro & Mutton, 2002; Lo, 2010; Lo & Macaro, 2012, 2015; Pun, 2017) was performed using ELAN 5.8 (see Figure 9) and SPSS to offer a summative picture of the interactional patterns of each CAL setting and how they varied across settings. CAL task use was also coded with the use of a structured-coding framework. Randomly selected segments of LO data (constituting 10% of all LO segments) were coded to establish inter- and intra-rater reliability coefficients, with satisfactory results in line with previous research (see also post-LO strategies in 3.3.4.4).

Specifically, data sources in this domain were: student data (n=101) (via LA and LBQ); lesson data (n=24) (via LO); and task data (n=103) (via LO). Before analysing data, in addition to quality assurance strategies and reliability checks reported above, graphs were plotted with a view to checking normality and homogeneity of variance to determine whether parametric or nonparametric statistical procedures should be used in analysing student, lesson, and task data. Both lesson and task data, given the smaller sample sizes and the nature of the variables, were treated with nonparametric statistical procedures. Only student data — specifically data from researcher-administered language proficiency measures and CLLAMS — were found to be suitable for parametric procedures; z scores of skewness and kurtosis were within the normality range of −1.96 and +1.96 with Levene statistics (*Df=3, 89*) being predominantly statistically non-significant (see Appendices 3.16 and 3.17). Therefore, parametric procedures were used for data from researcher-administered proficiency measures and CLLAMS, whereas non-parametric counterparts were used with other student data.

Given that all three research questions concerned group differences, statistical tests of mean differences were performed to detect if there were overall statistically significant differences across CAL settings. If there were, post hoc tests were performed with the Bonferroni correction considered. The parametric test used was one-way ANOVA with the nonparametric counterpart — Kruskal-Wallis H test — used for data that did not fit a normal distribution. To further explore relationships,

correlational analyses Pearson, Spearman, and Kendall's tau-b (chiefly for lesson data with tied ranks) correlations were performed depending on the normality of data and the nature of the variables being explored. For task analysis, Pearson Chi-square tests were performed on categorical variables. For more quality-oriented analyses such as function analysis and task analysis, descriptive analyses were preferred to inferential counterparts because there were more categories in these two analyses; tables ranking the frequencies of functions and types were deemed a more appropriate form of presentation, as per traditions in earlier studies (Lo, 2010, 2014; Lo & Macaro, 2012, 2015).

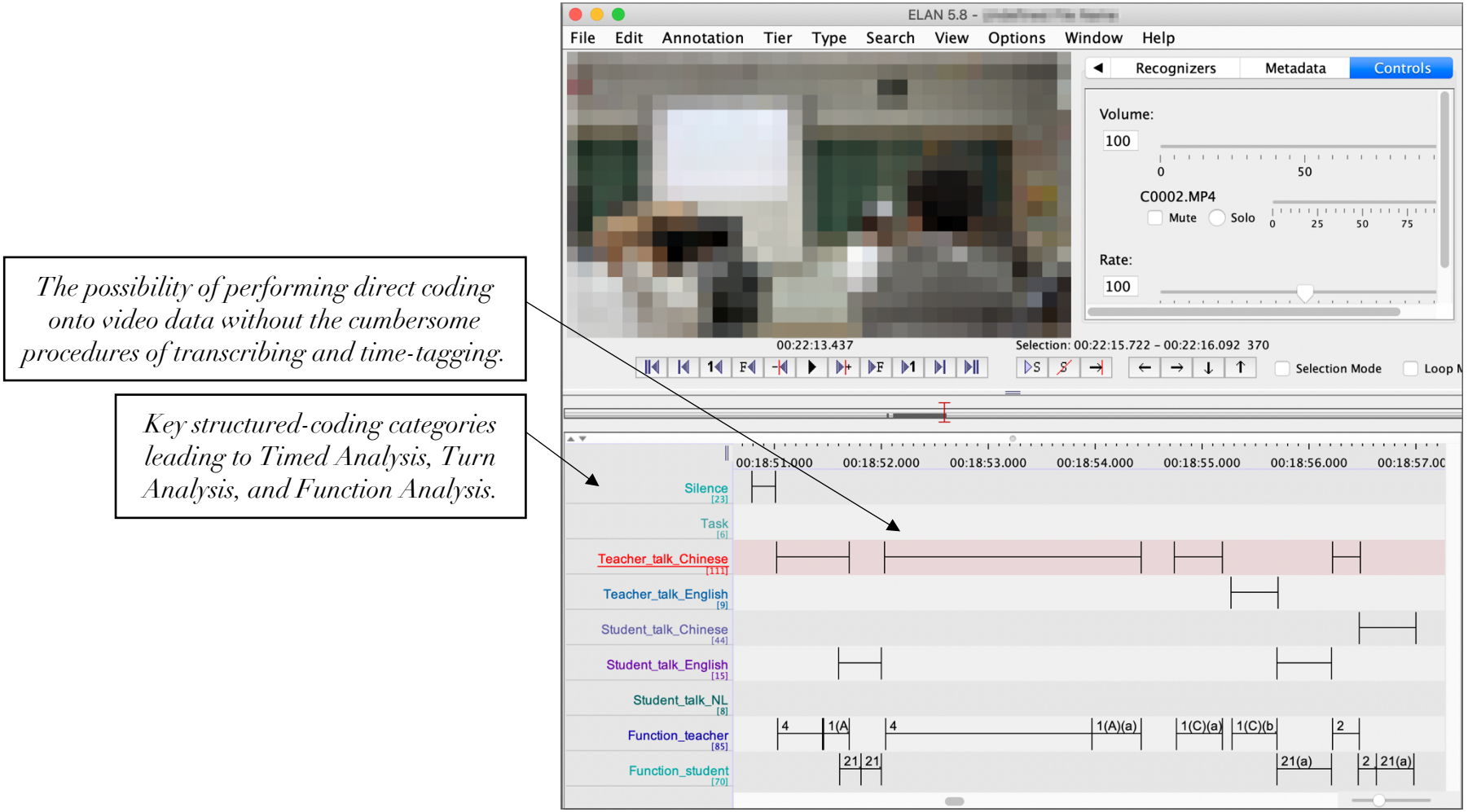


Figure 9 | User interface of ELAN 5.8, a language annotation software which allows multi-level tagging/coding ideal for analysis of LO (ELAN, 2017) (with pixilation applied to ensure anonymity)

3.4.3. Domain 3: Phenomenology

This was one main strand of data in the 'Phenomenology' domain: qualitative data from PIs. Analytical approaches adopted were informed by the descriptive tradition of phenomenology (see Giorgi 1985a, 1985b, 2009). Briefly, phenomenological data gathering was performed on two groups drawn from the 'Practice' sample, yielding teacher interviews (n=4) and student counterparts (n=15). Before any analysis was performed, each interview was transcribed with field notes and reflective notes tagged. Analysis performed on interview data followed a whole-part-whole principle as advised by leading methodologists in descriptive phenomenology (Giorgi, 2009; Vagle, 2018), and interpretative phenomenology (e.g., thematic analysis; see also Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009). As regards teacher interviews, it was after thematisation was finalised that translation was performed to representative quotes illustrative of various emergent themes for CAL teachers. The researcher was aware that the act of translation could be a social act subject to language ideologies and attitudes of the translator (Roberts, 1997). Therefore, translation of relevant texts was cross-checked with other professional translators with expertise in both English and Chinese.

Data analysis was operationalised as a systematic process through which data were unitised, categorised, and abstracted in fresh ways (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Specifically, analysis was approached in a whole-part-whole manner in four phases (see Appendix 3.23 on page 472). In Phase 1, transcribed data were read line-by-line and re-read in a case-by-case manner to allow the researcher to be familiar with interview data from teacher and student participants individually, and to apply impressionistic remarks on the margins to feed back into subsequent analysis. Holistic readings paved the way for Phase 2 when attention was paid to recurring words, abbreviations, and phrases used by the participants. In this phase, emphasis was also placed on a phenomenological procedure called horizontalisation (see Moustakas, 1994; Cypress, 2018) where all empirical instances were treated with equal importance. Riding upon holistic and detailed readings, the researcher became gradually sensitised to salient lexical indicators which gave expression to repeating descriptions and ideas that enabled intersubjective relationships and linkages to emerge across interviewed data, with codes applied. The application of codes was inductive and iterative — inductive because no a priori categorises had been applied throughout the conceptual and analytical process; iterative in that the coding process involved multiple scans with codes re-evaluated and refined vis-à-vis individual cases. Once codes turned into categorises and categorises clustered into emergent themes, Phase 2 gave way to Phase 3 where high-order concepts (i.e.,

superordinate themes) were abstracted. In this phase, comparisons were made across cases to identify the collective structure of their lived experience, as well as individual differences. It was only after the integrity of the analysis was by and large ensured that verification checks (i.e., intra- and inter-coder reliability checks and member checks) would then be performed in Phase 4. What was also noteworthy was that the analytical process was punctuated with reflections and memoing to practise reflexivity as a pan-PI quality assurance strategy.

3.5. Triangulation

Although self-contained domains might give the impression that there were epistemological boundaries that could not be crossed, the interconnectedness of the three domains (see Diagram 4) as theoretically informed by Lo Bianco (2010) and other policy scholars who advocate multi-layered policy research (see Lincoln & Guba, 1986; McKee, 2009) allowed for triangulation that contributed to 'a more complete understanding of the phenomenon being studied' (Mertens & Hesse-Biber, 2012, p.78). As a concept borrowed from surveying (Denzin, 1970, 1971), triangulation was realised in the present LPP study in multiple ways: data triangulation through multiple data sources, investigator triangulation through the engagement of SMEs and additional coders/raters, and theoretical and methodological triangulation through adopting multiple theoretical lens and methods. In addition to these, this study pursued 'delayed merging' that heeded the incompatibility of quantitative and qualitative paradigms (Denzin, 2012), while promoting dialogic triangulation only after domain-specific analyses in line with paradigmatic traditions were completed (Fielding, 2012).

Specifically, the three domains explored served as three disparate points from which a more layered and holistic understanding of the CAL phenomenon could be sought. The 'Policy' domain, as a macro-level investigation, explored the policy-level factors that formed the backdrop for the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains. Such an investigative spiral downwards offered insights into the language planning process and how official policy intentions were enacted (via classroom data) and experienced (via interview data). When analysed from the bottom up, findings from the 'Phenomenology' domain were also traceable to other two domains, with basis in the mesosystemic structure (i.e., the CAL classrooms where CAL teaching and learning happened) and in the macrosystemic structure (i.e., the CAL policy ecology). That said, it should be noted that this multi-dimensional design did not presuppose either top-down or bottom-up directionality. It was intended as an equal-status design seeking to triangulate data, theories, methods in hopes of shedding light on the layered complexities of CAL provision in post-1997 Hong Kong.

Overall, triangulation as intended in the present study served to cross-verify data emerging from multiple sources and promote convergent validation (Hammersley, 2008), offer complementary information relating to the external (i.e., policy-practice) and internal (i.e., phenomenology) worlds without being biased towards either the quantitative or qualitative paradigm (Brown & Dowling, 1998), and allow for an inventive and analytically dense approach of researching a complex issue from multiple vantage points (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Fielding, 2008; De Vos, 2011).

3.6. Ethical considerations and risk mitigation

Following the ethical guidelines recommended by British Educational Research Association (2011, 2018), this study has gained ethical clearance from the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford. Informed consent, confidential handling of data (which is subjected to the Data Protection Act 2018), de-identified data presentation, and the right to withdraw are key guiding ethical principles that have been adhered to at different stages of the present study. For details of the ethical approval and related documents, see Appendix 5 on page 495.

Potential risks — field safety, potential approximation of therapeutic relations (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), as well as research-related risks — have been considered and mitigated beforehand to ensure the maximum success of the implementation of data collection, which can be referred to in the Risk Assessment Form in Appendix 6 on page 505. Also, lack of necessary research support or skills is a potential risk, which was mitigated by self-evaluation (see Appendix 7 on page 509, availing oneself of research support in the department and the wide academic community (see Appendix 12 on page 560 for academic involvement), and regular supervisions over the probationary and data collection years. Finally, poor time management as a risk factor was mitigated through careful planning (see Appendix 8 on page 516 for Gantt charts).

4. Policy

4.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- presents results of policy intentions at kindergarten levels (4.2.1);
- presents results of policy intentions at primary and secondary levels (4.2.2);
- presents results of other CAL policy intentions (4.2.3); and
- summarises findings in the domain of 'Policy' (4.3).

4.2. What policy intentions are articulated in policy documents pertaining to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 levels from 2014 onwards (i.e., Phase 3)?

Data from policy documents pertaining to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 settings are presented below to answer the major research question in the 'Policy' domain. Such evidence was gathered from multiple sources of publicly available policy documents (n=173) that recorded communications having arisen out of the language planning and policy processes of CAL provision at K-12 levels: (i) policy briefs, curriculum texts, circulars, circular memorandums, census reports, and other related official documents published by the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) Government; and (ii) discussion papers, policy briefs, Hansard records published by the city's unicameral Legislative Council (LegCo). For details of the sampling method of policy documents, refer to 3.3.3.1. For an inventory of all 173 policy documents, refer to Appendix 9.1 on page 518.

The central research question under investigation aimed to systematically outline policy intentions pertaining to CAL provision to ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 levels, especially from 2014 onwards (i.e., Phase 3). Here, policy intentions are defined as a body of policy decisions taken to bring about certain desired outcomes of CAL provision at K-12 levels in Hong Kong (i.e., policy measures), as well as the discourses surrounding such policy decisions (i.e., policy rhetoric). Through Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) of policy documents that detailed policy decisions and rhetoric, policy intentions pertaining to CAL provision were gauged. As summarised in Table 25, there were 27 categories of CAL policy intentions (including policy rhetoric and policy measures) extracted from 173 policy documents. These 27 categories of CAL policy intentions, albeit different in nature and content, were further abstracted into three superordinate units: CAL policy intentions (i) at kindergarten levels, (ii) at primary and secondary levels, and (iii) of miscellaneous or infrastructural nature. For details of quality assurance and analysis, refer to 3.3.4.1 and 3.4.1 respectively.

Holistically, policy data suggest that although Phase 3 of CAL provision has continued on the bulk of the policy measures initiated during Phases 1 and 2 (see Appendix 9.3 on page 542 for a timeline of CAL policy intentions), Phase 3 is marked by a more diversified mix of policy measures targeting the K-12 levels. Notably, the main findings of QCA demonstrate policy intentions of (i) strengthening the kindergarten sector as part of a more comprehensive CAL provision, as evinced by the recurring rhetoric of 'early integration' and a series of tangible policy measures enhancing CAL provision at kindergarten levels; and (ii) effectuating a primarily laissez-faire structure of CAL policy measures, in alignment with the government's larger policy of school-based decision-making and management.

In what follows, CAL policy intentions — as an assemblage of policy measures and its accompanying rhetoric (see also policy mixes by Peters, 2005; Howlett, 2011, 2014) — from 2014 onwards are enlarged upon in the following three domains: first, policy intentions related to CAL provision at kindergarten levels (4.2.1); second, policy intentions related to CAL provision at primary and secondary levels (4.2.2); and finally, miscellaneous policy intentions related to CAL provision (4.2.3).

	CAL policy intentions	Nature
CAL policy intentions at kindergarten (KG) levels	1. Policy rhetoric at KG levels	Information
	2. Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide (2017)	Curriculum
	3. Funding for KGs	Grant
	4. Professional development for KGs	Services
	5. School-based support services for KGs	
	6. Information dissemination and exhortation	Information
CAL policy intentions at primary (P) and secondary (S) levels	7. Policy rhetoric at P & S levels	Information
	8. Supplementary Guide (2008)	Curriculum
	9. Chinese Language Learning Framework (2014)	
	10. Chinese Language Curriculum Guide (2017)	
	11. Revised funding for ordinary PSs & SSs	Grant
	12. Funding for special PSs & SSs	
	13. Professional development for PSs & SSs	Services
	14. School-based support services for PSs & SSs	
	15. Chinese Language Learning Support Centres	
	16. Summer Bridging Programmes	
	17. Induction Programmes	
	18. Initiation Programmes	
	19. Widening of school choices	Regulation
	20. Information dissemination and exhortation	Information
	21. Applied Learning (Chinese)	Services, grant, regulation
PSs = Primary Schools SSs = Secondary Schools	22. Alternative Chinese language Qualifications	
Other CAL policy intentions	23. Parent education	Services
	24. Early childhood Chinese language programmes	
	25. Vocational Chinese language courses	
	26. CAL research development	Infrastructure
	27. CAL material development	

Table 25 | An overview of qualitative findings of the 'Policy' domain

4.2.1. CAL policy intentions at kindergarten levels

One of the signature features of CAL provision in Phase 3 concerns the emergence of policy intentions targeting kindergarten levels. Concomitant with the policy of 'Free Quality Kindergarten Education' (Education Bureau (EDB) Circular No. 7/2016), which prioritises the provision of 15 years of free and quality education to all eligible children including CAL children, these policy measures at kindergarten levels aim at materialising the rhetoric of 'early integration'. Particularly, the 2017 Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide (KGCG) is the *first* kindergarten curriculum document to heed the presence of ethnolinguistic minority kindergarteners with CAL needs, which forms the basis for a series of tangible CAL policy measures at kindergarten levels. One tangible measure is a five-tiered funding scheme that offers financial support to a diversity of local kindergartens admitting CAL children. Together with the disbursement of funds earmarked for CAL purposes, capacity-building programmes offering professional development and school-based support are put in place. In tandem, in order for eligible CAL children to benefit from these measures, an information campaign related to kindergarten admission has been launched. Overall, these CAL policy measures targeting the kindergarten sector, adopted almost twenty years after the handover, are unprecedented and indicate the government's intention of strengthening CAL provision in the pre-primary sector.

4.2.1.1. The rhetoric of 'early integration'

One characteristic feature pertaining to Phase 3 of CAL provision concerns the emergence of a rhetoric of 'early integration' hitherto absent from the general CAL policy discourses in earlier phases. This rhetoric has emerged since the abolition of 'designated schooling' in Phase 2, framing early school attendance (i.e., kindergarten attendance) as a key facilitatory factor in Chinese language development for CAL children, as evinced by the 2017 KGCG

> **Extract 1**
>
> The earlier non-Chinese speaking (NCS) children start to learn Chinese, the quicker they can adapt to the local curriculum and integrate into the local community.
>
> *Source: Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide (2017)*

Extract 1 illustrates the gist of the 'early integration' rhetoric, which legitimises *early* exposure to Chinese instruction and presents it as a springboard for adaptation to the local curriculum and *integration* into the local community. This recent rhetorical emphasis on 'early integration' may be linked to census reports suggesting that 'school attendance was relatively less common for ethnic minorities than the whole population' and that '[t]he slightly lower attendance rate for the age group 3-5 was mainly due to the low attendance rates of some Asian (other than Chinese) such as Nepalese, Pakistani and Filipinos' (Census and Statistics Department, 2017, p. 56) (see Table 26) and a three-year longitudinal study commissioned in 2004, which tracked the adaptation and development of CAL children in mainstream primary schools, with the conclusion that '[t]he school (principals, teachers) and the parents also believed an early integration was desirable for the NCS students to adapt to the Chinese community in Hong Kong' (Hau, 2008, p.2).

	Age groups (excluding foreign domestic helpers) (%)							
	3 5		6 11		12- 17		18 24	
	*EM**	*WP***	*EM*	*WP*	*EM*	*WP*	*EM*	*WP*
2006	83.9	89.1	99.5	99.9	96.7	96.9	36.1	44.7
2011	86.9	91.3	100.0	100.0	96.6	97.1	38.4	50.3
2016	90.7	92.5	100.0	100.0	96.2	97.8	43.3	52.6

** EM stands for 'ethnic minorities'.*
*** WP stands for 'whole population'.*
Table 26 | School attendance rates of ethnic minorities aged 3 5, 2006, 2011, and 2016 (Adapted from Census and Statistics Department, 2017)

Specifically, the notion of 'early integration' concerns the formative phase of pre-primary education (i.e., kindergarten education), a developmental period not covered by the policy of nine-year compulsory schooling (between ages 6 and 15, covering primary and junior secondary education) as stipulated by the Education Ordinance (Section 74, Cap. 279). As such, this rhetoric targets parents of CAL children, who are the main decision-makers in voluntary early childhood education, as suggested in Extract 2

Extract 2

> Non-Chinese speaking (NCS) children's early start in learning the Chinese language will facilitate their adaptation to mainstream curriculum and integration into the local community. Parents of NCS children are encouraged to send their children to kindergartens (KGs) with an immersed Chinese language environment as early as possible to facilitate their learning of the Chinese language.

Source: A 2019 leaflet promoting kindergarten education policy support for non-Chinese speaking children

Apart from parents of CAL children, the rhetoric of 'early integration' also targets local kindergartens, as shown by an EDB circular to supervisors and heads of kindergartens that admit CAL children

Extract 3

> KGs with more NCS students should step up efforts to create a rich Chinese language environment, and like other KGs, they should adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction in most of their lessons to enable NCS students' immersion in a Chinese language environment as far as possible.

Source: EDB Circular No.14/2019

From Extract 3, local kindergartens that admit CAL children are exhorted to adopt Chinese as the principal medium of instruction, which is associated with the creation of an immersive language environment for CAL children at kindergarten levels. In order to implement the vision of 'early integration', tangible policy measures at kindergarten levels will be illustrated below to further highlight the government's CAL policy intentions at kindergarten levels.

4.2.1.2. The 2017 Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide

Subsequent to the review on the 'Guide to the Pre-primary Curriculum' published by the Curriculum Development Council in 2006, the latest KECG (see Figure 1) was published in 2017 with a view to 'forming a coherent and co-ordinated education system to achieve the goal of whole-person education' (p.6), as well as facilitating the government's implementation of free quality kindergarten education policy starting from 2017/18 school year. The 2017 curriculum guide offers curriculum guidance to a number of key operational and instructional concerns facing the kindergarten sector (see EDB Circular No. 15/2017), including school management, school finance, teaching and learning at kindergarten levels, home-school-community partnership and so forth.

Importantly, the 2017 KECG is the *first* curriculum document that acknowledges the need for special CAL-related arrangements in the early years, which evinces the government's awareness of the importance of leveraging the kindergarten sector to further promote CAL development of ethnolinguistic minority students. Considering that kindergarten education in Hong Kong is intended as an integrated curriculum, kindergarten education is not compartmentalised into subjects but is distributed across six major learning areas:

(i) 'Physical Fitness and Health';
(ii) 'Language';
(iii) 'Early Childhood Mathematics';
(iv) 'Nature and Living';
(v) 'Self and Society'; and
(vi) 'Arts and Creativity'.

Of relevance here is the learning area of 'Language' where explicit guidance on Chinese language provision is offered. Given the importance of Chinese as the medium of communication for most people in Hong Kong, as well as the medium of instruction in some schools in Hong Kong, local kindergarten teachers are exhorted to develop young children's Chinese ability first. Understandably, local kindergartens are portrayed as authentic Chinese language environments for CAL students to be immersed in.

Throughout the 2017 KECG, exposure to Chinese at an early age is framed as an opportunity to develop affective qualities that hold the potential to shape later-life language learning and social integration. These affective qualities – for example, interest and confidence in learning Chinese – constitute the basis upon which learning activities and experiences are curated for young CAL children. Additionally, the 2017 KECG further states that, despite different starting points, 'the process through which NCS children learn Chinese is essentially the same as that of Chinese-speaking children' (p.111), observing that language precedes literacy for both groups.

To meet the second language acquisition needs of CAL children, kindergarten teachers are advised in the 2017 KECG to, *inter alia*, (i) 'speak slowly and express ideas with the aid of body language, pictures or real objects' (p.37); (ii) 'facilitate exchange among children by providing more opportunities for local and NCS children to play together' (p.37); (iii) 'adapt the learning content and choose themes that children are more familiar with' (p. 37); and (iv) be patient with CAL students' silent period when they 'learn Chinese by observing and listening' (p.111). These pedagogical advice whose basis in research is not explicitly stated in the document

is exhortative in nature, and generally aligns with the larger policy of school-based management that allows kindergartens admitting CAL children immense room for interpretation and devolved decision-making.

On the whole, through characterising CAL students with unique multilingual and multicultural profiles as merely *non*-Chinese-speaking (NCS) students, the 2017 KECG can be taken as evidence of the simplification of the complexities inherent in the learning and teaching of CAL in the early years. One notable example is that most CAL students are themselves emergent bilinguals who are simultaneously developing fluency in their home languages, Chinese, as well as English, which might in turn shape their learning of Chinese and content knowledge in the early years. It is not clear in the document how these complexities can be addressed at an instructional level and how the effect of different starting points can be mitigated for young CAL children to be effectively integrated into mainstream settings at kindergarten levels and beyond.



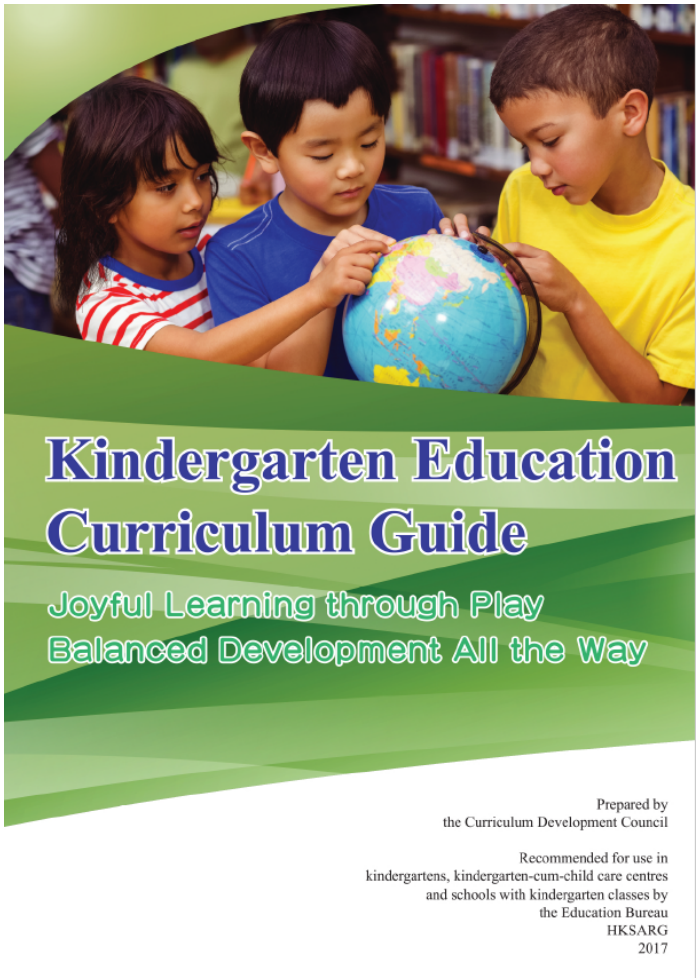


Figure 10 | Curriculum documents for kindergarten levels

4.2.1.3. Funding support for kindergartens

Another policy measure concerns the allocation of funds for CAL purposes, which indicates that CAL provision at kindergarten levels is not so much a form of symbolic and exhortative gesture (see Elmore, 1987; Schneider & Ingram, 1990; Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), as a tangible measure that financially enables kindergartens to devise, develop, and deliver school-based support responsive to the 2017 KECG, as well as to the needs of young CAL children.

Extract 4

> Besides, school-specific grants will be provided to cater for special circumstances of individual KGs. These include rental subsidy, premises maintenance grant, grant for a cook, grant for support to non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students, etc..
>
> *Source: EDB Circular No. 7/2016*

In Extract 4, funds were first allocated as part of a series of grants catering for the special circumstances of individual kindergartens. The presence of CAL students in a kindergarten was considered as a special circumstance that qualified a kindergarten for financial support. As set out in the appendices of EDB Circular No. 7/2016, starting from the 2017/18 school year, a grant 'comparable to the mid-point salary of one KG teacher' was provided to kindergartens that 'admit eight or more NCS students[17]' (p.29), in hopes that kindergartens with eight or more CAL students can deploy additional resources (e.g., hiring additional teachers and/or teaching assistants) and/or acquire services (e.g., professional/cultural training).

From the 2019/20 school year onwards, two years after the publication of the 2017 KECG, a more comprehensive funding scheme has superseded the previous funding mechanism. This new arrangement was first announced in the 2018 Policy Address, which stated

Extract 5

> Starting from the 2019/20 school year, the EDB will provide a five-tiered subsidy for kindergartens joining the

[17] According to the latest student enrolment statistics published by School Education Statistics Section of the EDB (EDB, 2021), there are 1046 kindergarten-cum-child care centres hosting 164,935 kindergarten-age children. On average, a given kindergarten admits around 150 young children.

> Kindergarten Education Scheme based on the number of NCS students admitted so that these schools can provide more appropriate support for their NCS students, thereby assisting them in learning Chinese, fostering a diversified culture and building an inclusive environment.
>
> *Source: 2018 Policy Address*

From Extract 5, funds are now made available through a five-tiered mechanism in hopes that more targeted support can be rendered to kindergartens with CAL students to (i) assist them in learning Chinese and (ii) build an inclusive environment. As illustrated in Table 27, the tier is determined by the number of eligible CAL children admitted in a given kindergarten.

As further enlarged upon in EDB Circular No. 14/2019, Tier-1 grant is a cash grant allowing kindergartens to 'purchase teaching materials to help NCS students learn Chinese, procure services (e.g. translation service), and organise activities to promote cultural integration and parent education' (p.2), whereas Tier-2 to Tier-5 grants are generally intended for employing additional staff for CAL and/or cultural integration purposes. Having regard to school context, individual kindergartens have the discretion over how the funds are utilised, as long as they are used to enhance support to CAL children with respect to the aforementioned purposes.

This high degree of school autonomy is further evinced by the fact that, according to EDB Circular No. 14/2019, kindergartens in receipt of the grants are required to submit to the EDB 'a school plan on the utilisation of the grant and planned support measures at the beginning of a school year, as well as a school report at the end of the school year summarising the implementation and evaluation of these measures' (p.4). That suggests that, apart from the general requirement of documentation and record-keeping, kindergartens are given great flexibility to adopt accountability frameworks and evaluation methods as they deem appropriate.

Tiers	No. of NCS students	Grant rates	Provisional full-year grant rate for the 2019/20 school year (HKD)
1	1 4	Cash grant of $50,000 per year	50,000
2	5 7	Subsidy at a rate of 0.5 KG teachers	193,860
3	8 15	Subsidy at a rate of 1 KG teacher (i.e. the current arrangement)	387,720
4	16 30	Subsidy at a rate of 1.5 KG teachers	581,580
5	31 or above	Subsidy at a rate of 2 KG teachers	775,440

Table 27 | A five-tiered grant for kindergartens in the 2019/20 school year (Source: EDB Circular No.14/2019)

4.2.1.4. Capacity-building support for kindergarten teachers

Alongside funds allocated to eligible kindergartens, the government has also adopted the measure of providing capacity-building support services, both school-based and site-based, to build the professional capacity of kindergarten teachers to facilitate CAL learning and to build an inclusive learning environment. The measure of capacity-building services is operationalised as a range of CAL programmes targeting both individual kindergartens and their teachers, with both professional and school development goals.

In fact, prior to the 2019/20 implementation of the five-tiered funding scheme, the government stressed the relevance of these capacity-building services for kindergartens admitting fewer than eight CAL students, as shown in Extract 6

Extract 6

> For these KGs and other KGs admitting fewer NCS students, school-based professional support would continue to be provided and further enhanced to help KGs build up the expertise in facilitating NCS students' learning of the Chinese language for a smooth transition to primary education. Teacher training programmes on the teaching and learning of the Chinese language for NCS students in KGs would also be enhanced.
>
> *Source: EDB Circular No. 7/2016*

Relatedly, the importance of these capacity-building services is further highlighted in the 2018 Policy Address (see Extract 7), which stresses the intention to build kindergarten teachers' professional competency through commissioning school-based support services to tertiary institutions (TEIs).

Extract 7

> Moreover, the EDB will continue commissioning post-secondary institutions to provide school-based support services for kindergartens, primary and secondary schools admitting non-Chinese speaking students in the three school years from 2019/20 to 2021/22, so as to enhance the professional competency of teachers.
>
> *Source: 2018 Policy Address*

Extract 7 also highlights the hybrid support model pursued by the government, which combines both direct (i.e., direct services from the government) and indirect (i.e., the engagement of TEIs through commissioning of services) capacity-building services to kindergartens and their teachers. Notably, demonstrative of the governmental commitment to stepping up CAL-related capacity-building services as part of the 2017 policy of free quality kindergartens, EDB Circular Memorandum No. 32/2020 shows that school-based support services (SBSSs) as a form of capacity-building are 'provided under diversified modes' (p.1): (i) on-site professional support services by school development officers of EDB, (ii) support services commissioned to TEIs (i.e., University-School Support Programmes before 2018; Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Tertiary Institutes after 2018), and (iii) the creation of professional learning networks coordinated by officers from EDB and Mainland expert teachers (i.e., inter-kindergarten learning).

As shown in Table 28, the earliest CAL-related capacity-building programme was a three-year University-School Support Programme (USP) serving the kindergarten sector from 2012 to 2015, followed by another three-year USP focusing on kindergarten-primary transition from 2015 to 2017. Since the 2019/20 school year, CAL-related issues have become one of the five major support foci (alongside the regular on-site support services), with the following support model in Extract 8

Extract 8

The project will offer intensive on-site support services and consultancy services to Seed Schools and Network Schools:

- Seed Schools: At least eight intensive on-site support services will be provided to the schools to help them develop and optimise their school-based curriculum through collaborative lesson planning meetings, lesson observations, and post-observation discussions with teachers, according to the needs of the schools

- Network Schools: At least four on-site consultancy services will be provided on different aspects of the school-based curriculum development to help NCS children learn Chinese, according to the needs of the schools

Source: EDB Circular Memorandum No. 32/2020

Here, kindergartens may participate as either a Seed School or a Network School with the former receiving more intensive school-based support with respect to school-based curriculum development and optimisation. The duration of the support services usually lasts around one school year. As revealed through the budget estimate for the EDB for 2019-20 in Extract 9, the provision of such school-based support services at K-12 levels is intended as a non-recurrent measure

Extract 9

> …continue to provide a broad range of support services for schools to help them take forward education reform initiatives, and to cater for learner diversity, including the provision of a non-recurrent allocation of $45 million to commission school-based professional support services for about 200 schools (including kindergartens) admitting NCS students in the three school years from 2019/20 to 2021/20 to enhance the professional competency of teachers in teaching Chinese to NCS students…
>
> *Source: The 2019-20 Budget Estimate for Head 156 (EDB)*

In tandem, an Oxfam capacity-building programme titled '*Start from the Beginning – Chinese Supporting Scheme for Non-Chinese Speaking Students in Kindergartens*' was partially funded by the Social Innovation and Entrepreneurship Development Fund[18] (SIEF) since 2015 (see Oxfam, 2020). School-based support has been offered to six kindergartens in Stages I (2015 2017) and II (2017 2019), with the pre-Stage III (2019 2020) serving four seed and four network kindergartens. Notably, in 2020, this Oxfam programme has become the first Pay-for-Success[19] Project in Hong Kong, with the goal of scaling up its programme to 74 kindergartens (with four seed kindergartens and 70 network kindergartens).

Apart from school-based support services, the government encourages and provides professional development programmes for kindergarten teachers. For example, in the 2017 Policy Address, the government invites The Standing Committee on Language Education and Research (SCOLAR) to utilise the Language Fund to

[18] SIEF is an initiative under the Commission on Poverty with a view to 'help[ing] tackle poverty and social exclusion issues in Hong Kong' (vide LC Paper No. CB(2)554/14-15(01), p.6). SIEF is formed through an allocation of HK$500 million from the Lotteries Fund, which is managed by the Social Welfare Department of the HKSAR Government.

[19] A Pay-for-Success model differs from a traditional granting model in that 'the government only makes a payment once guaranteed social outcomes are achieved' (see Oxfam, 2021).

commission professional development programmes for kindergarten teachers specifically, language enhancement programmes to complement the implementation of the 2017 KECG. Alongside the mandate of fulfilling training targets set for each kindergarten, a supply teacher grant (see Extract 10) has been in place to incentivise kindergarten teachers to participate in site-based professional training, and to minimise disruption caused to individual kindergartens.

Extract 10

> Starting from the 2018/19 school year, EDB sets training targets to cater for the diverse needs of students in Scheme-KGs, and provides a supply teacher grant to facilitate Scheme-KGs arranging teachers to attend the specified recognised training courses on supporting NCS students.
>
> *Source: EDB Circular No. 14/2019*

	Beneficiary sectors	Titles of earliest CAL-related University-School Support Programmes	Service Providers
2012 2015	Kindergartens	Supporting Kindergartens in the Teaching and Learning of Chinese for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Children	Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research, Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong
2015 2017	Kindergartens & Primary Schools	Effective Student Transition: Facilitating the Learning of the Chinese Language of NCS Kindergarten (K3) Students in the Transition to Primary School	Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research, Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong

Table 28 | Earliest CAL-related SBSSs (supported by Education Development Fund) from policy documents

4.2.1.5. Information dissemination and exhortation

Results of QCA reveal an information-based measure targeting the parents of CAL students, and kindergartens that offer the local curriculum. As Howlett and Ramesh (2003) explain, this measure is rather 'a passive instrument whereby the government puts out information with the expectation that individuals and firms will change their behaviour in a desired manner' (p.114). Part of the impetus for this information-based and exhortative campaign may stem from advocacy and research pursued by local NGOs (e.g., Hong Kong Unison, 2015, 2019) and statutory bodies (e.g., Equal Opportunities Commission, 2018), as well as questions raised in the Legislative Council. The central objective of this information campaign, as highlighted in Extract 11, has been to encourage parents of CAL children to send their children to local kindergartens which generally adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction

Extract 11

> We encourage parents of NCS children to arrange for their children to study in kindergartens as early as possible, so their children can be immersed in an authentic Chinese language environment.

Source: Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide (2017)

Considering that student admission at kindergarten levels is school-based (as opposed to central allocation mechanisms for admission to primary and secondary schools), the government has been campaigning to bring about the desired outcome of 'early integration' through both information dissemination and exhortation that target parents of CAL children and administrators of local kindergartens.

For parents of CAL children, governmental intentions of strengthening the dissemination of information related to kindergarten admission are evinced through (i) the setting up of a dedicated hotline handling enquiries about admission to kindergartens (starting from September 2018); (ii) the provision of various publicity materials in common minority languages that encourage early integration and kindergarten admission policies (see Figure 11); (iii) the inclusion of a dedicated column titled "Support to NCS Students" in the Profile of Kindergartens and Kindergarten-cum-Child Care Centres (see Figure 12) (starting from 2018); and (iv) the organisation of briefing sessions on kindergarten admissions in collaboration with non-governmental organisations with a track record of serving minority communities.

Concurrently, for administrators of local kindergartens, governmental intentions of refining the means of information dissemination related to kindergarten admission are demonstrated through (i) facilitating kindergartens to disseminate admission and school information in both Chinese and English through the provision of templates and bilingual materials; (ii) providing cue cards with audio files in various minority languages (see Figure 13); and (iii) briefing kindergartens on the importance of equal opportunities in student admission in collaboration with The Equal Opportunities Commission. With effect from 2018, kindergartens are mandated to explicitly state their school-based support available to CAL children through the Profile of Kindergartens and Kindergarten-cum-Child Care Centres.

Taken together, as a written reply by the then Secretary for Education, Mr Eddie Ng Hak-kim, reveals, the central goal of this campaign targeting parents of CAL children and kindergartens is to enable parents of CAL students to 'make an informed choice' pertaining to kindergarten selection (Hong Kong Hansard, 2015, p.3047). This information-based measure related to CAL provision at kindergarten levels reflects the policy intention that, through disseminating the benefits of 'early integration' and exhorting relevant parties, key stakeholders themselves 'can be relied on to achieve policy goals' (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003. p.115), without resorting to coercive measures.

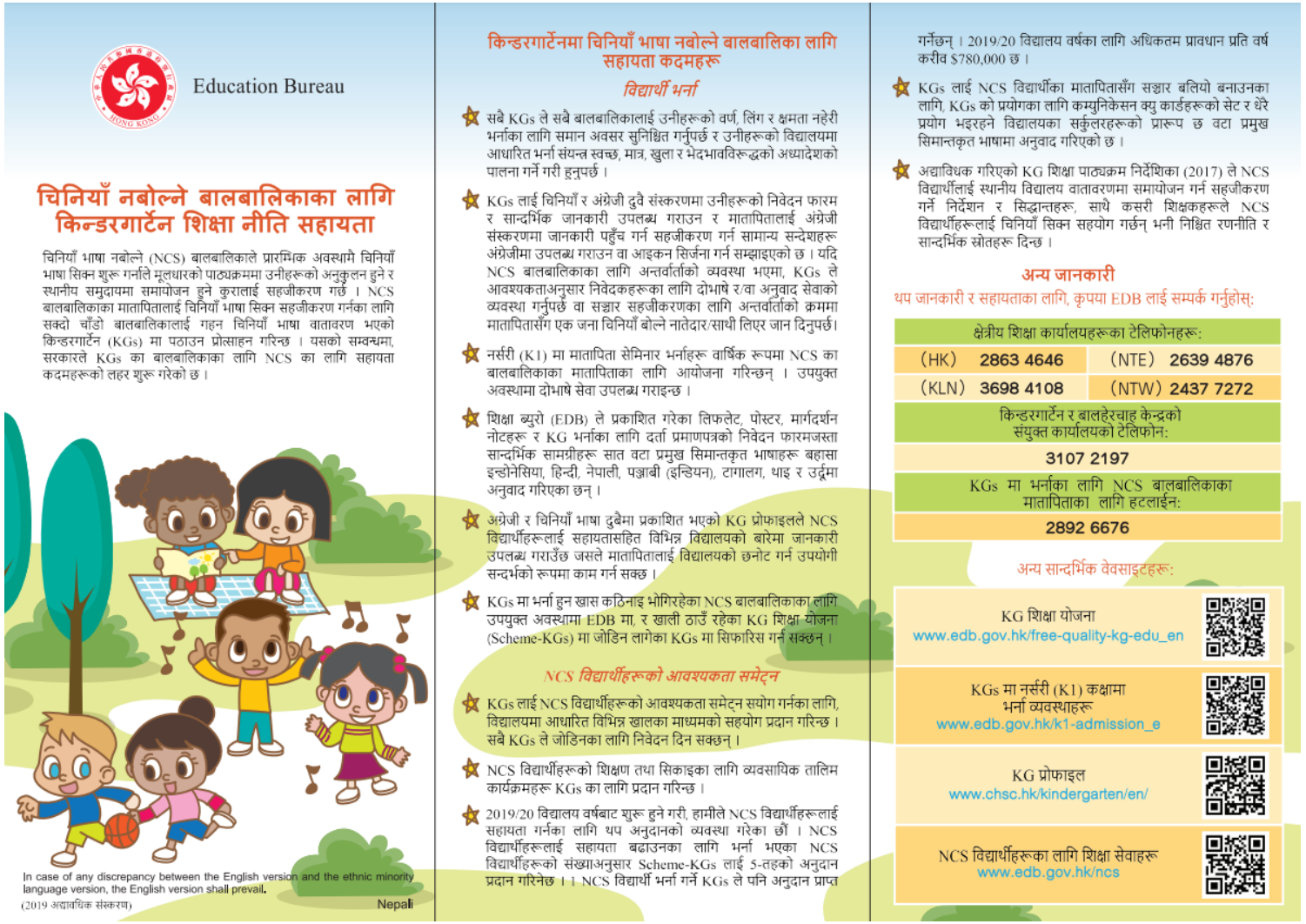
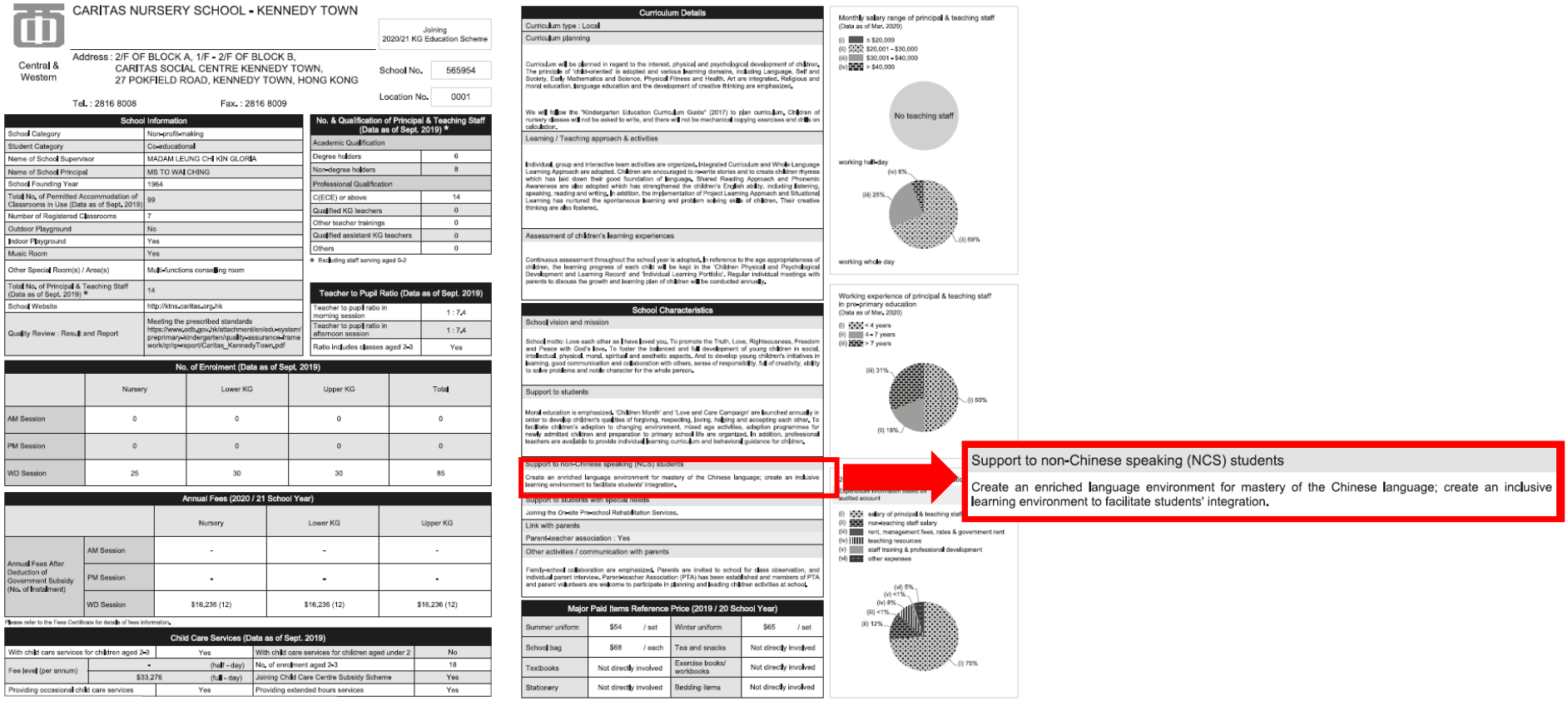


Figure 11 | A leaflet on 'Kindergarten Education Policy Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Children' in Nepali



CARITAS NURSERY SCHOOL - KENNEDY TOWN

Central & Western

Address : 2/F OF BLOCK A, 1/F - 2/F OF BLOCK B, CARITAS SOCIAL CENTRE KENNEDY TOWN, 27 POKFIELD ROAD, KENNEDY TOWN, HONG KONG

Tel. : 2816 8008 Fax. : 2816 8009

Joining 2020/21 KG Education Scheme

School No. 565954

Location No. 0001

School Information

School Category	Non-profit-making
Student Category	Co-educational
Name of School Supervisor	MADAM LEUNG CHI KIN GLORIA
Name of School Principal	MS TO WAI CHING
School Founding Year	1964
Total No. of Permitted Accommodation of Classrooms in Use (Data as of Sept. 2019)	99
Number of Registered Classrooms	7
Outdoor Playground	No
Indoor Playground	Yes
Music Room	Yes
Other Special Room(s) / Area(s)	Multi-functions conselling room
Total No. of Principal & Teaching Staff (Data as of Sept. 2019) *	14
School Website	http://ktns.caritas.org.hk
Quality Review : Result and Report	Meeting the prescribed standards https://www.edb.gov.hk/attachment/en/edu-system/preprimary-kindergarten/quality-assurance-framework/qr/qr-report/Caritas_KennedyTown.pdf

No. & Qualification of Principal & Teaching Staff (Data as of Sept. 2019) *

Academic Qualification	
Degree holders	6
Non-degree holders	8
Professional Qualification	
C(ECE) or above	14
Qualified KG teachers	0
Other teacher trainings	0
Qualified assistant KG teachers	0
Others	0

* Excluding staff serving aged 0-2

Teacher to Pupil Ratio (Data as of Sept. 2019)

Teacher to pupil ratio in morning session	1 : 7.4
Teacher to pupil ratio in afternoon session	1 : 7.4
Ratio includes classes aged 2-3	Yes

No. of Enrolment (Data as of Sept. 2019)

	Nursery	Lower KG	Upper KG	Total
AM Session	0	0	0	0
PM Session	0	0	0	0
WD Session	25	30	30	85

Annual Fees (2020 / 21 School Year)

		Nursery	Lower KG	Upper KG
Annual Fees After Deduction of Government Subsidy (No. of Instalment)	AM Session	-	-	-
	PM Session	-	-	-
	WD Session	$16,236 (12)	$16,236 (12)	$16,236 (12)

Please refer to the Fees Certificate for details of fees information.

Child Care Services (Data as of Sept. 2019)

With child care services for children aged 2-3	Yes	With child care services for children aged under 2	No
Fee level (per annum)	- (half - day)	No. of enrolment aged 2-3	18
	$33,276 (full - day)	Joining Child Care Centre Subsidy Scheme	Yes
Providing occasional child care services	Yes	Providing extended hours services	Yes

Curriculum Details

Curriculum type : Local

Curriculum planning

Curriculum will be planned in regard to the interest, physical and psychological development of children. The principle of 'child-oriented' is adopted and various learning domains, including Language, Self and Society, Early Mathematics and Science, Physical Fitness and Health, Art are integrated. Religious and moral education, language education and the development of creative thinking are emphasized.

We will follow the "Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide" (2017) to plan curriculum. Children of nursery classes will not be asked to write, and there will not be mechanical copying exercises and drills on calculation.

Learning / Teaching approach & activities

Individual, group and interactive team activities are organized. Integrated Curriculum and Whole Language Learning Approach are adopted. Children are encouraged to re-write stories and to create children rhymes which has laid down their good foundation of language. Shared Reading Approach and Phonemic Awareness are also adopted which has strengthened the children's English ability, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. In addition, the implementation of Project Learning Approach and Situational Learning has nurtured the spontaneous learning and problem solving skills of children. Their creative thinking are also fostered.

Assessment of children's learning experiences

Continuous assessment throughout the school year is adopted. In reference to the age appropriateness of children, the learning progress of each child will be kept in the 'Children Physical and Psychological Development and Learning Record' and 'Individual Learning Portfolio'. Regular individual meetings with parents to discuss the growth and learning plan of children will be conducted annually.

School Characteristics

School vision and mission

School motto: Love each other as I have loved you. To promote the Truth, Love, Righteousness, Freedom and Peace with God's love. To foster the balanced and full development of young children in social, intellectual, physical, moral, spiritual and aesthetic aspects. And to develop young children's initiatives in learning, good communication and collaboration with others, sense of responsibility, full of creativity, ability to solve problems and noble character for the whole person.

Support to students

Moral education is emphasized. 'Children Month' and 'Love and Care Campaign' are launched annually in order to develop children's qualities of forgiving, respecting, loving, helping and accepting each other. To facilitate children's adaption to changing environment, mixed age activities, adaption programmes for newly admitted children and preparation to primary school life are organized. In addition, professional teachers are available to provide individual learning curriculum and behavioral guidance for children.

Support to non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students

Create an enriched language environment for mastery of the Chinese language; create an inclusive learning environment to facilitate students' integration.

Support to students with special needs

Joining the On-site Pre-school Rehabilitation Services.

Link with parents

Parent-teacher association : Yes

Other activities / communication with parents

Family-school collaboration are emphasized. Parents are invited to school for class observation, and individual parent interview. Parent-teacher Association (PTA) has been established and members of PTA and parent volunteers are welcome to participate in planning and leading children activities at school.

Major Paid Items Reference Price (2019 / 20 School Year)

Summer uniform	$54 / set	Winter uniform	$65 / set
School bag	$68 / each	Tea and snacks	Not directly involved
Textbooks	Not directly involved	Exercise books/ workbooks	Not directly involved
Stationery	Not directly involved	Bedding items	Not directly involved

Monthly salary range of principal & teaching staff (Data as of Mar. 2020)

(i) ≤ $20,000
(ii) $20,001 - $30,000
(iii) $30,001 - $40,000
(iv) > $40,000

No teaching staff

working half-day

(iv) 6%
(iii) 25%
(ii) 69%

working whole day

Working experience of principal & teaching staff in pre-primary education (Data as of Mar. 2020)

(i) < 4 years
(ii) 4 - 7 years
(iii) > 7 years

(iii) 31%
(i) 50%
(ii) 19%

(i) salary of principal & teaching staff
(ii) non-teaching staff salary
(iii) rent, management fees, rates & government rent
(iv) teaching resources
(v) staff training & professional development
(vi) other expenses

(vi) 5%
(v) <1%
(iv) 8%
(iii) <1%
(ii) 12%
(i) 75%

Support to non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students

Create an enriched language environment for mastery of the Chinese language; create an inclusive learning environment to facilitate students' integration.

Figure 12 | An example of the updated[20] profile of a local kindergarten for the 2020/21 school year

[20] 'Starting from 2018, a new column "Support to NCS Students" has been included in the Profile for kindergartens to set out the support provided to their NCS students' (Source: Brief on Education Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students)



Figure 13 | An example of a communication cue card to non-Chinese speaking families in kindergartens (Source: Website of the EDB)

4.2.1.6. Coda

Overall, the results of QCA suggest that Phase 3 has witnessed the emergence of a series of tangible policy measures at kindergarten levels — notably, a tiered funding scheme, a blend of both school-based and site-based capacity-building programmes, and a campaign combining information dissemination and exhortation — that revolve around the 2017 KECG. As such, findings pertaining to the kindergarten levels demonstrate the Government's intentions of realising the vision of early integration of CAL children through tangible policy measures. Taken together, CAL policies at kindergarten levels are implemented within a primarily laissez-faire (i.e., school-based) structure with ample implementational freedom for kindergarten teachers to cater for the needs of CAL children through (i) enhancing CAL instruction and/or (ii) building an inclusive environment.

4.2.2. CAL policy intentions at primary and secondary levels

Apart from identifying policy measures intending to strengthen kindergarten CAL provision, the results of QCA also identify similar policy measures at primary and secondary levels. These measures constitute the bulk of prevailing CAL provision intentions. It should also be noted that much of primary and secondary schooling is mandatory *de jure* so school attendance rates for both levels are similar between the whole population and minority groups, as confirmed by census data (see Table 29). Given the universality of access to primary and secondary schooling, quality CAL provision at this developmental stage is particularly crucial for CAL students.

Notably, CAL provision is driven by a dual discourse of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes' and 'multiple pathways', which has become the official stance adopted by the government in CAL-related issues. As for tangible CAL policy measures at primary and secondary levels, a similarly laissez-faire yet more diversified model of curriculum guidance, funding, capacity-building programmes and services, information dissemination, and exhortation is identified and has been regularly revised since the beginning of Phase 3 (i.e., the 2014/15 school year).

	Age groups (excluding foreign domestic helpers) (%)							
	3 5		6 11		12 17		18 24	
	EM	*WP*	*EM**	*WP***	*EM**	*WP***	*EM*	*WP*
2006	83.9	89.1	99.5	99.9	96.7	96.9	36.1	44.7
2011	86.9	91.3	100.0	100.0	96.6	97.1	38.4	50.3
2016	90.7	92.5	100.0	100.0	96.2	97.8	43.3	52.6

** EM stands for 'ethnic minorities'.*
*** WP stands for 'whole population'.*
Table 29 | School attendance rates of ethnic minorities aged 6 11 and 12 17 in 2006, 2011, and 2016 (Source: Census and Statistics Department, 2017)

4.2.2.1. The rhetoric of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese Language classes' and 'multiple pathways'

Rhetorically, CAL provision in Phase 3 is driven by a dual discourse of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes' and 'multiple pathways', which can be identified alongside tangible CAL policy decisions at primary and secondary levels. Both have become the official lines to take when top government officials elaborate on and defend the Government's policy intentions in the Legislative Council.

On one hand, alongside the rhetoric of 'early integration' at kindergarten levels, the rhetoric of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes' is often presented as the

main intended goal of prevailing CAL policies in Phase 3. This rhetoric emphasises that governmental action should be directed to (i) ensure that there shall be no pre-set simpler content set for CAL students (i.e., the preservation of 'mainstream Chinese classes' as the only acceptable instructional option for CAL students) and (ii) assist schools in building school-based mechanisms that enable CAL students to 'bridge over', as evinced by Extracts 12 and 13

Extract 12

> If a uniformed standard of second language curriculum with structured learning objectives by stages is required of all NCS students in Hong Kong, it will not only fail to address the realistic learning circumstances of NCS students, but will also be ineffective in catering for their learning diversity.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (4 July 2018)*

Extract 13

> As NCS students regard Hong Kong as their home, it is imperative for them to be proficient in Chinese so as to be competitive in respect of further studies and career pursuits with a view to integrating into the local community. Therefore, the policy intent is to facilitate NCS students' *bridging over to mainstream Chinese Language classes* [emphasis added]. It is not advisable to provide them with a simpler Chinese Language curriculum, which will limit their opportunities for Chinese learning in the long run.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (31 October 2018)*

Both extracts are taken from responses to Legislative Council questions regarding whether the government would consider setting up 'an Independent Curriculum on Learning Chinese as a Second Language' (Hong Kong Hansard, 4 July 2018, p.13726). In Extract 12, instead of acknowledging the value of a centralised second language curriculum, the Government frames it as an undesirable decision that disregards the learning circumstances and diversity of CAL students. The solution, according to Extract 13, is to bridge CAL students over to the mainstream Chinese Language curriculum so as to promote integration in various domains. Hence, the vision of 'bridging over' is realised not through a centralised CAL curriculum but a laissez-faire structure that facilitates CAL students' bridging over to mainstream Chinese Language classes, which will be further elaborated upon below.

On the other hand, there circulates the rhetoric of 'multiple pathways' from policy documents relating to CAL provision. This rhetoric has been an enduring feature since the beginning of Phase 2 of CAL provision,

Extract 14

> We understand that individual NCS students would like to be provided with the avenue to attain alternative qualifications in Chinese in Hong Kong. In this regard, we are considering making necessary arrangements for interested NCS students to participate in the GCSE (Chinese) examination in Hong Kong beginning in 2007.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (12 July 2006)*

Extract 14 suggests that, despite the imperative of bridging CAL students over to mainstream classes such that they can eventually obtain a mainstream Chinese Language qualification, the government was considering arranging alternative Chinese Language qualifications for CAL students. Notably, the rhetoric of multiple pathways can be traced back to the 2008 Supplementary Guide — the earliest CAL curriculum document (see 4.2.2.2) — which suggests that measures related to 'multiple pathways' have all along been an enduring feature of CAL provision.

Extract 15

> The multiple curriculum modes may lead to different exits such as Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (HKDSE), General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) and International General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), hence multiple progression pathways for NCS students. In tandem, to enhance NCS students' competitiveness in the workplace, a pilot scheme on Workplace Chinese Language with programmes pegged to the Qualifications Framework will be implemented this academic year.
>
> *Source: Discussion Paper on 12 December 2011*

As summarised in Extract 15, the government admits the presence of multiple curriculum modes in practice, with one chief ramification being the necessity of different exits and multiple progression pathways. Extract 15 also reveals earlier

planning related to Applied Learning Chinese (ApL(C)), a CAL initiative in Phase 3 (see also 4.2.2.7) as part of the rhetoric of 'multiple pathways'.

Extract 16

> With reference to the "Learning Framework", schools can make evidence-based recommendations on whether individual NCS students can be bridged to the mainstream Chinese Language classes and help them make informed choices on whether to take the mainstream Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (HKDSE) Examination for Chinese Language or to take the Applied Learning Chinese (for NCS students) (ApL(C)) and/or attain other internationally recognised Chinese Language qualifications. NCS students could be articulated to *multiple pathways* [emphasis added]and apply for programmes offered by local and overseas tertiary institutions or apply for jobs with these recognised Chinese Language qualifications.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (30 November 2016)*

Considered together, Extract 16 summarises the prevailing state of the dual discourse of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes' and 'multiple pathways' in Phase 3 of CAL provision. Yet, the decision to bridge over varies from school to school, which in turn shapes the decision of which Chinese Language qualification to prepare CAL students for. Overall, QCA identifies the circulation of the dual discourse of 'bridging over' and 'multiple pathways' as demonstrative of the governmental intention of a largely laissez-faire model of acquisition planning. Importantly, both rhetorical features of CAL provision, as will be elaborated on below, are accompanied with respective sets of facilitatory policy measures.

4.2.2.2. CAL curriculum documents

In keeping with the rhetoric of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese Language classes', CAL curriculum guidance is implemented through key curriculum texts pertaining to Chinese Language[21] as a key learning area from primary to junior

[21] It should be noted that bridging over to mainstream Chinese Language classes pertains only to the learning of Chinese Language alongside ethnic Chinese peers. The learning of content knowledge in Chinese (i.e., medium of instruction) is a separate issue that, judged from the existing policy documents, the government has no intention of intervening in. That is, the decision to study in a Chinese-medium or an English-medium school is a matter of parental choice (where both settings offer Chinese Language classes).

secondary levels (i.e., Key Stage One Three), and as a core subject at senior secondary levels (i.e., Key Stage Four). As illustrated by Figure 14, Chinese Language as a curricular area has morphed from a diffuse element at kindergarten levels into a defined language subject at primary and secondary levels. As recommended by the 2017 *Chinese Language Education Key Learning Area Curriculum Guide*, instructional time allocated for the subject of Chinese Language (including the subject of Putonghua) should constitute a stipulated amount of the overall lesson time as shown below

Primary levels	25-30% *(including Putonghua)*
Junior secondary levels	17-21% *(including Putonghua)*
Senior secondary levels	12.5-15%

In response to a question raised in the Legislative Council regarding the 'formulation of an Independent Curriculum on Learning Chinese as a Second Language' (Hong Kong Hansard, 4 July 2018, p.13726), a senior government official has made clear that the government has no intention of 'introduc[ing] other policies or projects in addition to the current policy' (p.13730). In this connection, the extant CAL curriculum documents the 2008 *Supplementary Guide to the Chinese Language Curriculum for Non-Chinese Speaking Students* (the "Supplementary Guide" hereafter); and the 2014 *Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework* (the "Learning Framework" hereafter) form the basis upon which schools admitting CAL students should design and develop school-based Chinese Language curricula (see Figure 15).

According to a consultation paper prepared by Curriculum Development Council (CDC) in 2008, the purpose of the Supplementary Guide is to 'supplement principles, strategies and recommendations for implementing the Chinese Language curriculum in schools in the learning context of NCS students, under a common CDC curriculum framework' (p.3). As such, the Supplementary Guide should be read alongside key curriculum texts at the time, which included

2001 *Chinese Language Curriculum Guide (Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary)*
2002 *Chinese Language Education Key Learning Area Curriculum Guide (Primary 1 to Secondary 3)*
2004 *Chinese Language Curriculum Guide (Primary 1 to Primary 6)*
2007 *Chinese Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide (Secondary 4 to Secondary 6)*

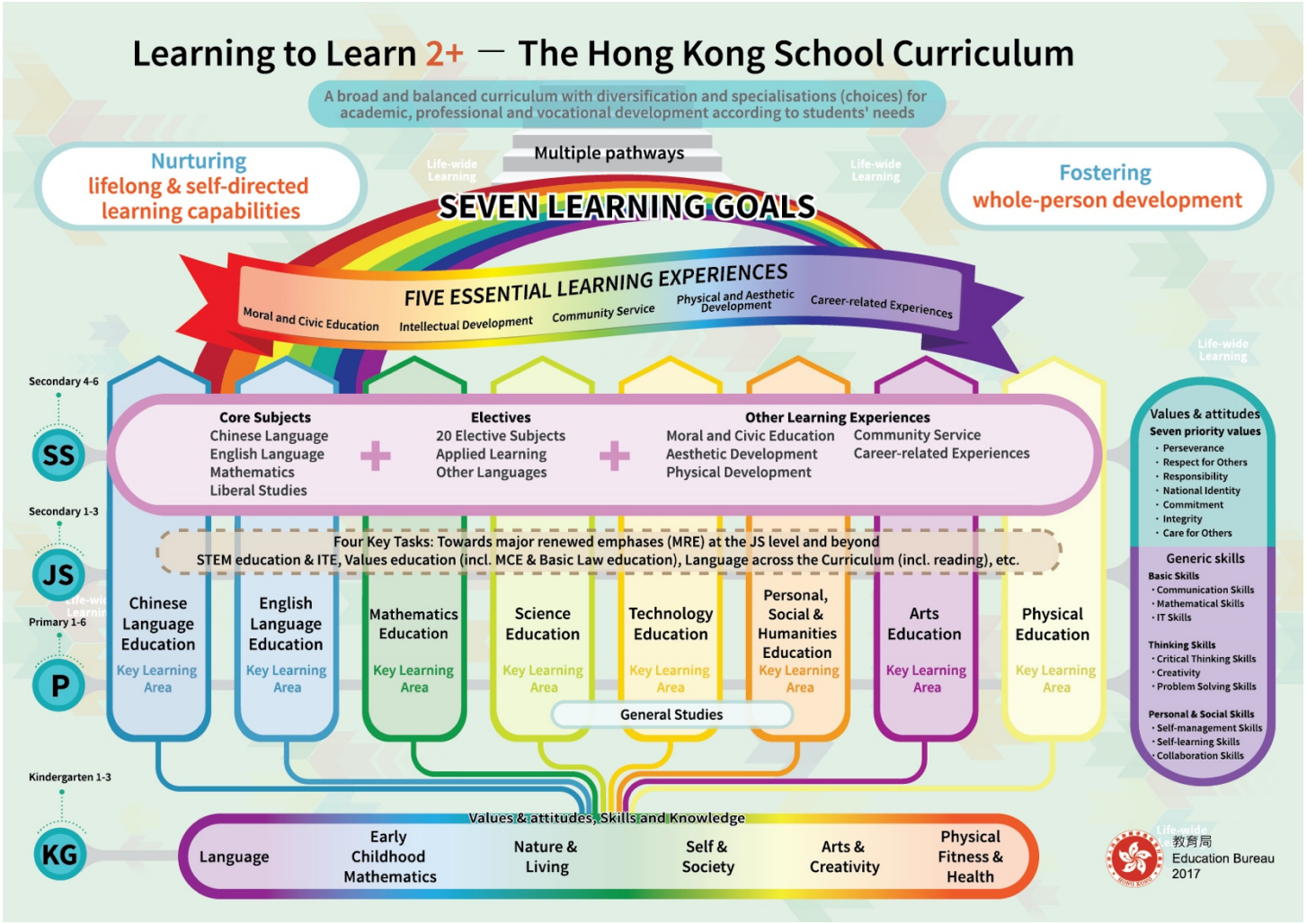


Figure 14 | An official illustration of Learning to Learn 2+, the Hong Kong school curriculum

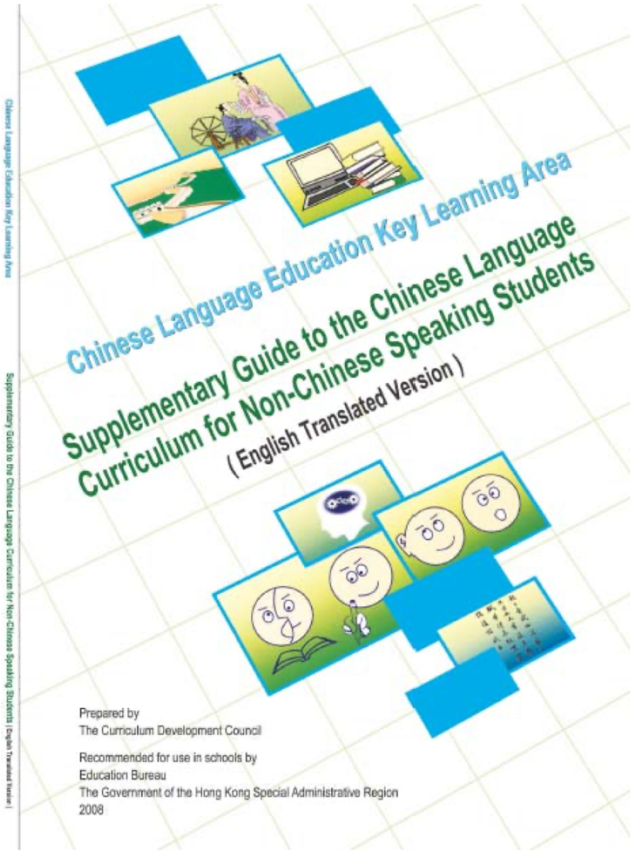




Figure 15 | Curriculum documents for primary and secondary levels

It is noteworthy that these older curriculum guides made no mention of how primary and secondary schools might adapt their school-based Chinese Language curricula with respect to the presence of CAL students, which effectively makes the Supplementary Guide the *first* CAL curriculum document. The Supplementary Guide outlines the government's laissez-faire vision of 'provid[ing] a flexible and robust curriculum framework for schools to adapt their own curriculum in accordance with students' talents and intelligence' (p.7). The framework, as illustrated in Figure 16, is composed of three interconnected domains of (i) learning strands, (ii) generic skills, as well as (iii) values and attitudes, which are then flexibly organised into a curriculum mode adopted from the bottom up by a given school vis-à-vis its school circumstances and student characteristics.

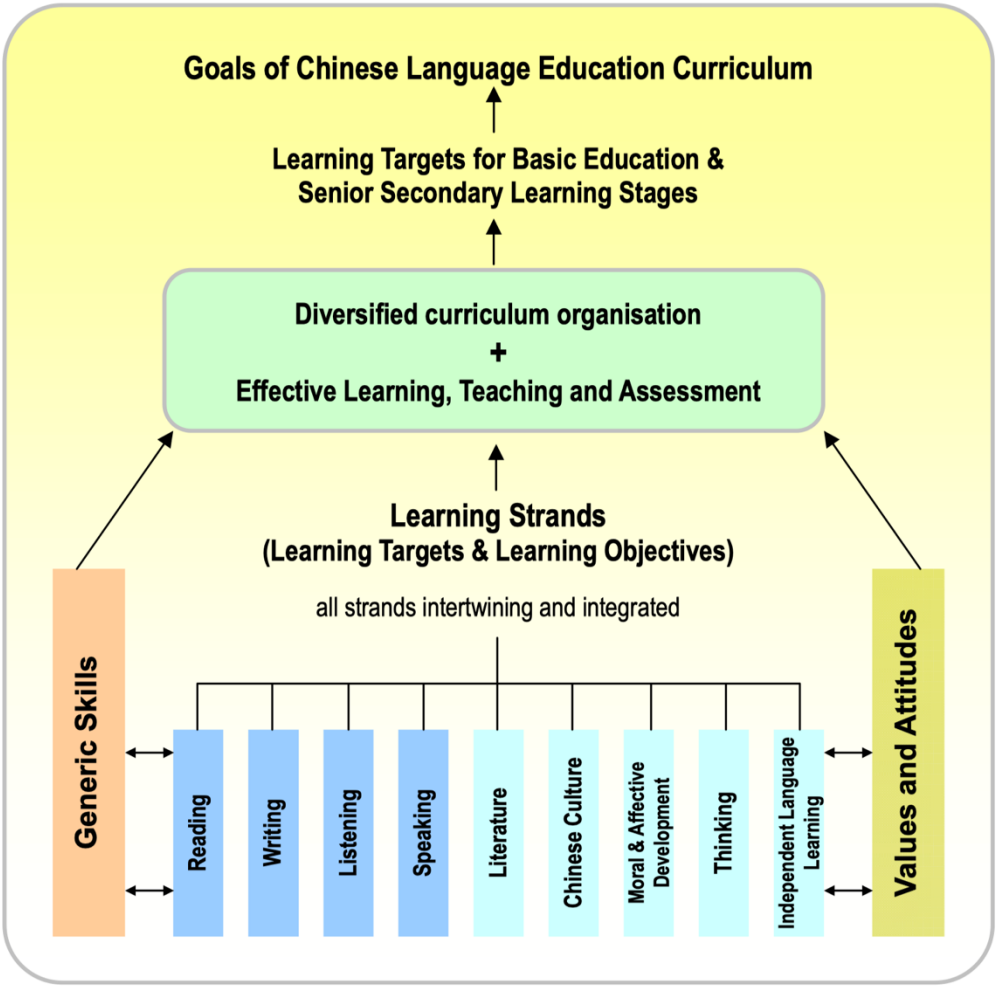


Figure 16 | The Chinese Language Education Curriculum Framework designed by Curriculum Development Council (Source: the Supplementary Guide)

The Supplementary Guide further sets out four major curricular possibilities, which are referred to as 'curriculum modes', that CAL schools might adopt and adapt: (i)

the mode of *immersion in Chinese Language lessons* (targeting locally born CAL students) which 'arrange[s] NCS students in classes with local students and provide[s] them with focused remedial teaching outside lessons' (p.19); (ii) the mode of *transition/bridging* (targeting newly arrived CAL students who arrive in Hong Kong late) which encourages sheltered CAL instruction 'in an intensive [and focused] way' (p.24); (iii) the mode of *specific learning purposes* (targeting CAL students who are transient visitors or returnees) which encourages CAL instruction with a focus on 'the communicative function of the language' (p.30); and (iv) the *integrated* mode (targeting schools with a large spectrum of CAL students from diversified backgrounds) which encourages flexible instructional arrangements with the adoption of 'one or more recommended modes' (p.32). As illustrated in Figure 17, these curriculum modes pave the way for both mainstream Chinese Language qualification (i.e., HKDSE Chinese Language or its precursors) and/or alternative counterparts (i.e., GCSE/IGCSE/GCE).

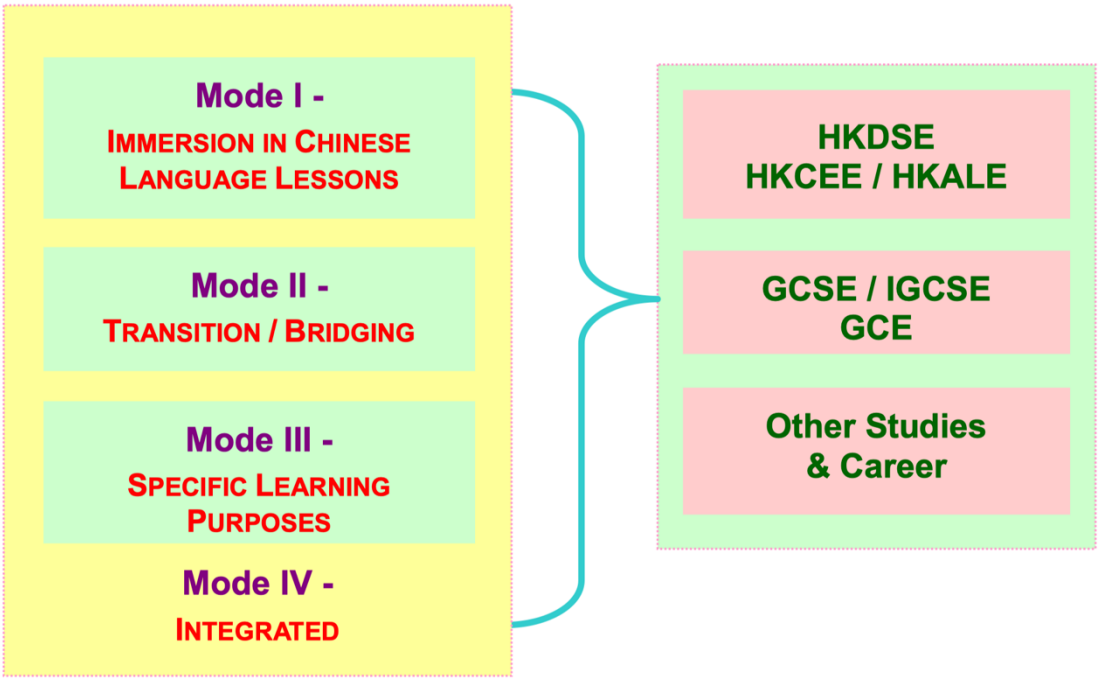


Figure 17 | Curriculum modes and assessments (Source: the Supplementary Guide)

In addition to the 2008 Supplementary Guide, the government has also implemented the Learning Framework since 2014 and subsequently revised it in 2019. Simply put, the Learning Framework is said to be designed from the perspective of second language learners with reference to mainstream curricula for primary and secondary students, categorising learning targets (in domains of reading, writing, listening, and speaking) into eight developmental stages (八階 /baat3 gaai1/), as illustrated in Table 30

Primary levels				Secondary levels			
Lower Primary		Upper Primary		Junior Secondary		Senior Secondary	
Key Stage 1		Key Stage 2		Key Stage 3		Key Stage 4	
Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5	Stage 6	Stage 7	Stage 8

Table 30 | An illustration of the eight developmental stages in the Learning Framework with respect to the mainstream developmental framework

For each learning target identified as crucial in a given developmental stage, the Learning Framework further atomises it into smaller learning targets. For example, as demonstrated in an example published in 2019 by the Curriculum Development Institute of the government (see Figure 18), the mainstream learning target of 'the ability to express events chronologically in Stage 1 is further divided into two learning targets: (i) 'the ability to use time words to talk about the sequence and time of events (e.g. today, yesterday, morning, evening etc.)' and (ii) 'the ability to express events chronologically in the Learning Framework. Through the atomising of a mainstream learning target, which EDB Circular No.8/2014 characterises as a procedure of 'mak[ing] the learning progress of NCS students *more explicit* [emphasis added]', CAL teachers are guided to develop school-based CAL curricula with reference to the mainstream curriculum framework, enabling CAL students to learn Chinese 'with adapted learning pace and steps' (EDB Circular Memorandum No. 25/2019), as suggested in Extract 17

Extract 17

> …with reference to the "Learning Framework", teachers can set progressive learning targets, learning progress and expected learning outcomes in the reading, writing, listening and speaking domains so that their NCS students with diverse learning needs can learn Chinese progressively in a "small-step" approach…
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (31 October 2018)*

In tandem, the Learning Framework is supplemented with 'exemplars of learning tasks, assessment tools, learning materials and teacher notes' (Hong Kong Hansard, 2014, p.8361), and has thus become the basis upon which funding and related support services are utilised. Taken together, although the Learning Framework is 'premised on having no alternative Chinese Language curriculum and public examination with pre-set simpler contents and lower standards' (EDB Circular No.8/2014, p.2), it is

intended 'a "learning Chinese as a second language" curriculum' (p.2), as reiterated in a response by the then Secretary for Education in Extract 18

Extract 18

> Simply put, the Learning Framework can be seen as a "Chinese as a Second Language Curriculum" in the process of learning and teaching under the circumstances that there will be no provision of a simpler Chinese Language syllabus and public examination. The Learning Framework aims to provide a set of progressive, flexible and "small-step" learning objectives to help NCS students learn effectively and to bridg[e] over to mainstream Chinese Language classes as soon as practiceable.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (19 March 2014)*

The government intends the Learning Framework as a blueprint for actualising the rhetoric of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes' through devolved decision-making vis-à-vis CAL instruction. Noticeably, it is positioned not as 'a simplified curriculum' (EDB Circular Memorandum No. 25/2019, p.1), but a learning and teaching framework designed to let CAL students 'learn Chinese progressively in a "small-step" approach' (p.1). Given its centrality as a CAL measure, review work has been ongoing with the collection of 'teachers' views on the "Learning Framework" through school visits and group interviews' (EDB Circular Memorandum No. 25/2019, p.2): as announced in the EDB Circular Memorandum, in view of frontline teachers' general support, as well as their opinion that 'school-based curriculum development takes time to take root' (p.2), the government concludes that 'it is not desirable to make drastic changes to the "Learning Framework"' (p.2). Updates made in 2019 largely serve to 'make [the Learning Framework] more detailed, precise and user-friendly' (p.2).

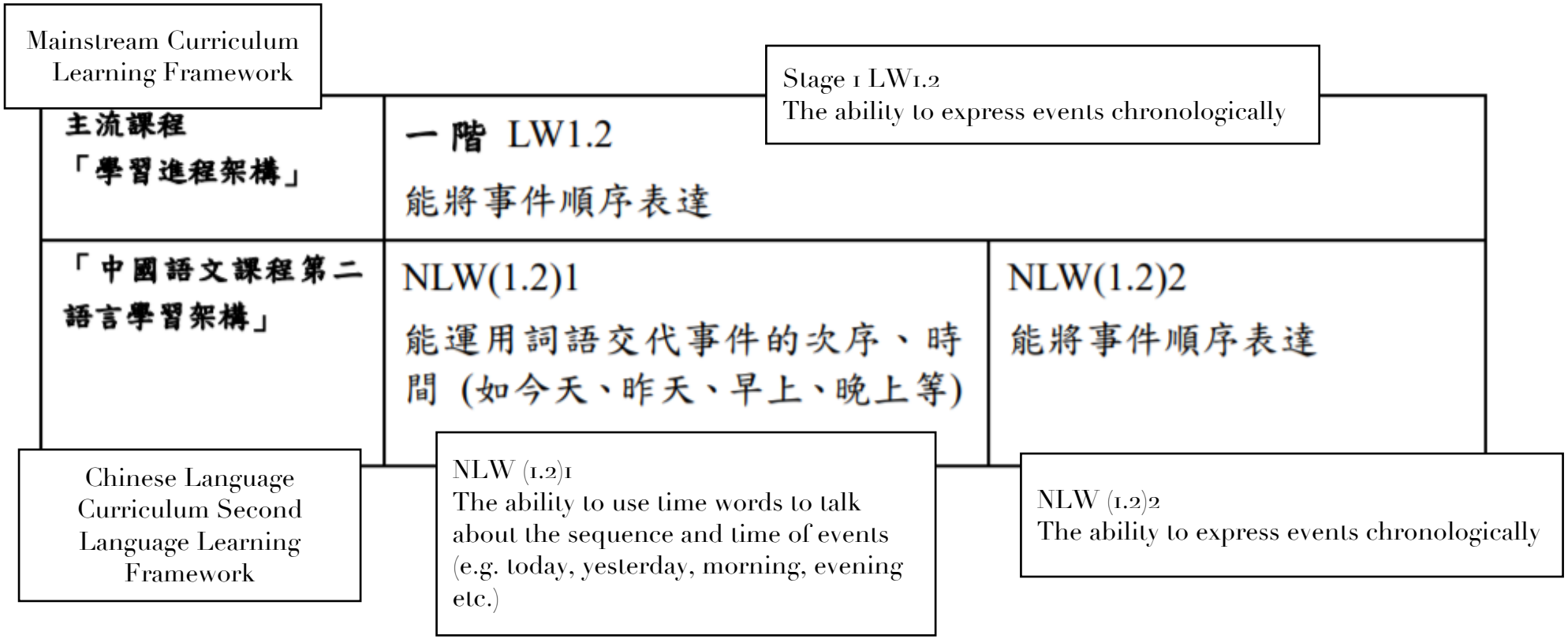


Figure 18 | An example from the Learning Framework (Source: Curriculum Development Institute, 2019)

4.2.2.3. Funding support for schools at primary and secondary levels

Funding support for primary and secondary levels was first provided in the 2006/07 school year as part of a designated provision to a restricted number of primary and secondary schools 'ready to partner with the EDB to develop school-based support measures and share experiences with other schools' (i.e., the policy of 'designated schools') (EDB, 2014, p.4), and has evolved since then into a tiered funding mechanism that enables *all* CAL schools primary and secondary; ordinary and special to 'facilitate [their] implementation of the "Learning Framework" and creation of an inclusive learning environment in schools' (EDB Circular No.8/2020, p.1). The dual objective of CAL-related funding support the facilitation of school-based Chinese learning, and the creation of an inclusive school environment aligns with the funding objective at kindergarten levels.

Among the earliest beneficiaries of the government's CAL funding support were ordinary primary and secondary schools admitting CAL students (see Table 31). Funding support was first made available in the 2006/07 school year to schools on a designated list[22]. This policy of designated funding lasted for seven school years until 2013/14 when the government abolished the policy of 'designated funding' and revised the funding mechanism by providing an additional recurrent funding (ranging from HK$0.3M to $0.6M per annum) to any schools admitting 10 or more CAL students. Starting from the 2014/15 school year, in tandem with the launch of the 2014 Learning Framework, the funding mechanism was ramped up to HK$0.8M to HK$1.5M per annum for any schools admitting ten or more CAL students[23], with a cash grant of HK$0.05M for schools admitting one to nine CAL students on an as-needed basis. From the 2020/21 school year onwards, instead of an as-needed grant of HK$0.05M, funding support for schools admitting only one to nine CAL students has been enhanced to HK$0.15M to HK$0.3M. Taken collectively, since the discontinuation of the measure of designated funding, more CAL schools have benefited from more substantial financial support (see Table 32), which can be taken as evidence of the government's commitment to stepping up financial support to a diverse range of ordinary CAL schools.

[22] According to LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14(02), the formation of the list of designated schools is at the discretion of the EDB with reference to whether a given school admitted a critical mass of CAL students, had experience in serving CAL students, and was ready to partner with the EDB to develop school-based support measures and share experiences with other schools. As such, membership of designated schools was by invitation only.

[23] According to the latest student enrolment statistics published by School Education Statistics Section of the EDB (EDB, 2021), there are 364,257 and 329,011 students in primary and secondary schools respectively. On average, a given primary and secondary school admits around 614 and 650 CAL students respectively.

<table>
<tr><th>Phase 2</th><th colspan="4">Phase 3</th></tr>
<tr><td>2006/07 – 2012/13</td><td colspan="2">2013/14 – 2014/15 – 2019/20</td><td colspan="2">From 2020/21 onwards</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Superseded</td><td colspan="2">In effect</td></tr>
<tr><td><u>Designated</u> provision of an annual additional funding ranging from $300,000 ($0.30 million) to $600,000 ($0.60 million) depending on the number of NCS students admitted.

(Source: LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14/(02))</td><td colspan="2"><table><tr><th>Number of NCS students</th><th>Additional recurrent funding ($million)</th></tr><tr><td>1 – 5</td><td rowspan="2">N/A</td></tr><tr><td>6 – 9</td></tr><tr><td>10 – 30</td><td>0.30</td></tr><tr><td>31 – 60</td><td>0.40</td></tr><tr><td>61 – 90</td><td>0.50</td></tr><tr><td>91 or more</td><td>0.60</td></tr></table>(Source: LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14/(02))</td><td><table><tr><th>Number of NCS students</th><th>Additional recurrent funding ($million)</th></tr><tr><td>1 – 5</td><td rowspan="2">0.05
on an as-needed basis</td></tr><tr><td>6 – 9</td></tr><tr><td>10 – 25</td><td>0.80</td></tr><tr><td>26 – 50</td><td>0.95</td></tr><tr><td>51 – 75</td><td>1.10</td></tr><tr><td>76 – 90</td><td>1.25</td></tr><tr><td>91 or more</td><td>1.50</td></tr></table>(Source: EDB Circular No. 8/2014)</td><td><table><tr><th>Number of NCS students</th><th>Additional recurrent funding ($million)</th></tr><tr><td>1 – 5</td><td>0.15</td></tr><tr><td>6 – 9</td><td>0.30</td></tr><tr><td>10 – 25</td><td>0.80</td></tr><tr><td>26 – 50</td><td>0.95</td></tr><tr><td>51 – 75</td><td>1.10</td></tr><tr><td>76 – 90</td><td>1.25</td></tr><tr><td>91 or more</td><td>1.50</td></tr></table>(Source: EDB Circular No. 8/2020)</td></tr>
</table>

Table 31 | An evolution of funding support to ordinary CAL schools

	Phase 2	**Phase 3**		
	2006/07 – 2012/13	2013/14	2014/15 – 2019/20	From 2020/21 onwards
	Superseded			In effect
Number of CAL schools supported	According to the Hong Kong Hansard on 3 December 2008, there were **22** designated schools from 2006/07 to 2008/09 school years.	According to LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14(02), there were **151** schools funded under the revised mode.	According to LC Paper No. CB(4)1165/16-17(01), there were **233**, **280**, and **391** in 2014/15, 2015/16, and 2016/17 school years respectively.	N/A
Grant to schools with 1 – 9 CAL students ($million)	The exact funding mechanism is not clearly explained with LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14(02) stating that designated schools were provided with 'an annual additional funding ranging from $300,000 to $600,000 depending on the number of NCS students admitted'.	No grant	0.05* *on an as-needed basis*	0.15 to 0.30
Grant to schools with 10 – 90 CAL students ($million)		0.30 to 0.50	0.80 to 1.25	0.80 to 1.25
Grant to schools with 91 CAL students or more ($million)		0.60	1.50	1.50

According to LC Paper No. CB(4)1165/16-17(01), '[t]he number of the schools [applied for the grant in this category] increased from **58** (including 25 primary schools and 33 secondary schools) in the 2014/15 school year to **83** (including 34 primary schools and 49 secondary schools) in the 2015/16 school year and **175** (including 89 primary schools and 86 secondary schools) in the 2016/17 school year*'.

Table 32 | An illustration of the numbers of beneficiaries and the amounts of funding with respect to the number of CAL students admitted

Phase 3

2014/15 – 2018/19 (Superseded)

Number of NCS students	Additional recurrent funding ($million)
1 – 5	0.05 *on an as-needed basis*
6 – 9*	0.65
10 – 25*	0.80
26 – 50*	0.95
51 – 75*	1.10
76 – 90*	1.25
91 or more*	1.50

(Source: EDB Circular No. 8/2014)

From 2020/21 onwards (In effect)

Number of NCS students	Additional recurrent funding ($million)
1 – 5	0.15
6 – 9*	0.65
10 – 25*	0.80
26 – 50*	0.95
51 – 75*	1.10
76 – 90*	1.25
91 or more*	1.50

(Source: EDB Circular No. 8/2020)

**According to EDB Circular No.8/2020, '[t]he additional funding model for special schools admitting 10 or more NCS students and with NCS students taking an ordinary school curriculum is the same as that for ordinary schools' (p.2). It further explains: '[t]he additional funding for special schools admitting 6 or more NCS students but not offering or without any NCS students taking an ordinary school curriculum is $0.65 million' (p.2).*

Table 33 | An evolution of funding support to special CAL schools and CAL students SEN

As for special schools admitting CAL students, funding support was first available in the 2014/15 school year (i.e., a Phase 3 measure) with a funding mechanism similar to the one for ordinary schools, except that special CAL schools admitting 6 to 9 CAL students are entitled to a grant of HK$0.65M. Like the funding arrangements for ordinary schools, starting from the 2020/21 school year, funding support for special schools admitting only one to five CAL students has been raised to HK$0.15M. However, while the tiered funding mechanism for ordinary schools is largely similar to the one for special schools (see Table 33), tiered additional funding for special schools admitting 6 or more NCS students is only applicable to *special schools offering ordinary curriculum*. That is, if a given special school admits six or more CAL students but does not offer the ordinary curriculum, the maximum funding allowable is capped at HK$0.65M. As can be seen from Table 34, a roughly similar number of special CAL schools benefited from an additional funding ranging from $0.65M to $0.80M.

Curriculum	**No of NCS students**	**Additional funding ($ million)**	**2014/15 s. y.**	**2015/16 s.y.**	**2016/17 s.y.**
Adapted	6 or more	0.65	16	19	18
Ordinary	6 9	0.65	4	2	2
	10 25	0.80	3	4	4
		Total:	**23**	**25**	**24**

Table 34 | The number of special CAL schools benefiting from additional recurrent funding (Source: LC Paper No. CB(4)1165/16-17(01))

In addition to the aforementioned grants linked to CAL provision, two cash grants are also identified from policy documents, reflecting the government's intention to provide diversified financial support for initiatives engaging both primary and secondary schools admitting CAL students. First, the NCS-SEN Grant is a 'recurrent cash grant…disbursed under a three-tier structure according to the number of NCS students with SEN enrolled' (EDB Circular No.9/2019, p.2), as illustrated in Table 35. Ranging from $0.10M to $0.3M, the NCS-SEN Grant funds school-based initiatives that address 'adjustment and integration problems with respect to their emotions, communication, socialisation and transition encountered' (p.4). Second, a non-recurrent cash grant of $0.05M was made available in the 2018/19 and 2019/20 school years to 'support teachers in teaching junior secondary NCS students Chinese history and Chinese culture and in conducting learning activities' (EDB Circular Memorandum No. 86/2019, p.2), in hopes of enabling CAL students to learn Chinese History as 'an independent compulsory subject at secondary level' (p.1) using Chinese.

Number of NCS students	The NCS-SEN recurrent cash grant† ($million)
1 – 9	0.10
10 – 25	0.20
26 or more	0.30

† Types of SEN include Specific Learning Difficulties, Intellectual Disability, Autism Spectrum Disorders, etc.

Table 35 | The three tiers of the NCS-SEN Grant (Source: EDB Circular No.9/2019)

As for usage, policy documents for existing grants available to CAL schools, both recurrent and non-recurrent, emphasise flexible deployment. That is, CAL schools may use the grants flexibly for diverse purposes broadly related to either CAL provision (e.g., hiring extra teachers and/or assistants) or other CAL-adjacent uses (e.g., catering to CAL students with SENs or learning Chinese History using Chinese). That said, from statistics published by the Legislative Council Commission (2019), it can be seen that, for the 2019/20 school year, a majority of the CAL schools (n = 464) use the additional funding to hire extra teachers and/or assistants, which accounts for more than 90% of $271 million (around £27.1 million) granted in the 2019/20 school year. Further illustrated from Figure 19, extra personnel are used to enable CAL schools to 'adopt various intensive teaching modes such as after-school consolidation (91%) and pull-out learning (42%)' (Legislative Council Commission, 2019, p.1).

Overall, funding support for schools at primary and secondary levels has evolved over the years, morphing from a measure of funding *designated* CAL schools (i.e., Phase 2), to a measure of democratising financial support to *all* CAL schools (i.e., early years of Phase 3), and maturing into a suite of recurrent and non-recurrent grants for a range of CAL purposes (i.e., recent years of Phase 3). This shift in the mode of financial support suggests that more CAL schools are supported with more expenditure committed.

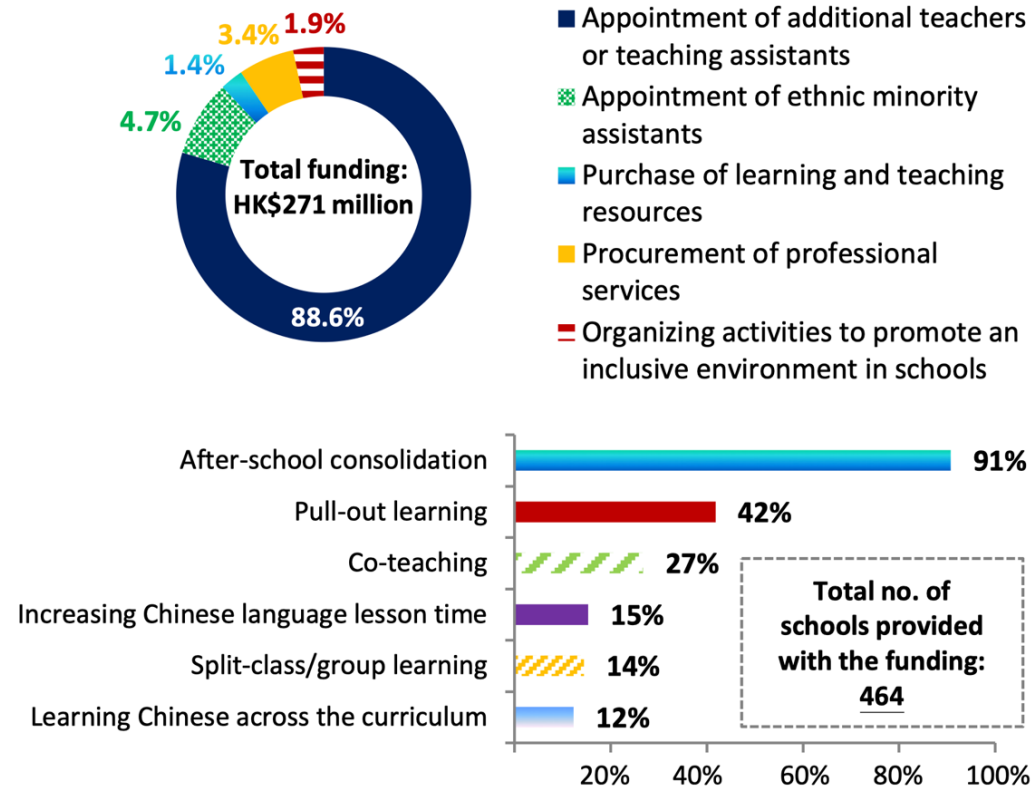


Figure 19 | Use of funding and adoption of teaching modes for NCS students (Source: Legislative Council Commission, 2019)

4.2.2.4. Capacity-building services for primary and secondary teachers

Apart from funding support available to CAL schools at primary and secondary levels, results of QCA also reveal that there exist a range of capacity-building services. Similar to capacity-building programmes at kindergarten levels, programmes targeting primary and secondary levels include both school-based support services (SBSSs) and other CAL professional development programmes. QCA suggests that such capacity-building services have existed prior to the implementation of the 2014 'Learning Framework', for example

Extract 19

> Besides, we also provide these schools with school-based professional support services to learning and teaching (L&T) materials and accumulation of experience for sharing with other schools admitting NCS students, thus benefiting all NCS students.

Source: Hong Kong Hansard (14 November 2012)

As for SBSSs, as shown by Extract 19, SBSSs have been part of a larger strategy to cater for the professional development needs of CAL teachers at primary and secondary levels. Earlier policy documents relating to SBSSs for example, the 2008 and 2010 information papers submitted to the Legislative Council (vide LC Paper No. CB(2)2621/07-08(01) and LC Paper No. CB(2)204/10-11(01)) made no mention of SBSSs for CAL purposes. In Table 36, the earliest SBSSs identified as benefiting the primary and/or secondary sector were a four-year (from 2014 to 2017) University-School Support Programme (USP) for primary schools, and a three-year USP dedicated to kindergarten-primary transition (vide LC Paper No. CB(4)350/13-14(01)). Table 37, systematised from extant EDB circular memoranda pertaining to SBSSs, shows that SBSSs have become a recurring feature of CAL provision since 2014.

As shown in Tables 36 and 37 summarising all eight SBSSs planned for the 2021/22 school year (EDB Circular Memorandum No. 18/2021), existing SBSSs are implemented under diversified modes through 'organised and frequent interactions amongst the school support officers, teachers and school heads as well as exchange and collaboration between professionals and experienced teachers' (p.1), and are coordinated by officers from the following sections within the EDB

1. School-based Professional Support Section;
2. School-based Curriculum Development (Primary) Section;
3. School-based Curriculum Development (Secondary) Section; and
4. Language Learning Support Section.

For the 2021/22 programme of SBSSs, CAL provision has become one of the five core support foci (i.e., a focused cluster of SBSSs related to CAL) and is also a theme across other support foci (i.e., a diffuse presence). Of the eight SBSSs identified as relevant to CAL provision, three belong to the former (see Table 38), which are primarily related to interfacing between key learning stages, whereas five belong to the latter (see Table 39), which concern various support modes (e.g., on-site support, learning communities) facilitating the school-based implementation of the 'Learning Framework'. It is through both focused and diffuse provision that CAL-related SBSSs are implemented across primary and secondary levels. Also, from both Tables 36 and 37, SBSSs targeting the primary levels (n=6) account for 75% of the SBSSs in the 2021/22 school year, suggesting that capacity-building support for primary levels constitutes a major policy intention.

	Beneficiary sectors	Titles of earliest CAL-related University-School Support Programmes*	Service Providers
2014 2017	Primary schools	Accommodating Diversity: Supporting the Learning and Teaching of Chinese Language for NCS Students in Primary Schools (2014-2017)	PolyU Technology and Consultancy Company Limited
2015 2017	Kindergartens & Primary Schools	Effective Student Transition: Facilitating the Learning of the Chinese Language of NCS Kindergarten (K.3) Students in the Transition to Primary School	Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research, Faculty of Education, The University of Hong Kong

* One programme entitled '*Supporting the Learning and Teaching of Mathematics for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students in Secondary Schools*' was excluded.

Table 36 | Earliest CAL-related SBSSs (supported by Education Development Fund) from policy documents

	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	2021/22
Support foci (no. of CAL-related SBSSs)	On-site Professional Support Services (2)	On-site Professional Support Services (2)	On-site Professional Support Services (2)	On-site Professional Support Services (2)	On-site Professional Support Services (3)	On-site Professional Support Services (3)
	Mainland-Hong Kong Teachers Exchange and Collaboration Programme	Mainland-Hong Kong Teachers Exchange and Collaboration Programme	Mainland-Hong Kong Teachers Exchange and Collaboration Programme	Mainland-Hong Kong Teachers Exchange and Collaboration Programme	Mainland-Hong Kong Teachers Exchange and Collaboration Programme	Mainland-Hong Kong Teachers Exchange and Collaboration Programme
	University-School Support Programmes (3)*	University School Support Programmes (1)†	/	Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Tertiary Institutes†	Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Tertiary Institutes§	Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Tertiary Institutes§
	Professional Development Schools Scheme (2)	Professional Development Schools Scheme (2)	Professional Development Schools Scheme (2)	Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Schools (2)	Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Schools (2)	Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks Schools (2)
	/	/	/		Supporting Non-Chinese Speaking Students in Learning Chinese (2)	Supporting Non-Chinese Speaking Students in Learning Chinese (3)
Total no. of CAL SBSSs	(7)	(5)	(4)	(4)	(7)	(8)

* One programme entitled '*Supporting the Learning and Teaching of Mathematics for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students in Secondary Schools*' was excluded.

† One programme entitled '*Supporting the Learning and Teaching of Mathematics for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students in Primary Schools*' was excluded.

§ One programme entitled '*Catering for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Learners in Primary Mathematics Classrooms'* was excluded.

Table 37 | CAL-related SBSSs from the 2016/17 school year to the 2021/22 school year

SBSSs	Levels	Intended objectives
Growth with ease: Effective learning and teaching of Chinese and smooth transition for multicultural students	Primary	▪ To enhance teachers' professional capacity for teaching Chinese to NCS students ▪ To facilitate the smooth transition of NCS students from kindergarten to primary education
Enhancing the learning and teaching of Chinese for NCS students in primary schools	Primary	▪ To provide school-based professional support services to primary schools on enhancing teachers' effectiveness of teaching Chinese to NCS students
Empowerment and transition supporting teachers to promote multicultural students' Chinese learning in primary and secondary schools	Primary & Secondary	▪ To enhance the professional capacity of teachers who teach NCS students as well as develop leadership in school-based curriculum development ▪ To enhance the Chinese ability of NCS students so as to facilitate a smooth transition from primary to secondary education

Table 38 | A summary of CAL support services at primary and secondary levels for the 2021/22 school year in the support focus of 'Supporting Non-Chinese Speaking Students in Learning Chinese'

SBSSs	Levels	Intended objectives
Enhancing support for teaching Chinese to non-Chinese speaking students	Primary	▪ To enhance support for teaching Chinese to NCS students, including the effective use of the "Learning Framework" and related assessment tools to set progressive learning targets and expected learning outcomes for NCS students to support their transition to mainstream Chinese Language classes ▪ To enhance the professional capacity of teachers to teach NCS students
Learning community for primary school teachers supporting NCS students in learning Chinese	Primary	▪ To explore effective learning and teaching strategies to enhance the professional capacities of teachers in teaching Chinese Language to NCS students ▪ To facilitate professional exchange among participating schools
Enhancing NCS students' ability to learn Chinese Language through designing and adapting the school-based curriculum *(Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks)*	Primary	▪ To enhance the effectiveness of learning Chinese Language of NCS students through the refinement of the school-based curriculum planning, learning and teaching strategies, and assessment tools
Enhancing support for teaching Chinese to non-Chinese speaking students	Secondary	▪ To enhance support for teaching Chinese to NCS students, including the effective use of the "Learning Framework" and related assessment tools to set progressive learning targets and expected learning outcomes for NCS students to support their transition to mainstream Chinese Language classes ▪ To enhance the professional capacity of teachers to teach NCS students
Enhancing Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students' Ability to Learn Chinese Language through Designing and Adapting the School-based Curriculum	Secondary	▪ To support Participating Schools to develop the curriculum leadership in the learning and teaching of Chinese for NCS students with reference to the 'Learning Framework' and other resources ▪ To enhance the professional capacity of teachers in teaching Chinese for NCS students ▪ To develop appropriate learning and teaching materials, consolidate experience and establish the professional learning community of Chinese teachers of NCS students ▪ To provide appropriate learning activities for NCS students to enhance their Chinese proficiency, assist them in understanding the Chinese culture and cope with different levels of public examinations

Table 39 | A summary of CAL support services at primary and secondary levels for the 2021/22 school year in other support foci

Extract 20

> …the EDB has been organising diversified and advanced professional development programmes for teachers to ensure that all teachers are provided with adequate training opportunities to enhance their professional capability in teaching Chinese as a second language. Teachers can apply knowledge and teaching strategies learnt in the professional development programmes to any lesson mode…

Source: Hong Kong Hansard (30 November 2016)

Apart from SBSSs, as evinced by Extract 20, the government has also launched a grant scheme subsidising Chinese Language teachers including CAL teachers to enrol in 'structured part-time programmes on teaching Chinese to NCS students' (p.2, EDB Circular Memorandum No. 21/2019). This grant scheme, Professional Enhancement Grant Scheme for Chinese Language Teachers (Teaching Chinese as a Second Language) managed by SCOLAR, has been in place since the 2014/15 school year when the 'Learning Framework' was launched, with a two-tiered subsidy model: (i) a basic subsidy upon successful completion of an approved programme of study, which has been raised from 30% to 50% of the tuition fee with effect from the 2019/20 school year; and (ii) an extra subsidy of 30% of the tuition fee subject to continuous service in a CAL school for a total of three years within the five years upon successful completion of the programme of study. However, applicants interested in the grant may only opt for a small pool of recognised programmes of study 'lead[ing] to an academic award in the form of a Postgraduate Certificate, Postgraduate Diploma and/or Master's Degree in part-time mode' (p.3, EDB Circular Memorandum No. 21/2019) (see Table 40).

"Professional Enhancement Grant Scheme for Chinese Language Teachers (Teaching Chinese as a Second Language)"
Recognised Programmes

	Institution	Programme
1.	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University	Master of Arts in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (With a Specialism in Teaching Chinese as a Second Language in Hong Kong Schools) [MATCFL(HKS)] (Part-time mode) Curriculum revised http://www.cbs.polyu.edu.hk/MAPgDTCFL(HKS).html
2.	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University	Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (With a Specialism in Teaching Chinese as a Second Language in Hong Kong Schools) [PgDTCFL(HKS)] (Part-time mode) Curriculum revised http://www.cbs.polyu.edu.hk/MAPgDTCFL(HKS).html
3.	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University	Master of Arts in Chinese Language and Literature (With a Specialism in Chinese Language Teaching for Teachers of Non-Chinese Speaking Students) [MACLL(TNCS)] (Part-time mode) Curriculum revised http://www.cbs.polyu.edu.hk/MACLL(TNCS).html

Notes:

1. The relevant tertiary education institution is required to formally advise the Education Bureau (EDB) of any changes to the programmes listed above. If EDB is not informed of such changes, the programmes concerned will not be recognised under this Scheme.

2. EDB will regularly review and revise the above list as appropriate.

Table 40 | Recognised Programme List for Professional Enhancement Grant Scheme for Chinese Language Teachers (Teaching Chinese as a Second Language) for the 2021/22 school year (Source: scolarhk.edb.hkedcity.net)

4.2.2.5. Non-formal support services for primary and secondary schools

A unique cluster of policy decisions at primary and secondary levels concerns inter-school support services. Totally, as summarised in Table 41, four inter-school programmes for CAL students across primary and secondary levels are identified: (i) Chinese Language Learning Support Centres (CLLSC), (ii) Summer Bridging Programme (SBP), (iii) Induction Programme (IndP), and (iv) Initiation Programme (IniP), as summarised in Table 41. The former two programmes aim at offering remedial CAL-oriented support alongside formal CAL instruction, whereas the latter two counterparts concern readiness-based support for newly arrived students. All four programmes are similar because they offer different kinds of remedial CAL support through non-formal means, a form of education that is 'institutionalised, intentional and planned by an education provider' (UNESCO, 2012, p.11), and that constitutes 'an addition, alternative and/or complement to formal education' (p.11). What is perhaps noteworthy is that these non-formal programmes, especially those for newly arrived and returnee children, are some of the earliest policy intentions involving CAL students, and are an enduring feature of the government's CAL policy.

CLLSC is a remedial CAL-focused programme for primary and secondary minority students. As shown in Extract 21, the central aim of setting up CLLSC is to complement other CAL efforts as a student-oriented initiative. Hence, CLLSC is positioned as a non-formal channel through which further remedial support, in the form of tutorial classes, is offered.

Extract 21

> Apart from assisting schools to develop their school-based Chinese curriculum by making suitable adaptations to the central Chinese Language Curriculum Guide, we are exploring the feasibility of running Chinese Language Learning Support Centre(s) with the assistance of post-secondary institutions, for the purpose of providing further support for NCS students in the learning of Chinese. Tutorial classes may be arranged after school and/or during school holidays in the Chinese Language Learning Support Centre(s).
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (12 July 2006)*

Since 2007, CLLSC has been commissioned to TEIs, with around 20 centres being run in various districts in Hong Kong. As revealed in Extract 22, although CLLSC is

operated by a local TEL, centres are predominantly based in local schools. Through CLLSC, close collaboration formed between a TEI and local schools helps encourage participation of CAL students and deepen knowledge of CAL students' progress in Chinese.

	Chinese Language Learning Support Centres (CLLSC)	Summer Bridging Programme (SBP)	Induction Programme (IndP)	Initiation Programme (IniP)
Commencement	2007	2004	2000	2002
Target groups	CAL students of primary and secondary levels	▪ CAL students at Primary 1, 2, 3, and 4 (since 2007) ▪ CAL parents (since 2013)	Newly arrived CAL students aged 6 to 18	Newly arrived CAL children before enrolment in a mainstream school
Fee	Free of charge			
Funding	Governmental funding from EDB			
Operators	CLLSC is commissioned to a TEI in collaboration with local schools.	SBP is organised by local primary schools or in collaboration with NGOs.	IndP is run by NGOs.	IniP is run by local primary and secondary schools.
Time and/or duration	The classes are conducted on weekdays, Saturday mornings, and during the summer vacation.	Each SBP should last no less than 60 hours within the summer holidays.	Each class of IndP lasts for 60 hours and can be operated during daytime, evening of weekdays or weekends.	IniP commences in September and March each year. A given programme lasts for six months.
Class size	Each centre operates one to two classes with a class size of around 15 students.	The average class size is about 15 participants per class.	Classes are conducted in small group of 10-15 children.	The size of each class is around 20.
Scale	There are around **20** centres (with **two** classes per centre) in operation in various districts each school year.	For 2017, a total of 1371 CAL students and 147 parents participated, with **107** classes.	For the 4th quarter of the 2020/21 school year, there are **six** centres operating IndP.	For the 2020/21 school year, IniP is operated by **two** primary schools and **one** secondary school.
Content	Programme content is CAL-focused and remedial in nature.	Programme content for CAL students and their parents is CAL-focused and school-based.	Programme content includes personal development, social adaptation and basic learning skills.	Programme content includes both academic and non-academic elements, including language and study skills.

Table 41 | A summary of all inter-school programmes for CAL children and/or students

Extract 22

> …the university commissioned by the Education Bureau operated a total of 24 centres, with all (except one) being located in individual schools. As such, these centres collaborate closely with the schools to encourage participation of NCS students who are in need of such support and have a more in-depth understanding of students' progress in learning Chinese for developing the course contents appropriate to their learning needs…

Source: Hong Kong Hansard (2 December 2018)

As for SBP, it is positioned as a CAL-focused programme targeting CAL students at lower primary levels. It was first introduced in 2004 to bridge Primary One entrants with CAL needs (i.e., kindergarten-primary transition), then extended in 2007 to cover CAL students at Primary Two, Primary Three, and Primary Four levels (i.e., interfacing between lower primary and upper primary), and expanded in 2013 to serve parents of participating students for 'more effective learning of Chinese with parent support' (EDB Circular Memorandum No. 73/2015, p.1). Intended as a 60-hour programme within the summer holidays, SBP offers both CAL-focused instruction as well as site visits to encourage early integration.

As highlighted above, there also exist two non-formal programmes serving newly arrived CAL children. On one hand, IndP caters to newly arrived children aged 6 to 18, offering a programme of no less than 60 hours of readiness instruction enabling newly arrived CAL children to adapt better to a formal school setting. IndP is usually operated by NGOs. On the other hand, IniP caters specifically to newly arrived children prior to enrolment in formal education. For a period of six months' attachment in a local school setting, newly arrived children are exposed to a range of academic and non-academic strategies and skills necessary for formal schooling in Hong Kong. For this reason, IniP is usually commissioned to local primary and secondary schools. A leaflet of IniP can be found in Figure 20. Both IndP and IniP serve newly arrived CAL students at primary and secondary levels.



Figure 20 | A leaflet advertising the Initiation Programme for newly arrived CAL students

4.2.2.6. Widen school access, information dissemination and exhortation

While kindergarten admission is entirely school-based, admission to primary and secondary schools in the public sector is centrally coordinated by the EDB. Hence, the widening of primary school choices (i.e., Primary One Admission), a policy measure put in place since 2004, was a far-reaching policy move impacting formal education for CAL students. Prior to this policy measure, given the special learning needs of most CAL students (i.e., inability to use Chinese as a learning medium), prospective CAL students might opt for schools from a narrow list of schools traditionally admitting more CAL students. After 2004, arrangements have been revised 'to allow all NCS students, like their Chinese-speaking counterparts, to choose only the school in their residing school net under Part B of the Central Allocation so that all of them would benefit from an immersed Chinese language environment of the "mainstream" schools to facilitate their early adaptation to the local education system and integration into the community' (EDB, 2017, pp. 4–5). Yet, considering the radical nature of the 2004 mainstreaming measure, the Primary One Admission policy has been further revised in 2005 into its present form, allowing CAL parents to opt for mainstream primary schools, as well as 'primary schools traditionally admitting more NCS students in other school nets' (p.4), as seen in Extract 23 taken from the EDB's website

Extract 23

> But if parents indicate in the "Application Form for Admission to Primary One" that their child cannot use Chinese as a learning medium, they can choose any schools in their residing school net in Category B as well as schools from any school nets which traditionally have a higher intake of NCS students.
>
> *Source: edb.gov.hk*

During Phase 2 when a policy of 'designated school' was in place, parental decisions between mainstream schools and designated counterparts might be shaped by the fact that designated schools might receive additional funding for more targeted CAL instruction, which was a determining factor in the kind of formal schooling (including CAL instruction) available to CAL students. After abolishing the 'designated school' policy, with the introduction of the 'Learning Framework' and the revised funding arrangements, parental choices – albeit less shaped by the preferential funding arrangements afforded to 'designated schools' – continue to matter and are the focus of an information-based and exhortative campaign.

QCA indicates that the intent of the information-based and exhortative campaign has been to 'encourage parents of NCS students to send their children to schools with an immersed Chinese language environment as early as possible to facilitate their mastery of the Chinese language while the government ensures equal opportunities in school admission for all eligible children, including NCS children, in public sector schools' (Hong Kong Hansard, 27 March 2017, p.5753).

Existing strategies under the campaign are: (i) the creation and distribution of *The Non-Chinese Speaking Parent Information Package: Your Guide to Education in Hong Kong* in multiple languages and DVD format, which disseminates information related to education policies and education services to non-Chinese speaking parents; (ii) the availability of multilingual versions of key school arrangements (e.g., admission to Primary One and Secondary One, financial assistance, and parental tips) (see Figure 21); (iii) the organisation of dedicated briefing sessions with simultaneous interpretation services for CAL parents; (iv) the refinement of the School Profiles by publishing the English printed version and including a dedicated column titled "Education Support for NCS Students"; (v) the setting up of a dedicated webpage and hotline (with simultaneous interpretation services) for CAL-related issues and enquiries; and (vi) the mandate of further information dissemination (e.g. open days, support measures for CAL students) on 'school webpages for parents' reference' (EDB Circular No. 8/2020, p.7).

Take the example of the School Profiles whose objective has been to offer essential school information that enables parents to make informed school choices. Although the need for the School Profiles has long existed for CAL parents, relevant information dissemination efforts are relatively recent, as evinced in Extracts 24 and 25

Extract 24

> …starting from the 2015/16 school year, each K3 and P6 NCS student can obtain a copy of the English version of the School Profiles which can help their parents grasp the basic information of all public sector schools in their selected district. The EDB has encouraged schools to keep on enriching the contents of their Profiles and school websites.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (29 March 2017)*

Extract 25

> To enhance the transparency of schools' deployment of the additional funding to provide relevant support measures, and to provide parents of NCS students with more comprehensive information on making school choices, starting from 2018/19, a separate column on "Education Support for NCS Students" has been added to the School Profiles for schools to provide key information on their support for NCS students.
>
> *Source: EDB Circular No. 8/2020*

From both, the English version of the School Profiles was only available from the 2015/16 school year, with a dedicated column added only from the 2018/19 school year onwards. Both updates have been put in place sometime after the implementation of the 'Learning Framework'.



Figure 21 | A pamphlet titled '*Tips for Parents of Non-Chinese Speaking Students (Primary)*' in Urdu

4.2.2.7. Alternative Chinese Language qualifications

Parallel to the implementation of the 'Learning Framework' is the policy measure of 'alternative qualifications in Chinese Language' (ACL) for CAL learners, which is an early feature of CAL policies and is rhetorically linked to the discourse of 'articulation to multiple pathways' at senior secondary levels (see Extract 26)

Extract 26

> As for senior secondary levels, schools have due regard to students' needs, aspirations and capabilities to devise the teaching medium for various senior secondary subjects to facilitate students' articulation to multiple pathways.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (9 July 2014)*

In order to enable CAL students to 'enjoy better opportunities for access to higher education' (Legislative Council Secretariat, 2009, p.6), the measure of ACL can be traced back to a series of policy decisions related to creating alternative exit-point Chinese Language assessments for CAL students: (i) the 2007 administration of the GCSE (Chinese) via the Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority (HKEAA) (i.e., availability of an alternative to the precursors of HKDSE Chinese Language); (ii) the 2010 measure of subsidising the examination fee of GCSE (Chinese) for CAL students at senior secondary levels (i.e., financial incentive to opt for ACL); (iii) the 2012/13 expansion of the fee remission scheme to include IGCSE, GCE AS-Level, and GCE A-Level (i.e., expansion of ACL); and (iv) the 2014/15 introduction of Applied Learning Chinese (for non-Chinese speaking students) (ApL(C)) as an alternative Chinese Language qualification (i.e., further expansion of ACL). Together, from the administration and subsidisation of overseas Chinese Language examination to the introduction and expansion of ApL(C), ACL as a policy measure has matured over different phases of CAL policies, as summarised in Extract 27

Extract 27

> …in view of the fact that NCS students at senior levels may have learned Chinese for a varying period of time and some NCS students who have a late start in learning Chinese may encounter greater difficulties, starting from the 2014-2015 school year, ApL(C) has been introduced at the senior secondary levels to provide NCS students with an additional channel to obtain an alternative Chinese Language

> qualification to prepare them for further studies and career pursuits. Besides, eligible NCS students are provided with subsidy to obtain internationally recognized alternative Chinese Language qualifications, including those under GCSE, IGCSE and GCE for admission to the University Grants Committee-funded universities and post-secondary institutions.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (31 October 2018)*

At present, HKDSE Chinese Language, introduced in 2012, is the only mainstream Chinese Language qualification in Phase 3 and is thus set as an admission requirement for higher education. As suggested in Table 42 drawn from statistics pertaining to HKDSE Chinese Language, although there exists a subgroup of CAL students opting for HKDSE Chinese Language as their exit-point Chinese Language qualification (around 0.1% to 0.2% of all day-school students; and averaged around 14% of all CAL students taking the HKDSE Examination), the proportion of CAL students sitting for HKDSE Chinese Language has roughly halved from around 19% in 2012 to around 10% in 2017. Also, the attainment rates of Level 3 or above (a passing grade for the examination) for CAL students taking the HKDSE Chinese Language are consistently lower than those for all day-school counterparts roughly by half.

As an alternative to the mainstream, high-stakes HKDSE Chinese Language, the policy measure of ACL consisting of both overseas Chinese Language qualifications and ApL(C) presents eligible CAL students with additional means of satisfying the minimum admission requirement for Chinese Language via the Joint University Programmes Admission System[24] (JUPAS). Eligible CAL students are students who (i) 'have learnt Chinese language for less than 6 years while receiving primary and secondary education', or (ii) 'have learnt Chinese language for 6 years or more in schools, but have been taught an adapted and simpler curriculum not normally applicable to the majority of applicants in local schools' (JUPAS, 2021). The former eligible criterion applies mostly to newly-arrived CAL students in their adolescence, whereas the latter is a broad category that encompasses both locally-born and newly-arrived CAL students.

[24] JUPAS, implemented since 1990, is a unified system for admission to higher education in Hong Kong. In order to participate in JUPAS, which is 'the main route of application designed' for local students (JUPAS, 2021), applicants from local schools need to obtain valid HKDSE results to be considered for admission to either government-funded (i.e., University Grants Committee-funded) or self-financing bachelor's programmes in Hong Kong. Non-local applicants (including those without HKDSE results, for example local students from international schools) are not eligible to apply via JUPAS. According to the website of HKEAA, '[s]tudents taking the HKDSE have to attain a minimum of level 3 for Chinese Language and English Language and level 2 for Mathematics and Liberal Studies (i.e., 3322)' (HKEAA, 2021).

For ACL via overseas qualifications accredited by UK-based awarding bodies (i.e., AQA, Cambridge, CIE, Edexcel, OCR), GCSE and the like (i.e., IGCSE and GCE) are administered via HKEAA and subsidised by public funds 'at a level on par with the examination fee of the…HKDSE' (EDB Circular Memorandum No.97/2010, p.2). As indicated in EDB Circular No. 19/2012, CAL students are eligible for up to four entries of examination fee remission for these overseas Chinese Language examinations and are encouraged to take the HKDSE Chinese Language examination alongside their local counterparts. Local experts (notably Kapai, 2014; see also Ullah, 2012) estimate that attainments in these overseas Chinese Language qualifications are roughly equivalent to Primary Three in local schools, which suggests that ACL by overseas qualifications has significantly lowered the language requirement for higher education via JUPAS. QCA does not identify any policy intentions of phasing out this mode of ACL.

	2012	2013	2014*	2015	2016	2017	$\bar{x}$
All day-school students sitting HKDSE Chinese Language	69725	69150	64540	60305	55115	50108	61491
% of all day-school students attaining Level 3 or above**	49.0%	51.5%	50.7%	52.6%	55.2%	54.5%	52.3%
No. of CAL students sitting the HKDSE Examination	510	568	731	830	1046	1072	793
No. of CAL students sitting HKDSE Chinese Language	95	120	113	97	116	106	108
% of CAL students sitting HKDSE Chinese Language against all day-school students	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%
% of CAL students sitting HKDSE Chinese Language against its own population	18.6%	21.2%	15.5%	11.7%	11.1%	9.9%	14.7%
% of CAL students attaining Level 3 or above**	23.2%	30.8%	23.9%	21.6%	27.6%	26.4%	25.6%

*2014 is the year when the measure of 'designated schooling' was abolished.

**Level 3 is considered as a pass in the HKDSE (Chinese Language) Examination.

Table 42 | Statistics related to multiple pathways in Chinese Language qualifications (Source: Hong Kong Hansard, 17 January 2018; and examination reports of 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, and 2017)

As for ACL via ApL(C), which is developed as a Category B subject[25] under the umbrella of the HKDSE Examination[26], a total three ApL(C) courses[27] 'Chinese for Service Industry', 'Practical Chinese in Hospitality', and 'Chinese in Business Service' (newly added for the 2018-20 cohort) are offered as part of the initiative to 'provide an additional channel exclusively for non-Chinese speaking… students fulfilling the specified circumstances to obtain an alternative Chinese language qualification to prepare them for further studies and career pursuits' (EDB Circular Memorandum No.174/2019, p.2), with a focus on 'beginners' skill set of relevant professional and vocational fields' (p.3). Given that ApL(C) is by design part of the HKDSE Examination, 'NCS students [should] only take and register for either Chinese Language (Category A) or ApL(C) (Category B) in the HKDSE Examination' (p.10). ApL(C) is reported in two levels "Attained" and "Attained with Distinction" that are 'comparable to Level 2 and Level 3 or above of the Category A subjects respectively of [the] HKDSE Examination' (p.3). Under ACL via ApL(C), CAL students completing an ApL(C) programme with "Attained" satisfy the minimum grade required for JUPAS, which means that the admission requirement has been lowered to Level 2 for CAL students opting for ApL(C) at senior secondary levels.

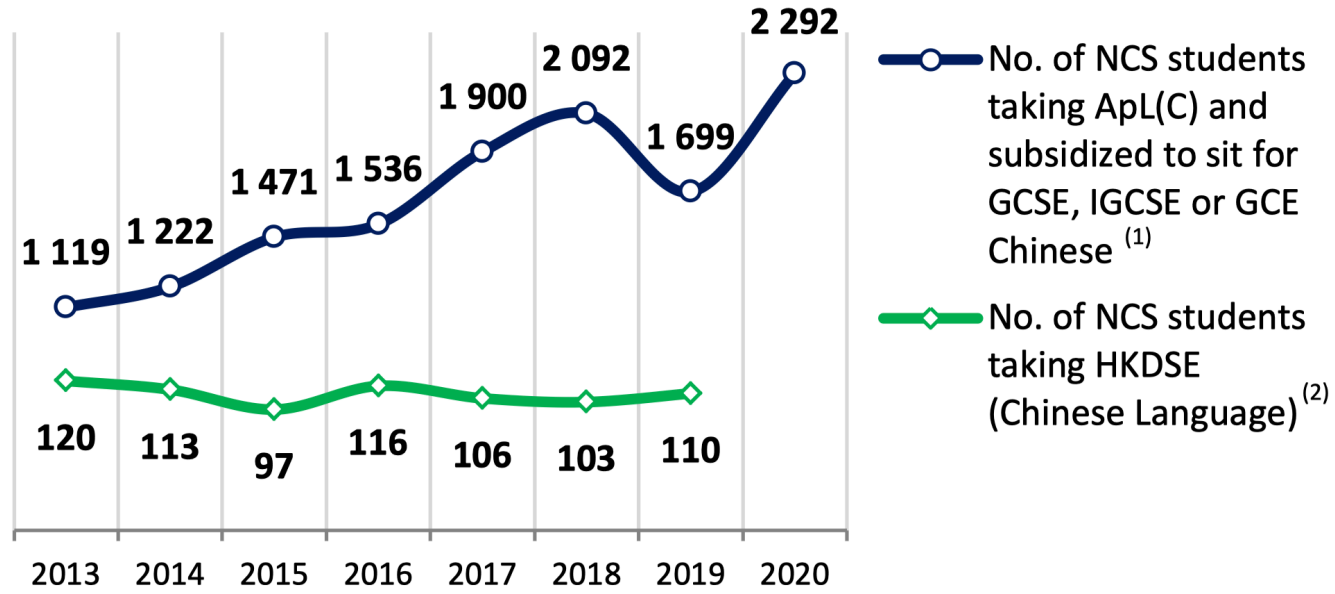
With the proportion of HKDSE Chinese Language-taking CAL students halving over the years (see Table 42), extant statistics published in Hong Kong Hansard (17 January 2018) and by Legislative Council Secretariat (2020) further illustrate the trend that ACL is becoming a preferred option of Chinese Language qualifications, as evinced by (i) the steadily rising numbers of ApL(C)-taking CAL students from 131 in 2017 to 178 in 2020 (see Table 43); and (ii) a doubling of the number of CAL students opting for ACL from 1119 in 2013 to 2292 in 2020 (see Figure 22). As inferred from Table 44, the proportion of CAL students opting for ACL has been consistently high, accounting for almost 90% of all HKDSE Examination-taking CAL students in 2017.

[25] HKDSE Chinese Language is a Category A subject under the HKDSE Examination.
[26] The introduction of ApL(C) can be traced back to a response in Hong Kong Hansard (12 July 2006) when the then Secretary for Education promised: 'we will enhance the access of [CAL students] to the Career-oriented Curriculum piloting in secondary schools and the future Career-oriented Studies under the new senior secondary curriculum…' (p.9467).
[27] These courses are renamed as 'Chinese in Business Service', 'Chinese in Practical Context', and 'Practical Chinese' for the 2019-21, 2020-22, and 2021-23 cohorts.

	2017			2018			2019			2020			
	A	B ApL(C)		A	B ApL(C)		A	B ApL(C)		A	B ApL(C)		
	CL†	S‡	H§	CL†	S‡	H§	CL†	S‡	H§	CL†	S‡	H§	B††
Total no. of NCS test-takers taking HKDSE Exam*	1072			N/A			N/A			N/A			
No. of NCS test-takers	106	89	42	103	97	24	110	112	40	N/A	90	40	48
% of NCS test-takers	9.9%	8.3%	3.9%	N/A			N/A			N/A			
% of Level 3 or above / 'Attained with Distinction'	26.4%	19.1%	21.4%	N/A	29.9%	20.8%	N/A	25.0%	27.5%	N/A	26.9%	12.5%	25.0%
% of Level 2 / 'Attained'	N/A	77.5%	50%	N/A	61.9%	62.5%	N/A	71.4%	50%	N/A	66.2%	65.0%	75%
% of 'Unattained'	N/A	3.4%	28.6%	N/A	8.2%	16.7%	N/A	3.6%	22.5%	N/A	6.9%	22.5%	0.0%

†CL stands for the HKDSE Chinese Language (Category A) examination.
‡S stands for the subject of 'Chinese for the Service Industry' as part of Applied Learning Chinese (Category B).
§H stands for the subject of 'Practical Chinese in Hospitality' as part of Applied Learning Chinese (Category B).
††B stands for the subject of 'Chinese in Business Service' as part of Applied Learning Chinese (Category B), introduced for the 2018-20 cohort.
*The total number of NCS students (from public sector and Direct Subsidy Scheme schools offering the local curriculum) who sit the HKDSE Examination, which is an indicator of the number of NCS students from local schools at the exit point of secondary schooling in that year

Table 43 | Chinese Language outcomes for CAL students in the year of 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2020 (Source: Hong Kong Hansard, 17 January 2018; Statistical highlights from the Legislative Council Commission; and examination statistics published in 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2020 published by Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority)



Notes: (1) The first ApL(C) examinations took place in 2017.
(2) There is no information available on the number of NCS students taking HKDSE (Chinese Language) in 2020.

Figure 22 | Number of NCS Students sitting for alternative Chinese Language examinations (Source: Legislative Council Secretariat, 2020)

	2012	2013	2014*	2015	2016	2017
No. of CAL students sitting the HKDSE Exam	510	568	731	830	1046	1072
No. of CAL students sitting HKDSE Chinese Language (%)	95 (18.6)	120 (21.2)	113 (15.5)	97 (11.7)	116 (11.1)	106 (9.9)
No. of CAL students opting for ApL(C) (%)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	131 (12.2)
Inferred no. of CAL students opting for overseas qualifications (%)†	415 (81.4)	448 (78.8)	618 (84.5)	733 (88.3)	930 (88.9)	835 (77.9)

*2014 is the year when the measure of 'designated schooling' was abolished.

†The inferred numbers of CAL students opting for overseas qualifications are calculated by the difference between the total numbers of CAL students sitting the HKDSE Examination (i.e. the total numbers of CAL students intent to acquire the HKDSE qualifications for work and/or further studies) and the numbers of CAL students sitting HKDSE Chinese Language (i.e. the numbers of CAL students opting for the mainstream qualification).

Table 44 | Proportions of students opting for HKDSE Chinese Language and ACL (Source: Hong Kong Hansard, 17 January 2018; and examination reports of 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, and 2017)

When questioned at a 2018 Legislative Council meeting if the government intended to introduce a Chinese-as-a-Second-Language qualification, the government responded

Extract 28

> Students, Chinese speaking or NCS students alike, are required to meet the admission requirements as they apply for programmes offered by local or overseas post-secondary institutions. If a separate paper with simpler contents and lower benchmarks is provided for NCS students in HKDSE (Chinese Language), it is neither conducive to enhancing their Chinese proficiency nor to increasing their opportunities for further studies. In respect of employment, different industries have different language proficiency requirements for their employees. Nevertheless, as Hong Kong is a Chinese society, NCS students have to attain a certain level of Chinese proficiency in the long run in order to stay competitive in the workplace. Similarly, introducing a separate public examination or paper in HKDSE (Chinese Language) for NCS students cannot increase their employment opportunities. Instead, this will possibly delay the problem until the job-seeking stage or even limit their career development in different industries in the future. Therefore, the EDB has no such plans.
>
> *Source: Hong Kong Hansard (31 October 2018)*

Extract 28 demonstrates the government's intention of standing by the current measure of ACL with no intention of introducing a separate Chinese Language examination for CAL students. That is, the current measure of ACL via overseas Chinese Language qualifications and/or ApL(C) is deemed adequate as part of the CAL policies in Phase 3. Yet, despite the prevailing measure of ACL, 'there is still a noticeable gap in the admission [and attendance] rate[s] between NCS students and the overall student population' (Legislative Council Secretariat, 2020, p.2), as evinced by the census data (see Table 45) and the statistics published by the Legislative Council Secretariat (see Figure 23). Also, given ACL's emphasis on beginners' language skills in

Chinese, it is not clear how CAL students holding these qualifications can compete alongside ethnic Chinese peers on an equal footing in the job market.

	Age groups (excluding foreign domestic helpers) (%)							
	3 5		6 11		12 17		18 24	
	*EM**	*WP***	*EM*	*WP*	*EM*	*WP*	*EM*	*WP*
2006	83.9	89.1	99.5	99.9	96.7	96.9	36.1	44.7
2011	86.9	91.3	100.0	100.0	96.6	97.1	38.4	50.3
2016	90.7	92.5	100.0	100.0	96.2	97.8	43.3	52.6

** EM stands for 'ethnic minorities'.*

*** WP stands for 'whole population'.*

Table 45 | School attendance rates of ethnic minorities aged 18 24 in 2006, 2011, and 2016 (Source: Census and Statistics Department, 2017)

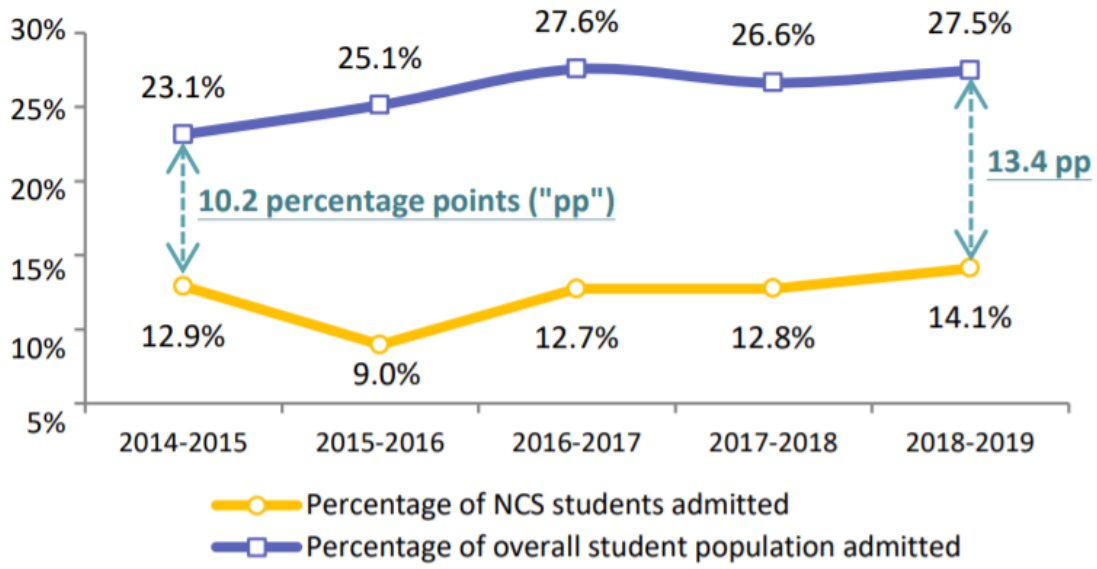


Figure 23 | Percentage of NCS students admitted to UGC-funded post-secondary programmes through JUPAS (Source: Legislative Council Secretariat, 2020)

4.2.2.8. Coda

In summary, QCA of policy documents suggests that most CAL policy intentions at primary and secondary levels in Phase 3 are connected to earlier CAL intentions, revealing that the prevailing CAL policies at these learning stages are not so much 'designed' as 'emergent' from a process of problem-framing and policymaking. Structurally, policy mixes at primary and secondary levels are similar to, albeit more diversified than, those at kindergarten levels, comprising complementary policy measures funding schemes for both ordinary and special schools, capacity-building and assistance programmes, information and exhortative campaigns to implement the 2014 Learning Framework whose central intent has been to enable CAL students to bridge over to *mainstream* Chinese Language classes. Paradoxically, there exists in tandem a policy measure of exempting CAL students from the mainstream Chinese Language qualification (i.e., HKDSE Chinese Language) through allowing *alternative* Chinese Language qualifications. This ACL policy has matured since its introduction in 2007 and, as revealed by extant statistics, obtaining ACL is becoming a preferred route of satisfying the Chinese Language requirement in post-1997 Hong Kong. From existing policy documents, the Government has no intention of phasing out or restricting the measure of ACL.

4.2.3. Other CAL policy intentions

Besides policy measures targeting K-12 levels, QCA has also identified other CAL policy measures that (i) cannot be unambiguously categorised as either a kindergarten or primary-secondary measure, and/or (ii) contribute more to the non-formal and/or infrastructural aspects of CAL provision. These measures are classified in this analysis as a miscellany. Notably, most of these complementary measures have considerably developed during Phase 3 (see Appendix 9.3 on page 542), suggesting that prevailing CAL provision has been intended and financed as an increasingly diverse range of tangible programmes that channel resources into not only formal aspects of CAL teaching and learning but also non-formal and infrastructural ones such as parent education and research development.

4.2.3.1. Parent education

A recent trend towards stepping up parent education is identified, probably intended as an extension to the information-based and exhortative measure directed at CAL parents. Governmental interest in reinforcing CAL parent education may be linked to the 2008 tracking study commissioned by the government, where recommendations characterising parent education as an intervenable area were made in various parts of the report. For example, in Extract 29, publicity work was recommended to address CAL parents' unenthusiastic responses to Summer Bridging Programme (see 4.2.2.5)

Extract 29

> NCS parents were not enthusiastic in sending their children to summer preparation classes. Only about 1/3 (32%) of NCS students attended the pre-P.1 summer program, few (less than a few percents) attended summer programs in going to P.2 and P.3… *More publicity work to encourage NCS students in taking these summer programs and Chinese kindergarten education is definitely useful* [emphasis added] …
>
> *Source: The 2008 tracking study commissioned to Professor HAU Kit-tai*

For another example, in Extract 30, in relation to afterschool remedial programmes, CAL parents' perception that afterschool remedial programmes might be a burden to their children became another recommended area for intervention

Extract 30

> Perhaps in contrast to most CS (Chinese-speaking) parents, it was not uncommon that NCS parents did not perceive afterschool extra tutorials as useful because the children had a long day of study already, and the extra remedial lessons might add even more work for them. This was in contradiction to the most CS parents, who believed the more after for their children, the better. In general, the extra remedial lessons or activities before or after school were effective. *We should encourage schools to continue providing NCS students with these remedial lessons or activities. But more effort has to be spent on explaining the purposes and benefits of these activities to the NCS parents* [emphasis added] …
>
> *Source: The 2008 tracking study commissioned to Professor HAU Kit-tai*

This trend towards parent education may also be driven by the publication of a 2019 report published by the Task Force on Home-School Co-operation and Parent Education (TFHSCPE) (p.9), with specific recommendations on the engagement of local NGOs and/or TEIs to offer activities that enhance parental capacity in furtherance of better educational outcomes as a medium-term measure (see Extract 31), as well as optimising these parent education courses as a long-term measure (see Extract 32)

Extract 31

> TELs or NGOs should be commissioned by the EDB to design and organise structured and evidence-based parent education courses in accordance with the curriculum framework or guidelines on parent education developed by the Government, whose targets include parents in general, grandparents, single parents, and parents of students with

special educational needs (SEN), non-Chinese speaking, newly arrived and non-attendance students…

Source: The 2019 Report by TFHSCPE

Extract 32

TELs or NGOs should be commissioned by the EDB to optimise tailor-made parent education for parents of SEN, non-Chinese speaking, newly arrived and non-attendance students…

Source: The 2019 Report by TFHSCPE

Given the importance of parental engagement in CAL students' language development, reliance on the passive measure of information-based and exhortative measures may not be adequate. Parent education is increasingly emphasised as the way forward for governmental work in furthering the support available to CAL parents. As shown in Extract 33, parent education is heralded as a step beyond the prevailing measure of information dissemination and exhortation, entailing a blend of outreach and instruction through engaging NGOs and TEIs

Extract 33

Starting from the 2021/21 school year, EDB will provide a series of parent education programmes for parents of NCS students, including outreach programmes and seminars respectively run by non-governmental organisations and/or tertiary institutions commissioned by EDB, so as to help them support their children's learning, encourage their children to master the Chinese language, and help them have more comprehensive understanding of the multiple pathways available to their children.

Source: Brief on Education Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students on EDB's website

4.2.3.2. Early childhood Chinese language programmes

Probably in keeping with the policy rhetoric of 'early integration' and CAL policy measures at kindergarten levels, early childhood Chinese language programmes are identified as part of the miscellaneous policy intentions. Since the 2012/13 school year, these programmes have been commissioned to NGOs and are district-based, targeting CAL students at kindergarten and primary levels with the intention of 'encourag[ing] NCS children to start learning Chinese language at an early stage and arous[ing] their interests in doing so' (SCOLAR, 2021). QCA identifies two such early childhood Chinese language programmes run by two different NGOs funded by the Language Fund via SCOLAR.

The first programme entitled '*S(Singing & Stories) for Fun – Supporting NCS Children in Learning Chinese*' was commissioned to Hong Kong Sheng Kung Hui Lady MacLehose Centre (HKSKHLMC)

> **Extract 34**
>
> Collaborating with six kindergartens and primary schools with higher admission of NCS children, workshops and cultural visits will be organised for the NCS children in every school year to help them recognise Chinese characters and vocabulary. Upon request, Chinese language learning groups and/or cultural visits will also be organised for students from seven mainstream primary schools in every school year to enhance the students' ability of recognising Chinese characters and vocabulary, as well as their understanding of their community. It is estimated that the two-year programme will benefit a maximum of 482 NCS children aged from 3 to 12.
>
> *Source: scolarhkedb.hkedcity.net*

Extract 34 suggests that the HKSKHLMC programme lasts for two years and targets local kindergartens and primary schools that admit CAL students with the aim of strengthening their abilities to recognise Chinese characters and vocabulary. Depending on the ratio of CAL students admitted, instructional

content in the HKSKHLMC programme varies. Also, cultural visits in the community are arranged as part of this Chinese language programme.

The second programme entitled '*Happy Chinese Learning Project III*' was commissioned to Hong Kong Christian Service (HKCS)

> **Extract 35**
>
> 30 courses with progressive levels on various topics will be orga[ni]sed. Portable electronic reading pens with voice output for demonstrating pronunciation will be provided to assist NCS parents in helping their children learn Chinese language in an interactive and interesting way. The programme will be conducted in Kwun Tong, Yau Tsim Mong and Sham Shui Po. NCS children from all districts of Hong Kong will be invited to enrol. It is estimated that the two-year programme will benefit a maximum of 240 NCS children aged from 3 to 8.
>
> *Source: scolarhkedb.hkedcity.net*

From Extract 35, the HKCS programme, also a two-year programme, targets CAL students at kindergarten and lower primary levels. Instructional content is progressively arranged with the provision of some form of parent education. Although the HKCS programme is limited to certain districts, CAL students from all districts of Hong Kong are invited to enrol.

4.2.3.3. Vocational Chinese language programmes

Apart from Chinese language programmes targeting young CAL learners, vocational Chinese language programmes are also identified. These programmes, launched since the 2015/16 school year and funded by the Language Fund as a SCOLAR initiative, target CAL school leavers and are in line with the rhetoric of 'multiple pathways'. Given that '9-year free and compulsory education is offered in Hong Kong since 1978' (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2005, p.1), CAL students may exit the education system as

soon as they complete junior secondary (i.e., Grade 9), or when they finish senior secondary (i.e., Grade 12). As inferred from Table 46 showing school attendance rates of ethnic minorities aged 12 17 and 18 24, lower school attendance rates at both levels suggest that there are comparatively more CAL school leavers with vocational Chinese needs.

	Age groups (**excluding foreign domestic helpers**) (%)							
	3 5		6 11		12 17		18 24	
	EM	*WP*	*EM*	*WP*	*EM**	*WP***	*EM**	*WP***
2006	83.9	89.1	99.5	99.9	96.7	96.9	36.1	44.7
2011	86.9	91.3	100.0	100.0	96.6	97.1	38.4	50.3
2016	90.7	92.5	100.0	100.0	96.2	97.8	43.3	52.6

** EM stands for 'ethnic minorities'.*

*** WP stands for 'whole population'.*

Table 46 | School attendance rates of ethnic minorities aged 12 17 and 18 24 in 2006, 2011, and 2016 (Source: Census and Statistics Department, 2017)

Extract 36 suggests vocational Chinese language programmes are designed to enhance CAL school leavers' employability. Through pegging the instructional content to the Qualifications Framework (QF), a framework launched in 2008 to define 'clear and objective standards applicable to the qualifications in the academic, vocational and professional as well as continuing education sectors' (Hong Kong Hansard, 11 December 2019, p.3215), CAL students graduating from junior secondary or senior secondary have an additional qualification for Chinese designed with local vocational standards in mind. Together with ApL(C) (see 4.2.2.7), the qualifications from these vocational programmes attempt to qualify ethnolinguistic minority groups to work in contexts that demand some degree of Cantonese and/or Chinese proficiency.

Extract 36

> Post-secondary institutions/training organisations are invited to develop and operate the Vocational Chinese Language courses pegged at Level 1 or 2 of the Qualifications Framework (QF) for non-Chinese speaking (NCS) school leavers. These courses aim at enhancing NCS school leavers'

capability and confidence in listening, speaking, reading and writing in Chinese (especially in reading and writing), helping them obtain qualifications recognised by the Government and different sectors, and enhancing their employability. Up to 85% of the tuition fee could be reimbursed to a participant after fulfilling the relevant requirements in attendance or assessment.

Source: scolarhkedb.hkedcity.net

It should also be noted that attaining Levels 1 and 2 of the QF as a 7-level hierarchical framework, as illustrated in Figure 24, is awardable with the titles of 'Certificate' or 'Foundation Certificate' that certify that CAL school leavers who successfully complete these vocational programmes can perform a restricted range of tasks in Cantonese and/or Chinese in a given field (see also Qualifications Framework Secretariat, 2018)

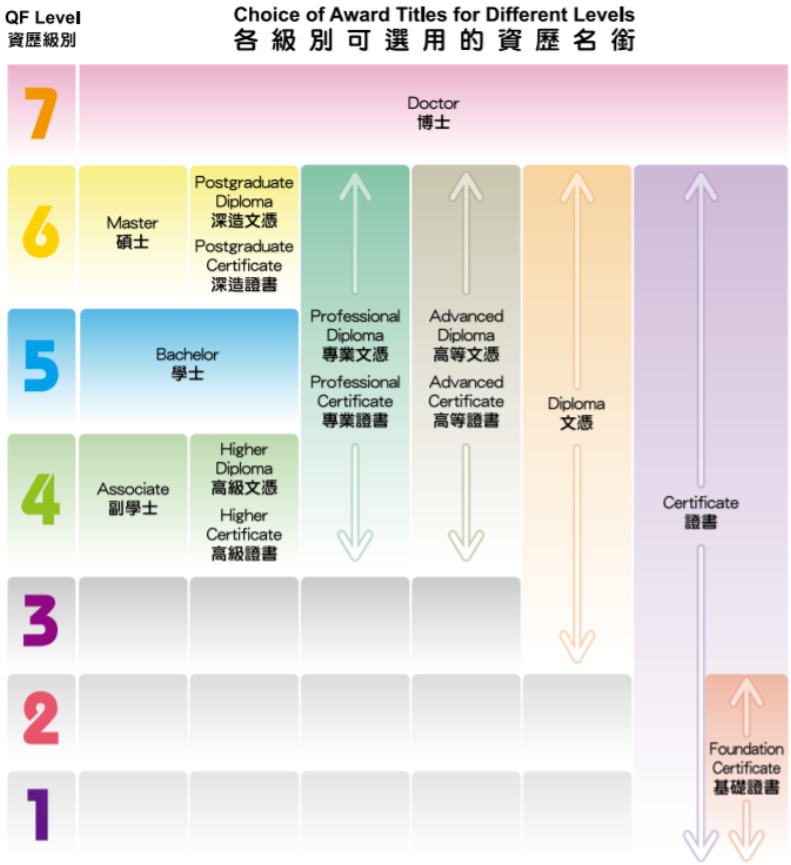


Figure 24 | An illustration of the QF in relation to award titles (Source: Qualifications Framework Secretariat, 2018, p.20)

Considering that the HKDSE Examination leads to Hong Kong *Diploma* of Secondary Education, it can inferred that these vocational programmes leading to a *Certificate* or *Foundation Certificate* cater mostly to CAL school leavers who have not obtained the qualification of the HKDSE.

As further illustrated in Extract 36, instructional content is entirely decided and operated by invited training organisations. Upon satisfying certain attendance and assessment requirements, participants are entitled to up to 85% of the tuition fee reimbursed. QCA reveals that there are two such vocational programmes for CAL school leavers: *Certificate for Vocational Chinese Language Programme for Non-Chinese Speaking School Leavers – School Assistant* (with 90 contact hours in total) by Baptist Oi Kwan Social Service; and *Foundation Certificate Programme in Chinese (Cantonese) for Non-Chinese Speakers* (with 80 contact hours in total) by Yale-China Chinese Language Centre of The Chinese University of Hong Kong. From the prospectuses, while the former has a more vocational focus on Chinese (Cantonese) use related to the role of a school assistant (see Extract 37), both programmes feature only basic levels of Cantonese and Chinese, with the latter programme listing only oracy-oriented learning outcomes (see Extract 38)

Extract 37

Expected Learning Outcome:

- Able to understand and respond to utterances in daily life containing conversations, instructions, guidance, presentations, reports and discussions.
- Able to apply selected vocabulary items and sentence patterns in conversations, presentations and discussions with appropriate usage.
- Able to understand short written texts containing more complicated predictable and factual information.
- Able to write 50-80 words of practical writing with appropriate usage.

Source: Prospectus of 'Certificate for Vocational Chinese Language Programme for Non-Chinese Speaking School Leavers – School Assistant (Qualifications Framework Level 2)'

Extract 38

Expected speaking & listening learning outcome:

- Ability to understand and reply to utterances containing selected vocabulary items and grammar points at the sentence level in daily conversations.
- Ability to apply selected vocabulary items and grammatical patterns at the sentence level in daily conversations with appropriate usage.

Source: Prospectus of 'Foundation Certificate Programme in Chinese (Cantonese) for Non-Chinese Speakers'

4.2.3.4. CAL research development

Another long-standing CAL policy intention is the financing of CAL research development by language experts and researchers in TEIs, as illustrated by a response to Ms Claudia Mo, a Legislative Council member, in 2014

Extract 39

The Education Bureau is inviting research and language experts to formulate a research framework to facilitate the evaluation of the effectiveness of various support measures for NCS students in learning Chinese as a second language. In the meantime, we will continue to solicit views and good practices from language experts, related groups and front-line teachers for enhancing the learning effectiveness. We believe that there is no need to set up a learning and teaching research centre for "Learning Chinese as a Second Language".

Source: Hong Kong Hansard (19 March 2014)

The response in Extract 39 suggests that the government has no intention of setting up a dedicated research centre for "Learning Chinese as a Second Language" but has been engaging research and language experts to enhance existing measures, and gathering good practices to promote the effectiveness of CAL provision. Together with school-based support programmes that also

engage TEIs (e.g., University-School Support Programmes before 2017/18 school year, which has been later renamed as Quality Education Fund Thematic Networks – Tertiary Institutes), the measure of investing in CAL research development strengthens the infrastructure of CAL provision at various schooling levels.

QCA indicates that there are two broad types of research efforts relating to CAL provision: commissioned research (i.e., top-down agenda-setting), and invited research (i.e., bottom-up agenda-setting).

On one hand, the earliest publicly-funded research study was commissioned by the then Education and Manpower Bureau to a research team at the Chinese University of Hong Kong to conduct a 3-year longitudinal study tracking the adaptation and development of a group of CAL students in mainstream settings in 2004, leading to the publication of an executive report by Hau (2008), which was later disseminated to the Legislative Council and uploaded onto EDB's website. In tandem, another study was commissioned by the then Central Policy Unit[28] to a research team at the then Hong Kong Institute of Education to investigate educational provision for ethnolinguistic minority students in Hong Kong prior to the enactment of the Race Discrimination Ordinance in 2009, leading to the publication of research reports by Kennedy (2006, 2009). These commissioned studies were early efforts in contouring the knowledge base pertaining to CAL provision, with implications for later policy intentions are adopted and sustained.

As revealed in a recent discussion paper (LC Paper No. CB(4)1165/16-17(01)) to Legislative Council Panel on Education in 2017, the EDB (2017, p.4) commissioned a TEI in 2015 to conduct a pilot study in the form of 'a questionnaire survey with students, parents and schools on the basis of the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA) results of students at Primary 3,

[28] The Central Policy Unit was established in 1989 with the aim of advising the then Governor (now Chief Executive) of Hong Kong. It was superseded in 2018 with the Policy Innovation and Co-ordination Unit.

Primary 6 and Secondary 3 levels'. Key preliminary observations, inter alia, include: (i) attendances in Chinese-medium kindergartens are associated with later-life Chinese proficiency; (ii) locally-born CAL students perform better than counterparts who arrive after the age of six; and (iii) CAL students at junior levels are more likely to participate in support activities than senior counterparts, with the EDB intending to 'continuously collect relevant data for at least three years for comparison purposes to observe the trends in NCS students' performance and understand their learning' (p.6).

Meanwhile, apart from research studies commissioned by EDB, Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) as a statutory body has also been a major funder and initiator of top-down research efforts with five research studies conducted over the years (see Table 47)

Research studies	Year of Publication
Education for All: Report on the Working Group on Education for Ethnic Minorities, a self-initiated project by Policy and Research Committee of EOC	2011
Study on Racial Encounters and Discrimination Experienced by South Asians commissioned to Centre for Civil Society and Governance, The University of Hong Kong and Policy 21 Limited	2012
Closing the Gap: Report of the Working Group on Education for Ethnic Minorities, a self-initiated project by Policy and Research Committee of EOC	2019
A Study on the Challenges Faced by Mainstream Schools in Educating Ethnic Minorities in Hong Kong commissioned to Centre for Advancement of Chinese Language Education and Research, The University of Hong Kong via Oxfam Hong Kong	2020
A Study on Education and Career Pathways of Ethnic Minority Youth in Hong Kong commissioned to Centre for Youth Research and Practice, Hong Kong Baptist University	2020

Table 47 | Research reports published by EOC

These EOC reports, both self-initiated and commissioned, are linked to the first ever Working Group established under EOC, which concerns minority students' learning of CAL in schools, as evinced in Extract 40

Extract 40

> Education issues of ethnic minorities (EMs) have long been a strategic priority area for the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC), given that education is an effective means of empowerment. A 2011 "Education for All" report was issued by the first EOC Working Group on Education for EMs… and numerous subsequent submissions have been made to the Government and Legislative Council on improving EM students' learning of Chinese language and integration in schools.
>
> *Source: Executive Summary of the 2019 Closing the Gap: Report of the Working Group on Education for Ethnic Minorities*

On the other hand, besides the commissioning of research studies, the government also funds a variety of initiatives put forth by researchers in TELs. This intention is illustrated by the series of Research and Development (R&D) projects funded by the Language Fund via SCOLAR. Notably, 'learning of Chinese language of non-Chinese speaking (NCS) learners' has been a priority theme for SCOLAR's R&D projects since the 2015-16 round, which can be a gauge of the urgency of CAL research to the government. As shown in Table 48, there were eight research studies related to various CAL issues in the 2015-16 round (with a total of 23 studies funded), and five counterparts in the 2018-19 round (with a total of 18 studies funded), accounting for around 35% and 28% of the R&D projects funded respectively. Relatedly, in the 2019 R&D Project Dissemination Conference of SCOLAR, symposia and parallel sessions relating to CAL retained a strong presence, as shown in Figure 25.

In sum, the sponsorship of these R&D projects evinces the governmental intention to expand the existing knowledge base relating to CAL provision and related issues, and to leverage the research expertise of academics and researchers in TELs with the potential of developing pedagogical products that further the teaching and learning of CAL, as suggested in Extract 41

Extract 41

EDB has commissioned tertiary institutes to develop research projects on NCS students' learning, e.g. collecting data from different schools for analysis; or investigating second language learners' experiences in other districts. Meanwhile, one of the institutes also conducts research on NCS students' language standards. Based on the listening, speaking, reading and writing data collected, an assessment tool would be developed. Teachers may make good use of similar assessment tools to evaluate NCS students' Chinese language proficiency so that they can adjust their learning and teaching strategies.

Source: the 2008 Supplementary Guide

The 2015-16 R&D Projects

Project titles	Grantees
A mobile, personal reading tutor for learners of Chinese	City University of Hong Kong
An investigation of strategies and methods in learning Chinese vocabulary by non-Chinese speaking students in Hong Kong	City University of Hong Kong
An online reading platform for learning Chinese as secondary language	Caritas Institute of Higher Education
Dialogical reading programme on Chinese language and emergent literacy learning in ethnic minority preschool children in Hong Kong	The Hong Kong Institute of Education
From speech to spelling: improving Chinese proficiency of non-Chinese speaking students through Cantonese speech learning	The Chinese University of Hong Kong
Supporting the learning and teaching of Chinese language for non-Chinese speaking students in secondary schools	The University of Hong Kong
The acquisition of Cantonese vowels and intonation by India-Urdu students at Hong Kong primary and secondary schools	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Using supplementary materials to enhance primary 6 non-Chinese students' Chinese ability: an action research	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

The 2018-19 R&D Projects

Project titles	Grantees
An action research on learning patterns & strategies of Chinese characters for non-Chinese speaking students in Hong Kong	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Foundational Chinese literacy skills for non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students: an intervention research	The Chinese University of Hong Kong
Supporting ethnic minority students' Chinese language learning through enhancing extramural Chinese social media use	The University of Hong Kong
The acquisition of Cantonese tones and initials by Hindi-Urdu students at Hong Kong primary and secondary schools	The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
The effects of family socialisation on second-generation South Asian adolescents in Hong Kong: academic identity construction and second language learning	The Education University of Hong Kong

Table 48 | CAL R&D Projects financed by the Language Fund (i.e., public funds) since 2015/16 school year



Figure 25 | Conference Programme for the 2019 Research and Development Project Dissemination Conference of SCOLAR

4.2.3.5. CAL material development

In addition to the financing of various CAL research projects, QCA reveals that there has been a long-standing intention to finance CAL material development, i.e., the sponsorship of production projects that develop teaching and learning materials, including teaching resources and graded readers, as part of the infrastructure of CAL provision. In this regard, material development is a collective task engaging publicly-funded schools admitting CAL students, NGOs serving CAL students, as well as TEIs with research expertise in the teaching and learning of CAL.

The earliest funding source of CAL material development is the Quality Education Fund (QEF) set up in 1998 in hopes of 'fund[ing] worthwhile initiatives on a pilot basis and one-off projects that aim to raise the quality of school education, and [of] promot[ing] quality education at all levels' (QEF Secretariat, 2002, p.1). Hence, given these broad goals, various CAL projects aiming at developing and disseminating teaching and learning resources for CAL students have been funded through QEF, as suggested in Extract 42

Extract 42

> Since 2003, EDB had been sponsoring production projects on Chinese Language teaching resources for NCS students through the Quality Education Fund (QEF). It would produce and disseminate quality teaching materials through adapting QEF projects on teaching materials for Chinese Language developed in Hong Kong school settings.
>
> *Source: Policy Brief by the Legislative Council Secretariat for the meeting on 12 January 2009 (LC Paper No. CB(2)579/08-09(07))*

According to the QEF Cyber Resource Centre[29], grant applications are made to QEF Secretariat and are awarded on the recommendations of QEF Steering Committee. QEF grantees are diverse, consisting of (i) publicly-funded schools, (ii) local NGOs, and (iii) post-secondary institutes. These production projects are usually of an applied nature, culminating in deliverables with the potential of being further commercialised and disseminated. For example, as illustrated in Figure 26, an early QEF project titled '*Learning Chinese – Gaining Mastery through Easy Steps'*, awarded to Islamic Kasim Tuet Memorial College, developed a school-based curriculum and

[29] The QEF Cyber Resource Centre was established in 1999 as an online repository of all QEF resources and products.

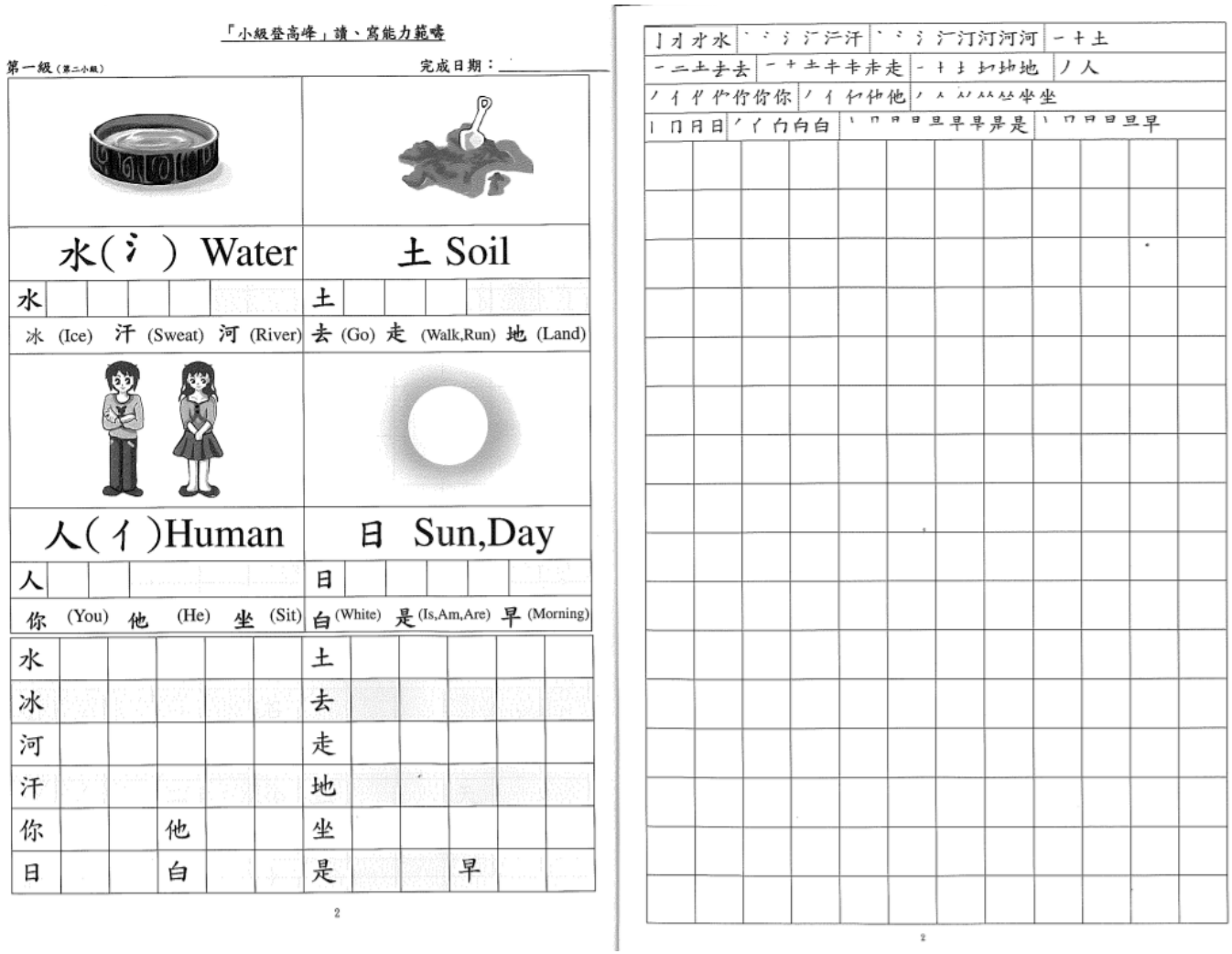
resource package that divided junior secondary Chinese literacy skills into twenty levels. For another example, a two-year QEF project titled '*Development of Chinese Language Progression Framework for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Children in Kindergartens in Hong Kong*' was conducted by a TEL that developed an online platform and mobile applications to facilitate assessment of oracy skills at pre-primary levels.

Another funding source that drives CAL material development is the Language Fund (LF) managed by SCOLAR. In 2015, a production project was launched by SCOLAR with the intention of developing learning and teaching materials for CAL purposes, as shown in Extract 43

Extract 43

> To strengthen the support to non-Chinese speakers (NCS) in learning Chinese, the Standing Committee on Language Education and Research (SCOLAR) launches the Project for Developing Chinese Learning and Teaching Materials for Non-Chinese Speakers in Hong Kong.
>
> With the funding support by the Language Fund, the project aims at developing learning and teaching materials for NCS to enhance the effectiveness in teaching NCS Chinese and to provide them with self-learning tools in learning Chinese.
>
> *Source: GovHK (2015)*

Extract 43 is taken from a press release pertaining to the open call for the '*Project for Developing Chinese Learning and Teaching Materials for Non-Chinese Speakers in Hong Kong'* intending to develop resources for CAL instructions and self-learning. On SCOLAR's website, two production projects were financed under this initiative: first, the development of a free mobile application with 150 Chinese reading materials abstracted from a local newspaper with instructional elements on character learning (e.g., radicals, stroke order, character formation), which was granted to Open Knowledge Association Limited in collaboration with Ming Pao Education Publications Limited (i.e., local for-profit organisations), as shown in Figure 27; and second, the compilation of stories of 20 famous historical figures with English annotations, which was granted to the Education University of Hong Kong (i.e., a TEI). Notably, this project is not intended as a one-off project, with SCOLAR's website (2021) revealing that '[t]he open call of proposals for this project for the 2019/20 and 2020/21 school years was completed in January 2019'.


「小級登高峰」讀、寫能力範嚐

第一級（第二小級）　　完成日期：

水(氵) Water　　土 Soil

水　　土

冰 (Ice)　汗 (Sweat)　河 (River)　去 (Go)　走 (Walk,Run)　地 (Land)

人(亻)Human　　日 Sun,Day

人　　日

你 (You)　他 (He)　坐 (Sit)　白(White)　是(Is,Am,Are)　早 (Morning)

水						土					
冰						去					
河						走					
汗						地					
你			他			坐					
日			白			是			早		

2

丿	才	水	丶	氵	汇	汇	汗	丶	氵	汀	汀	河	河	一	十	土	
一	二	土	去	去													
一	十	土	干	丰	走	走											
一	十	扌	扣	地	地												
丿	人																
丿	亻	仁	你	你	你	你											
丿	亻	仁	仙	他													
丿	人	从	从	坐	坐												
丨	冂	日	日	丿	亻	白	白										
丨	冂	日	日	旦	早	早	是	是									
丨	冂	日	日	旦	早												

2

Figure 26 | A page from a resource package developed from *Learning Chinese – Gaining Mastery through Easy Steps*「小級登高峰」讀、寫能力範嚐(紅色範嚐)第一級至第二十級, a QEF project from August 2005 to July 2006



Figure 27 | Illustrations of the "Learning Chinese with the News" App developed for CAL students of varying schooling levels (Source: scolarhk.edb.hkedcity.net)

In addition to the above production projects, SCOLAR has launched the '*Incentive Scheme on the Development of Chinese Language Graded Readers for Non-Chinese Speaking Children*' in 2020, as illustrated by another press release in Extract 44

Extract 44

> There are considerable challenges facing the growing number of Hong Kong-born non-Chinese speaking children in developing reading capabilities during their acquisition of the Chinese language. While extensive reading is one of the effective ways to master a language, extracurricular reading materials in Chinese catering for the unique needs of local non-Chinese speaking children are yet to be readily available in Hong Kong. The Language Fund will provide sponsorship of $4 million each to a maximum of three eligible organisations for developing and publishing graded readers for non-Chinese speaking children.
>
> *Source: GovHK (2020)*

From Extract 44, the SCOLAR scheme aims to incentivise, with a sponsorship of HK$4 million each to a total of three organisations, the development of extracurricular reading materials for CAL children, in order that extensive reading in Chinese can be promoted among CAL students. As SCOLAR's website (2021) further reveals, '[a]t present, three local publishers supported by the Language Fund are individually developing a series of Chinese language graded readers specifically designed for NCS children aged three to nine'.

Taken together, the sponsorship of CAL material production projects is largely similar to the sponsorship of CAL research projects, involving a blend of top-down agenda-setting (i.e., various schemes of QEF and LF with their respective priority themes) and bottom-up production of solutions, in furtherance of the infrastructural aspect of prevailing CAL provision.

4.2.3.6. Coda

Overall, there are CAL policy decisions that target specific developmental stages (e.g., kindergarten-primary students and school leavers at senior secondary levels) and/or the infrastructural aspects of prevailing CAL provision (e.g., parent education, research and material development). These CAL policy decisions, albeit miscellaneously grouped here for the convenience of the analysis, suggest that policy mixes with respect to CAL not only encompass elements that intend to strengthen *formal* CAL provision associated with a given schooling level, but attend

also to the *non-formal* and *infrastructural* aspects that may feed back into formal CAL provision. Most of these CAL policy measures are funded through public funds dedicated to (i) language education and research (i.e., the Language Fund established in 1994) and (ii) quality education (i.e., the Quality Education Fund established in 1998), with their respective secretariats under the Education Infrastructure Division of the EDB. Particularly, in Phase 3, most of these other CAL policy decisions are further developed in recent years, which suggests the government's intention to continuously build the CAL resource base. Considered together, these other policy intentions are complementary in nature (i.e., research development and material development), while helping enact the rhetoric of 'early integration' (i.e., early childhood programmes) and 'multiple pathways' (i.e., vocational programmes).

4.3. Summary

Holistically, through QCA of policy documents relating to CAL provision, policy configuration pertaining to how the government is responding to cultural and linguistic diversity at K-12 settings from 2014 onwards has been mapped out. The analysis suggests existing CAL policy intentions are configured both rhetorically and materially (see also symbolic and tangible policies by Ronn (1978) and Anderson (1984)), with the following general characteristics relating to CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong

(i) CAL provision as a public policy area generally falls within the ambit of the EDB, although there are also governmental efforts from other bureaux and departments, as well as other governmental agencies and/or statutory bodies;
(ii) tangible CAL policy measures are comprehensive, involving formal (e.g., curriculum guidance and professional development), nonformal (e.g., after-school support, bridging programmes) and infrastructural (e.g., research and material development) aspects;
(iii) Phase 3 of CAL provision is characterised by increased commitment to the K-12 sectors (e.g., recent funding towards the kindergarten sector, as well as enhanced funding for all schools that admit CAL students) and to infrastructural work (e.g., the strengthening of parent education, research development, and material development);
(iv) CAL provision is configured similarly across K-12 levels, with CAL provision at primary and secondary levels featuring a more diverse range of policy measures including regulatory measures (e.g., widened school access and alternative Chinese language qualifications) that are not present for the kindergarten levels; and
(v) although the EDB has determined the type of CAL provision available to ethnolinguistic minorities through top-down policy and planning (e.g.,

curriculum documents and regulatory measures as direct measures), the EDB has also actively formed and maintained partnerships with a range of intermediaries through active grantmaking (i.e., indirect provision) (see also Appendix 9.4 on page 543 for illustrations of CAL policy intentions and their intermediaries), which opens up a laissez-faire space for devolved decision-making.

Judging from extant policy data, it has become increasingly apparent that '[g]overnment is an arena rather than an actor' (Colebatch, 2017, p.378), as evinced by the extent to which CAL policy decisions for K-12 levels in Phase 3 have been shaped by the previous CAL policy decisions, the legislative/monitoring process, as well as the involvement of a diverse group of policy actors. Thus, policy data pertaining to CAL policy intentions reflect Howlett's (2014, p.198) observation that policy decisions of a specific phase may arise out of 'incremental changes or successive reformulation', instead of 'conscious, intentional and deliberate planning according to well established or often-used principles'. One implication for this mode of policy evolution may be that, as Howlett (2014, p.198) further contends, 'policy mixes suffer from inconsistent, incoherent or incongruent elements'. Considered this way, policy decisions for Phase 3 (i.e., from 2014 onwards) are no exception, accommodating the central paradox of attempting to promote 'bridging over to *mainstream* Chinese classes' (i.e., unwillingness to specify a fully-fledged alternative curriculum to the mainstream Chinese counterpart) while putting in place a policy of *alternative* Chinese language qualifications.

Specifically, as can be appreciated from policy data presented above, this policy paradox is endemic to CAL provision at the primary and secondary levels, with existing statistics suggesting that more and more CAL students are gravitating towards securing alternative Chinese language qualifications at the exit point of their formal schooling (see also 4.2.2.7). Together with the policy of encouraging devolved decision-making in relation to CAL provision, the policy of alternative Chinese language qualifications may help meso-level decision-makers (i.e., local schools that admit CAL students, especially those at secondary levels) effectuate simplified curricula that deviate from the vision of 'bridging over to mainstream Chinese classes', while functioning as the key stabilising agent in the maintenance of a dysfunctional policy structure (i.e., the presence of incongruent policy mixes) for CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong. That is, notwithstanding the good intentions of strengthening kindergarten education and various infrastructural aspects of CAL provision, prevailing CAL measures as a whole may in practice fall short of its rhetoric of early integration and mainstreaming, as well as the efficient use of public funds to bring about effective CAL provision.

5. Practice

5.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- presents LA and LBQ findings on learner characteristics of CAL settings observed (5.2);
- presents LO findings on instructional features of CAL settings observed (5.3 5.5); and
- summarises findings in the 'Practice' domain (5.6).

5.2. What learner characteristics constitute CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by language proficiency, language use and exposure, and motivation and affect?

LBQ (see 3.3.4.2) and LA (see 3.3.4.3) were administered to CAL students (n=101) from the 2x2 CAL settings observed. Quantitative findings from LBQ and LA that answer the research question are categorised into three sections: language proficiency (5.2.1), language use and exposure (5.2.2), and motivation and affect (5.2.3). For details of the student samples across these four CAL settings, please refer to 3.3.3.2. To recap, three of the CAL settings Grade 5 (Concentrated), Grade 8 (Concentrated), and Grade 8 (Integrated) consist *only* of CAL students, whereas Grade 5 (integrated) comprise both ethnic Chinese and CAL students. That is, in addition to ethnic concentration and education level, grouping constitutes an additional variable in the current sample. Considering that ethnic Chinese students are outliners markedly distinct from their CAL counterparts, LBQ and LA data from them were thus excluded from inferential statistical procedures in this section to ensure comparability across groups. That said, relevant descriptive statistics are presented, where appropriate, to allow for some juxtaposition between CAL and ethnic Chinese (i.e., non-CAL) groups.

5.2.1. Language proficiency

Self-assessed proficiency in native languages. Concerning proficiency in native languages (see Table 49), CAL students in all four CAL settings identified themselves as more proficient in oracy skills (i.e., listening and speaking) than literacy ones (i.e., reading and writing). Such a discrepancy hints at CAL students' low literacy in native languages, which also suggests that they did not receive formal literacy instruction in their mother tongues. Also, language skills in native languages were rated as the strongest among all three languages, which bespeaks their statuses as the chief means of communication in the home domain. There were no statistically significant

differences ($p>.05$) in all four skills across groups as determined by Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Self-assessed proficiency in English. CAL students rated themselves as balanced in both oracy and literacy skills in English (see Table 49). As all four CAL settings adopted English as the medium of instruction, balanced proficiency in English was therefore anticipated. Kruskal-Wallis H test reveals that there were overall statistically significant differences in listening ($H(3)=9.028$, $p<.05$), speaking ($H(3)=15.529$, $p<.001$), and reading ($H(3)=9.801$, $p<.05$) across groups with Dunn's pairwise tests indicating higher proficiency for Grade 8 groups. Such statistically significant differences, albeit not seen in writing, can be construed as language development in English associated with educational level/age.

Self-assessed proficiency in Chinese. Compared with self-assessed scores in native languages and English, scores in Chinese were numerically the lowest, which signifies that, according to CAL students, oracy and literacy skills in Chinese were the weakest (see Table 49). Kruskal-Wallis H test reveals overall statistically significant differences in listening ($H(3)=9.778$, $p<.05$), speaking ($H(3)=10.085$, $p<.05$), and reading ($H(3)=9.991$, $p<.05$) across groups with Dunn's pairwise tests showing that CAL students in integrated settings considered themselves as more proficient in these three skills. In other words, self-assessed proficiency in Chinese, except self-assessed writing competency, varied statistically significantly across groups as a function of ethnic concentration.

Researcher-assessed proficiency in Chinese. From Table 50, standard deviation scores of all LA measures administered to CAL students, when compared against non-CAL students', indicates considerable dispersion, which evidences high learner diversity in CAL classrooms. Furthermore, CAL students' mean scores, compared against non-CAL students', demonstrate a divide in Chinese language proficiency between CAL and non-CAL students. Numerically speaking, students in Grade 8 had higher mean scores across all proficiency measures. One-way ANOVA test, however, reveals that there were only statistically significant differences in speaking ($F(3,89)=4.226$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.125$) and reading ($F(3, 89)\ 3.842$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.115$) skills across groups. Tukey post hoc tests indicate, for both speaking and reading measures, that mean scores of both Grade 8 (Concentrated) and Grade 8 (Integrated) students were statistically significantly higher than those of Grade 5 (Concentrated) ones, and that there were no statistically significant differences between Grade 8 and Grade 5 (Integrated) groups, or between Grade 5 groups. It can thus be inferred that despite similar performances in decoding, listening, and writing Grade 8 students were more proficient in speaking and reading than Grade 5 CAL students in ethnically

concentrated settings. Overall, language proficiency measures demonstrate that Chinese proficiency largely differed as a function of educational level, rather than ethnic concentration, which was different from self-report data, although both were highly correlated (see Table 51).

Variables	MAX	Mean scores (SD) of language proficiency				H(3)
		Grade 5 Concentrated *n = 15*	Grade 5 Integrated *n = 19*	Grade 8 Concentrated *n = 35*	Grade 8 Integrated *n = 24*	
Self-assessed language proficiency						
Native language (listening)	7	4.87 (.64)	5.00 (.88)	5.17 (.51)	4.96 (.62)	3.925
Native language (speaking)	7	4.80 (.68)	5.05 (.71)	5.17 (.66)	5.00 (.72)	3.149
Native language (reading)	7	2.47 (1.64)	3.00 (1.29)	2.60 (1.42)	2.50 (1.53)	2.902
Native language (writing)	7	2.33 (1.58)	2.26 (1.41)	2.23 (1.42)	2.29 (1.49)	.025
English language (listening)	7	3.80 (.94)	3.79 (.71)	4.29 (.67)	4.37 (.77)	9.028*
English language (speaking)	7	3.53 (.92)	3.74 (.87)	4.49 (.89)	4.33 (.87)	15.629**
English language (reading)	7	3.47 (.99)	3.53 (.91)	4.03 (.66)	4.04 (.81)	9.801*
English language (writing)	7	3.40 (1.06)	3.26 (.81)	3.71 (.83)	3.71 (.91)	4.396
Chinese language (listening)	7	2.53 (1.12)	3.53 (1.12)	3.06 (1.26)	3.67 (.96)	9.778*
Chinese language (speaking)	7	2.47 (1.06)	3.37 (1.12)	2.74 (1.17)	3.37 (.97)	10.085*
Chinese language (reading)	7	2.33 (.98)	3.31 (1.03)	2.49 (1.17)	3.08 (1.10)	9.991*
Chinese language (writing)	7	2.07 (1.28)	2.63 (1.12)	2.43 (1.17)	2.79 (1.06)	5.167

**p<.05; **p<.001*

Table 49 | Mean scores of language proficiency (from self-assessment of language proficiency in LBQ) with Kruskal-Wallis H test results

		Mean scores (SD) of language proficiency						*Non-CAL*
Variables	**MAX**	**Grade 5 Concentrated** *n = 15*	**Grade 5 Integrated** *n = 19*	**Grade 8 Concentrated** *n = 35*	**Grade 8 Integrated** *n = 24*	**F (3, 89)**	η^2	**Grade 5 Integrated** *n = 8*
Researcher-assessed language proficiency measures in Chinese								
Decoding (word recognition)	100	36.10 (20.74)	38.63 (24.53)	51.57 (26.34)	51.67 (23.16)	2.445	n/a	94.00 (4.34)
Decoding (orthographic knowledge)	28	20.60 (3.56)	21.31 (3.20)	22.97 (4.29)	22.33 (4.32)	1.534	n/a	27.37 (.74)
Discourse comprehension (listening)	13	6.67 (2.85)	6.63 (2.56)	7.94 (2.18)	7.88 (2.59)	1.881	n/a	11.75 (.89)
Discourse production (speaking)	18	8.60 (2.80)	9.68 (3.33)	11.34 (2.80)	11.37 (2.90)	4.226*	.125	13.62 (1.51)
Discourse comprehension (reading)	18	7.13 (3.62)	8.36 (3.32)	10.23 (3.41)	10.29 (3.64)	3.842*	.115	16.75 (1.16)
Discourse production (writing)	24	10.20 (6.34)	10.42 (6.00)	12.14 (4.73)	12.00 (4.69)	.810	n/a	17.00 (3.21)

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 50 | Mean scores of language proficiency (from LA administered by the researcher) with one-way ANOVA results

		Researcher-assessed Chinese proficiency (LA)					
		Word recognition	*Orthographic knowledge*	*Listening*	*Speaking*	*Reading*	*Writing*
Self-assessed Chinese proficiency (LBQ)	*Listening*	.823**	.747**	.770**	.746**	.797**	.757**
	Speaking	.729**	.652**	.693**	.656**	.717**	.650**
	Reading	.752**	.689**	.719**	.682**	.723**	.704**
	Writing	.840**	.769**	.769**	.759**	.794**	.770**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)*

Table 51 | Spearman correlations between self-assessed Chinese proficiency variables and researcher-assessed counterparts

5.2.2. Language use and exposure

Interpersonal communication. Interpersonal communication is operationalised as a composite score of language use with classmates, teachers, parents, siblings and cousins, and extended family. As presented in Table 52, Kruskal-Wallis H tests reveal that there were no statistically significant differences in language use involving native languages, English, and Chinese. Because there were interesting numerical differences across groups, further Kruskal-Wallis H tests performed on sub-categories vis-à-vis each language surface statistically significant differences in language use across groups (refer to Table 53). Notably, students in concentrated settings reported statistically significantly less native language use with classmates, but more English use with teachers and friends; students in integrated settings reported more Chinese use with classmates[30].

Media exposure. Media exposure is operationalised as a composite score of language exposure to TV, movies and YouTube, songs, and social networking sites. Kruskal-Wallis H tests in Table 52 suggest statistically significant differences in media exposure in native languages and English with Dunn's pairwise comparisons indicating that Grade 8 students reported more media exposure than Grade 5 counterparts. Numerically, Grade 5 (Integrated) students reported higher media exposure yet further Kruskal-Wallis H tests performed on sub-categories vis-à-vis media exposure in Chinese do not reveal any statistically significant differences across groups.

Print exposure. Print exposure is operationalised as a composite score of print exposure to newspapers, magazines, and books. Kruskal-Wallis H tests in Table 52 suggest a statistically significant differences across groups with Dunn's pairwise comparisons revealing that Grade 8 students reported more print exposure to English than Grade 5 ones. No statistically significant differences were identified for native languages and Chinese. Further Kruskal-Wallis H tests performed on sub-categories vis-à-vis print exposure to English identify that Grade 8 reported more print exposure to English newspapers ($H(3)=37.547, p<.001$) than Grade 5 students. It can thus be inferred that older groups pursued more print activities in English, particularly newspapers.

[30] It was remarked in field notes that while there was no explicit ban of native languages in all CAL settings, there existed explicit school-wide policies in both concentrated settings to promote an English-rich environment. In fact, it was remarked in casual exchanges with CAL teachers that the schools aspired to be 'international schools for regular folks' (i.e., grassroots versions of the usually exorbitant international schools in Hong Kong). Such intra-school policies may have an influence on interpersonal communication of CAL students in concentrated settings.

Religious activities. Religious activities are operationalised as a composite score of attending religious events and conversing with people from these events. No statistically significant differences were identified by Kruskal-Wallis H tests in Table 52. On the whole, native languages were commonly reported as the language of religious activities. English followed as the second common language. Other languages notably, Arabic were reported as a common religious language among CAL students with a Pearson Chi-Square test ($\chi^2(22)=86.220, p<.001$) indicating a high association with CAL students speaking Urdu, Punjabi, and Pashto. No Chinese use was reported for this category.

Variables	MAX	Mean scores (SD) of language use and exposure				H(3)
		Grade 5 Concentrated *n = 15*	Grade 5 Integrated *n = 19*	Grade 8 Concentrated *n = 35*	Grade 8 Integrated *n = 24*	
Interpersonal communication						
Native language	4	2.39 (.48)	2.79 (.49)	2.72 (.49)	2.79 (.61)	4.169
English language	4	2.42 (.59)	2.06 (.85)	2.40 (.71)	2.26 (.93)	4.585
Chinese language	4	.82 (.67)	1.17 (.77)	.86 (.70)	.99 (.68)	3.210
Media exposure						
Native language	4	2.13 (.50)	2.04 (.78)	2.81 (.60)	2.66 (.70)	24.616**
English language	4	2.90 (.55)	2.79 (.57)	3.26 (.42)	3.31 (.41)	17.275**
Chinese language	4	.80 (.67)	1.11 (.77)	.76 (.80)	.71 (.75)	4.646
Print exposure						
Native language	4	.42 (.39)	.63 (.97)	.58 (1.19)	.68 (1.23)	1.614
English language	4	2.24 (.65)	2.25 (.59)	2.83 (.58)	2.97 (.52)	21.206**
Chinese language	4	.69 (.65)	.95 (.86)	.79 (.99)	.81 (.85)	1.817
Religious activities						
Native language	4	2.17 (.52)	2.21 (1.08)	1.80 (1.50)	2.15 (1.42)	1.769
English language	4	1.10 (1.33)	1.11 (1.69)	1.04 (1.23)	1.33 (1.19)	3.960
Chinese language	4	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.000
Other languages	4	.97 (.95)	.58 (.89)	.51 (.89)	.75 (.99)	2.681

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 52 | Mean scores of language use and exposure with Kruskal-Wallis H test results

		Mean scores (SD) of sub-categories					Pairwise comparisons					
Variables	**MAX**	*Grade 5 Concentrated*	*Grade 5 Integrated*	*Grade 8 Concentrated*	*Grade 8 Integrated*	**H(3)**	***G5(C) – G8(C)***	***G5(C) – G8(I)***	***G5(C) – G5(I)***	***G8(C) – G8(I)***	***G8(C) – G5(I)***	***G8(I) – G5(I)***
Native language												
With classmates	4	2.60 (1.06)	3.32 (.75)	2.57 (.85)	3.13 (.80)	11.650*			*	*	*	
With parents	4	3.27 (.80)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	44.941**	**	**	**			
With extended family	4	3.73 (.46)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	3.96 (.20)	16.325**	**	**	**			
English language												
With friends	4	3.33 (.48)	2.05 (1.08)	3.29 (.79)	2.71 (.96)	21.316**			**	*	**	
With teachers	4	3.40 (.51)	2.68 (.67)	3.23 (.65)	3.08 (.78)	10.726*			*		*	*
Chinese language												
With classmates	4	1.13 (.83)	2.32 (1.00)	1.17 (1.18)	1.71 (1.08)	13.927*			*		*	

**p<.05; **p<.001*

Table 53 | Further Kruskal-Wallis H tests performed on sub-categories in 'Interpersonal Communication'

5.2.3. Motivation and affect

Motivation. There were two types of motivation investigated: integrative motivation (i.e., motivation to be integrated into the target culture through language use and learning) and instrumental motivation (i.e., motivation to accomplish extrinsic goals through language use and learning). As shown in Table 54, although similar scores of instrumental motivation were reported across CAL groups, One-way ANOVA test reveals statistically significant differences across groups for integrative motivation. Tukey post hoc tests revealed that Grade 5 students reported statistically significantly more integrative motivation than Grade 8 students. In other words, lower integrative motivation was associated with older learners – it can be inferred that older learners tended to display less desire to integrate to the target culture through language use and learning.

Affect. As shown in Table 54, there are four types of affect investigated: enjoyment (i.e., a pleasant state of taking pleasure in something), anxiety (i.e., an unpleasant state of unease and tenseness), hopelessness (i.e., an unpleasant state of despair), and boredom (i.e., an unpleasant state of not feeling interested in something). One-way ANOVA test revealed no statistically significant differences in enjoyment and hopelessness. As for anxiety and boredom, statistically significant differences were identified with Tukey post hoc tests demonstrating that such affective states differed as a function of educational level, rather than ethnic concentration. In the case of anxiety, Grade 5 students reported higher anxiety than Grade 8 ones. For boredom, Grade 8 students reported higher boredom than Grade 5 counterparts.

Overall, as suggested in Table 55, there was a positive correlation between enjoyment and integrative motivation ($r=.74$, $p\leq.01$), and instrumental motivation ($r=.77$, $p\leq.01$). It should also be noted that enjoyment was negatively correlated with anxiety ($r=.69$, $p\leq.01$), and hopelessness ($r=.79$, $p\leq.01$), but not boredom. In fact, boredom was the only affective variable that did not correlate statistically significantly with other affective variables, and both motivational variables.

Variables	MAX	Mean scores (SD) of motivation and affect				F (3, 89)	η^2
		Grade 5 Concentrated *n = 15*	Grade 5 Integrated *n = 19*	Grade 8 Concentrated *n = 35*	Grade 8 Integrated *n = 24*		
Motivation							
Integrative motivation	6	3.75 (.92)	3.99 (.98)	2.81 (1.15)	2.63 (1.07)	8.726**	.227
Instrumental motivation	6	3.40 (.76)	3.86 (1.06)	3.45 (1.09)	3.64 (1.18)	.761	n/a
Affect							
Enjoyment	6	2.80 (1.17)	3.05 (1.27)	2.80 (1.11)	2.68 (1.12)	.376	n/a
Anxiety	6	4.22 (1.01)	3.74 (1.51)	2.69 (1.23)	2.90 (1.31)	6.622**	.182
Hopelessness	6	2.64 (1.68)	2.63 (1.19)	2.54 (1.21)	2.46 (1.04)	.098	n/a
Boredom	6	3.04 (1.08)	3.05 (1.42)	3.87 (1.11)	4.00 (.75)	4.609*	.134

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 54 | Mean scores of motivation and affect with one-way ANOVA results

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Motivation & Affect	(1) *Integrative motivation*	1.000					
	(2) *Instrumental motivation*	.695**	1.000				
	(3) *Enjoyment*	.743**	.771**	1.000			
	(4) *Anxiety*	−.443**	−.642**	−.686**	1.000		
	(5) *Hopelessness*	−.653**	−.628**	−.786**	.740**	1.000	
	(6) *Boredom*	−.140	.080	−.043	−.083	.088	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)*

Table 55 | Pearson correlations among motivation and affect variables

5.3. What interactional patterns are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by code, speaker, turn, and function?

Data collection from 24 CAL lessons yielded 1394 minutes (23 hours) of LO data, which are organised into the following three categories which correspond to respective analytical procedures: code and speaker (5.3.1), turn (5.3.2), and function (5.3.3). In this section, the basic unit of analysis is the lesson (n=24), which is further coded into 'time for tasks', 'time for silence', and 'time for talk' in Table 56. As determined by Kruskal-Wallis H tests, there were no overall statistically significant differences across CAL settings. In other words, although the duration of delivering a thematic module numerically varied across settings, a module-based sampling technique allowed for a statistically comparable sample of lessons for quantitative analyses. For details of the instrumentation of LO, refer to 3.3.4.4.

	Timed analysis (**Total Lesson**)				
Variables	**Grade 5 Concentrated**	**Grade 5 Integrated**	**Grade 8 Concentrated**	**Grade 8 Integrated**	**H(3)**
Overall length (SD)	3632.0 (1235.6)	3126.9 (917.8)	3840.0 (924.5)	3463.0 (1032.1)	4.659
Task % (SD)	24.7 (11.0)	26.4 (14.4)	28.1 (5.9)	45.5 (20.7)	5.245
Silence % (SD)	2.6 (.9)	1.7 (1.2)	1.4 (.6)	1.9 (.8)	4.539
Talk % (SD)	72.8 (10.7)	71.9 (15.4)	70.5 (6.0)	52.7 (20.7)	4.194

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 56 | Timed analysis (Total Lesson)

5.3.1. Code and speaker (i.e., Timed Analysis)

Macroscopically, as timed analysis revealed in Table 57, interaction constituted majority of the CAL lessons observed, accounting for roughly 70% of total lesson time. Noninteraction time, as represented by task and silence, accounted for roughly 30% of total lesson time. Timed analysis of only interaction (Total Talk) in Table 58 reveals that teacher talk in Chinese accounted for 83.5%$\pm$4.7 of interaction whereas student talk in Chinese comprised 10.4%$\pm$6.6 of interaction, which means that interaction across all four observed CAL settings was teacher-dominant. Timed analysis also demonstrates that CAL lessons were not monolingual, but characterised by switches to English teacher talk in English was on average 1.5%+1.7 whereas student talk in English was 4.5%$\pm$2.3; relatively higher variability was present in teacher talk in English, which evinces a diversity of teacher code-switching behaviours across CAL settings.

In terms of teacher talk, Kruskal-Wallis H tests as presented in Table 58 reveal overall statistically significant differences across CAL settings. In particular, for overall teacher talk, Dunn's pairwise comparisons indicate statistically significantly lower overall teacher talk in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons than Grade 8 (Concentrated)(*p=.002, adjusted using the Bonferroni correction*), as well as Grade 5 (Concentrated) (*p<.05*), and Grade 8 (Integrated)(*p<.05*) ones. In other words, Grade 5 (Integrated) setting was the least teacher-dominant setting among the four. Understandably, such a difference persisted in teacher talk in Chinese with Dunn's pairwise comparisons confirming that there was statistically significantly lower overall teacher talk in Chinese in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons than Grade 5 (Concentrated) and Grade 8 (Concentrated) (*both around p<.05, adjusted using the Bonferroni correction*) counterparts, but not Grade 8 (Integrated) ones. In fact, statistically significantly lower overall teacher talk in Chinese was also found in Grade 8 (Integrated) lessons than Grade 5 (Concentrated) and Grade 8 (Concentrated) (*both p<.05*) ones, but such statistical significance evaporated after the Bonferroni correction. There was no difference between Grade 5 (Integrated) and Grade 8 (Integrated) lessons. Simply put, teacher talk in Chinese tended to differ as a function of ethnic concentration. As for teacher talk in English, Kruskal-Wallis H test and subsequent Dunn's pairwise tests reveal a statistically significant difference (*H(3)=18.970, p<.001*) between Grade 8 and Grade 5 lessons that is to say, teacher talk in English differed as a function of educational level. Taken together, inferential statistics paint a complicated picture of CAL teacher talk on one hand, there was less talk in Chinese in both integrated settings; on the other hand, talk in English was less both Grade 5 settings. It points to a heterogeneous manifestation of interactional patterns at the confluence of ethnic concentration and educational level. The relative difference between both integrated settings hints at the potential effect of grouping (i.e., mixed-abilities versus streamed).

Since student talk is dialogically related to teacher talk, similar differences are anticipated in observed CAL lessons. Kruskal-Wallis H tests in Table 58 indicate overall statistically significant differences in overall student talk, student talk in Chinese, and student talk in English, but not student talk in native languages. For overall student talk, Dunn's pairwise comparisons showed a statistically significant higher amount of overall student talk in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons than Grade 8 (Concentrated) (*p<.001*), Grade 8 (Integrated) (*p<.05*), and Grade 5 (Concentrated) (*p=0.59*) counterparts. Furthermore, Dunn's pairwise comparisons indicate that student talk in Chinese in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons was statistically significantly higher in quantity than those in Grade 8 (Concentrated) (*p=.002, adjusted using the Bonferroni correction*) and Grade 8 (Integrated) (*p=.004, adjusted using the Bonferroni*

correction) ones. The same pattern was present, albeit prior to the Bonferroni correction, between Grade 5 (Concentrated) lessons and Grade 8 (Concentrated) ($p<.05$) and Grade 8 (Integrated) ($p<.05$) ones. Taken together, it can be inferred that students in Grade 5 settings, particularly those in the integrated setting, talked more in Chinese than counterparts in Grade 8. Considering that there were non-CAL (i.e., ethnic Chinese) students in Grade 5 (Integrated), such findings were not surprising. As for student talk in English, Dunn's pairwise comparisons revealed a statistically significant difference between Grade 5 lessons and Grade 8 ones in the direction of Grade 8 having more student talk in English. In other words, student talk in English differed as a function of educational level. There were no statistically significant differences within an educational level.

Settings & Teachers		Length of lessons in seconds	Timed analysis								Turn analysis					
			Percentages of ***Total Lesson***			*Percentages of* ***Total Talk***					*Total numbers and mean lengths of teacher and student turns (****Total Talk****)*					
			Noninteraction		*Interaction*	Teacher talk in Chinese	Teacher talk in English	Student talk in Chinese	Student talk in English	Student talk in native languages	No. of teacher turns	Total length of teacher turns	Mean length of teacher turns	No. of student turns	Total length of student turns	Mean length of student turns
			Task	Silence	Talk											
Grade 5 Concentrated	**Teacher 1**	2550	28.3	3.2	68.5	88.2	.0	7.9	4.0	.0	77	1541s	20.1s	42	208s	5.0s
		4872	20.4	2.3	77.3	84.4	.0	11.9	3.4	.3	175	3179s	18.2s	107	588s	5.5s
		4704	15.5	4.2	80.3	85.0	.0	12.9	1.7	.4	108	3211s	29.7s	118	567s	4.8s
		5010	30.2	3.7	66.1	88.4	.2	9.6	1.9	.1	132	2934s	22.2s	72	384s	5.3s
		2286	40.3	2.1	57.6	84.3	.3	11.1	3.8	.5	64	1114s	17.4s	51	203s	4.0s
		2370	9.2	3.8	87.0	88.6	.1	8.0	3.2	.1	119	1829s	15.4s	61	233s	3.8s
Grade 5 Integrated	**Teacher 2**	3660	15.7	1.1	83.2	82.0	.0	15.2	1.9	.0	243	2487s	10.2s	61	521s	8.5s
		3576	14.3	1.2	84.5	86.3	.0	10.5	3.2	.0	197	2608s	13.2s	50	414s	8.3s
		3630	50.3	3.5	46.2	70.5	.1	27.9	1.5	.0	106	1184s	11.2s	49	493s	10.0s
		1872	20.5	.4	79.1	85.2	.5	10.1	4.0	.2	102	1269s	12.4s	23	212s	9.2s
		3774	40.2	3.2	56.6	72.8	.0	24.8	2.4	.0	169	1555s	9.2s	47	581s	12.3s
		3672	30.6	.8	68.6	79.2	.1	18.1	2.6	.0	227	1998s	8.8s	49	521s	10.6s
		1704	13.1	1.5	85.4	77.7	.0	21.0	1.2	.1	123	1131s	9.2s	28	325s	11.6s
Grade 8 Concentrated	**Teacher 3**	4212	30.2	1.0	68.8	86.1	2.4	5.3	6.2	.0	112	2565s	23.0s	104	333s	3.2s
		4260	36.4	1.5	62.1	88.5	2.1	4.3	4.9	.2	108	2397s	22.2s	78	249s	3.2s
		4188	28.0	1.3	70.7	88.0	1.6	4.9	5.5	.0	134	2653s	19.8s	140	308s	2.2s
		2190	20.5	.7	78.8	84.7	2.8	5.8	6.7	.0	75	1510s	20.1s	74	216s	2.9s
		4350	25.5	2.4	72.1	86.3	3.1	6.0	4.5	.1	132	2804s	21.2s	128	332s	2.6s
Grade 8 Integrated	**Teacher 4**	2106	60.3	2.0	37.7	84.0	2.2	6.6	7.1	.1	27	684s	25.3s	50	110s	2.2s
		4092	70.3	1.7	28.0	84.4	3.3	5.5	6.8	.0	36	1005s	27.9s	54	141s	2.6s
		4140	30.3	.6	69.1	80.2	5.1	6.1	8.5	.1	83	2440s	29.4s	183	421s	2.3s
		4050	60.6	2.2	37.2	83.5	4.7	4.5	7.3	.0	51	1329s	26.1s	56	178s	3.2s
		4230	20.5	1.9	77.6	81.7	3.9	5.2	8.9	.3	115	2810s	24.4s	135	473s	3.5s
		2160	30.7	3.0	66.3	83.9	4.0	5.7	6.4	.0	50	1259s	25.2s	60	173s	2.9s
Averages (SD)		2486 (1034.6)	31.1 (15.9)	1.9 (1.0)	67.0 (16.1)	83.5 (4.7)	1.5 (1.7)	10.4 (6.6)	4.5 (2.3)	.1 (.1)	115.2 (56.2)	1979s (776.4)	19.2s (6.7)	75.8 (40.3)	341.0s (151.4)	5.4s (3.3)

Table 57 | Descriptive statistics of timed analysis and turn analysis

Variables	Timed analysis (**Total Talk**) Grade 5 Concentrated	Grade 5 Integrated	Grade 8 Concentrated	Grade 8 Integrated	H(3)
Teacher talk					
Overall (SD)	86.6 (2.1)	79.2 (6.0)	89.1 (1.2)	86.8 (1.3)	13.102**
Teacher talk in Chinese (SD)	86.5 (2.1)	79.1 (6.0)	86.7 (1.5)	83.0 (1.6)	12.228**
Teacher talk in English (SD)	.1 (.1)	.1 (.2)	2.4 (.6)	3.9 (1.0)	18.729**
Student talk					
Overall (SD)	13.5 (2.1)	20.7 (6.1)	10.88 (1.4)	13.2 (1.3)	13.395**
Student talk in Chinese (SD)	10.2 (2.1)	18.2 (6.8)	5.3 (.7)	5.6 (.7)	18.670**
Student talk in English (SD)	3.0 (1.0)	2.4 (1.0)	5.6 (.9)	7.5 (1.0)	18.970**
Student talk in native languages (SD)	.2 (.2)	.0 (.1)	.1 (.1)	.1 (.1)	5.389

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 58 | Timed analysis (Total Talk)

5.3.2. Turn (i.e., Turn Analysis)

Turn analysis offers a summative snapshot of the nature of turn in observed CAL lessons, contributing another dimension to understand interactional patterns. Hypothetically speaking, a given teacher/student can hold the floor long (i.e., high proportion of teacher/student talk) without letting someone else speak (i.e., low number of turns), which resulted in longer mean length of turn. Applying turn analysis alongside timed analysis allows for a fuller investigation of interactional patterns through attending to the total number of turn, turn distribution across lessons, and the mean length of turn (i.e., the relationship between talk and turn).

For teacher turns (TTs), Kruskal-Wallis H tests in Table 59 reveal overall statistically significant differences in the total number of TTs and mean length of TTs across groups. Dunn's pairwise tests with the Bonferroni correction show that the total number of TTs in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons was higher than that in Grade 8 (Integrated) ($p=.01$) counterparts. This finding was illuminating in two ways: first, considering that Grade 5 (Integrated) was found to have the least amount of teacher talk (see Table 56), statistically significantly more TTs in Grade 5 (Integrated) evinced a more dialogic (i.e., more turns) approach to classroom interaction; second, considering overall teacher talk in Grade 8 (Integrated) was statistically comparable to those in Grade 5 (Concentrated) and Grade 8 (Concentrated), statistically significantly fewer TTs in Grade 8 (Integrated) suggested a less dialogic approach to classroom interaction. Such statistical conjectures were further supported by considering the mean lengths of TTs. Dunn's pairwise tests with the Bonferroni correction reveal that the mean length of TTs in Grade 5 (Integrated) was statistically lower than that in Grade 8 (Integrated) ($p<.001$), lending credence to the more dialogic nature of Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons and to the more monologic nature of Grade 8 (Integrated) lessons. Dunn's pairwise tests reveal no other statistically significant differences across groups given that both Grade 5 (Concentrated) and Grade 8 (Concentrated) had statistically similar overall teacher talk, having statistically comparable total numbers of TTs and mean lengths of TTs suggests that teachers in these two contexts behaved interactionally similarly, and that they were somewhere between 'dialogic' and 'monologic'.

Relatedly, Kruskal-Wallis H tests in Table 59 reveal similar patterns of overall statistically significant differences in the total number of student turns (STs) and mean length of STs. For the total quantity of STs, Dunn's pairwise tests with the Bonferroni correction indicate statistically significantly fewer STs in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons than Grade 8 ones, which can be taken as a finding further illuminating the 'dialogic' nature of Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons. Considering that

the total lengths of STs per lesson were statistically similar (*H(3)=5.949, p=.114*), having fewer STs indicated that students held the floor longer, which means they partook in more information-packed dialogues in CAL lessons. As for the mean lengths of STs, Dunn's pairwise tests with the Bonferroni correction further affirm that there was statistically significantly longer mean length of STs in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons than Grade 8 counterparts, and that there were no statistically significant differences within an educational level. Alternatively put, Grade 8 students tended to hold the floor for a shorter period of time than did Grade 5 (Integrated) students, which can be inferred as evidence of less participation in information-loaded exchanges in Grade 8 settings. Positioned numerically in-between Grade 8 lessons and Grade 5 (Integrated) ones, Grade 5 (Concentrated) lessons could be inferred as a mid-way point in terms of students' willingness to engage in longer exchanges. Taken together, given that STs — in terms of both total numbers and mean lengths — on the whole differed as a function of educational level, it can be inferred that Grade 5 students engaged in longer turns than Grade 8 counterparts, and that the more pronounced difference between STs in Grade 5 (Integrated) and those in Grade 8 settings suggested the potential effect of mixed-abilities grouping.

In summary, turn analysis of CAL settings and CAL participants above shines an exploratory light on two findings. First, interactional features in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons were statistically markedly distinct from the rest of the CAL settings in terms of both teacher and student turns, which evinces the effect of mixed-abilities grouping on classroom interaction. Second, although teachers' turn-taking behaviours — as inferred from variables related to TTs — in Grade 5 (Concentrated), Grade 8 (Concentrated), and Grade 8 (Integrated) were largely similar (*with Grade 8 (Integrated) teacher being the most teacher-dominant*), students' turn-taking behaviours differed as a function of educational level. Again, such a difference was more pronounced between Grade 5 (Integrated) and Grade 8 counterparts, which further suggests the effect of mixed-abilities grouping. In Table 60, further Kendall's tau-b correlational analyses, aided by scatterplots (see Figures 28–30), were performed on both teacher-turn variables and student-turn counterparts to further explore these relationships.

Regarding teachers' turn-taking behaviours, there was a statistically significant positive correlation (*r=.465, p<.01*) between total number of TTs and total length of TTs, which means that, for all 24 CAL lessons observed, the more interaction time was devoted to TTs, the more turns teachers tended to take. While this is not surprising that more teacher talk time is proportional to more teacher turns, as

Figure 28 reveals, such an effect was the most pronounced for the Grade 5 (Integrated) teacher. This relationship was not present for students.

Nonetheless, among student-related turn variables, there was a statistically significant positive correlation ($r=.402$, $p<.01$) between total length of STs and mean length of STs. Since this relationship was not present for teachers, this finding constitutes further evidence of different turn-taking behaviours between teachers and students. That is, the more interaction time was devoted to STs, the longer students tended to hold the floor (i.e., longer mean length of STs), but not more turns. As Figure 29 revealed, such an effect was the most pronounced for Grade 5 (Integrated) students. The scatterplot also helped visualise the differences between Grade 5 and Grade 8 settings, although there was greater variability for students' turn-taking behaviours in Grade 5 settings.

As for Kendall's tau-b correlational analyses between teacher and student variables, no counter-intuitive correlational relationships were identified. All statistically significant relationships were reflective of classroom interaction conventions. For example, in predominantly teacher-led classrooms, more STs were associated with more teacher talk ($r=.485$, $p<.01$), and with longer TTs ($r=.381$, $p<.01$), but not with more TTs (i.e., less dialogic). Relatedly, more interaction time devoted to TTs was proportional to that devoted to STs ($r=.526$, $p<.01$), and to more STs ($r=.630$, $p<.01$), which makes sense because teacher/student interaction is related to the status of the lesson (i.e., single-period versus double-period) (see Appendix 10.1 on page 546). In other words, double-period lessons set the scene for more interaction, which gives rise to more turns. What was also notable was the statistically significant negative correlation between mean length of TTs and that of STs ($r=.593$, $p<.01$). The longer a given teacher held the floor, the shorter students' turns became. As Figure 30 revealed, there was a pronounced effect of grouping at play with Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons forming a cluster of their own.

Variables	Turn analysis				
	Grade 5 Concentrated	Grade 5 Integrated	Grade 8 Concentrated	Grade 8 Integrated	H(3)
Teacher turn					
No. of teacher turns ($\bar{x}\pm s$)	675 (113±39.9)	1167 (167±58.0)	561 (112±23.8)	362 (60±32.9)	10.073*
Total length of teacher turns ($\bar{x}\pm s$)	13808s (2301s±917.5)	12232s (1747s±621.0)	11929s (2385s±511.2)	9527s (1588s±842.8)	4.426
Mean length of teacher turns (s)	20.5s (5.1)	10.6s (1.7)	21.3s (1.4)	26.4s (1.9)	18.097**
Student turn					
No. of student turns ($\bar{x}\pm s$)	451 (75±30.8)	307 (44±13.4)	524 (105±29.3)	538 (90±55.9)	11.469*
Total length of student turns ($\bar{x}\pm s$)	2183s (363s±178.4)	3067s (438s±130.2)	1438s (288s±52.6)	1496s (249s±155.9)	5.949
Mean length of student turns (s)	4.7s (.7)	10.1s (1.5)	2.8s (.4)	2.7s (.5)	19.953**

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$*

Table 59 | Turn analysis

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Teacher turn	(1) Total no. of teacher turns	1.000					
	(2) Total length of teacher turns	.465**	1.000				
	(3) Mean length of teacher turns	–.450**	.091	1.000			
Student turn	(4) Total no. of student turns	.099	.485**	.381**	1.000		
	(5) Total length of student turns	.630**	.526**	–.248	.168	1.000	
	(6) Mean length of student turns	.412**	.015	–.593**	–.438**	.402**	1.000

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)*

Table 60 | Kendall's tau-b correlations between teacher and student variables

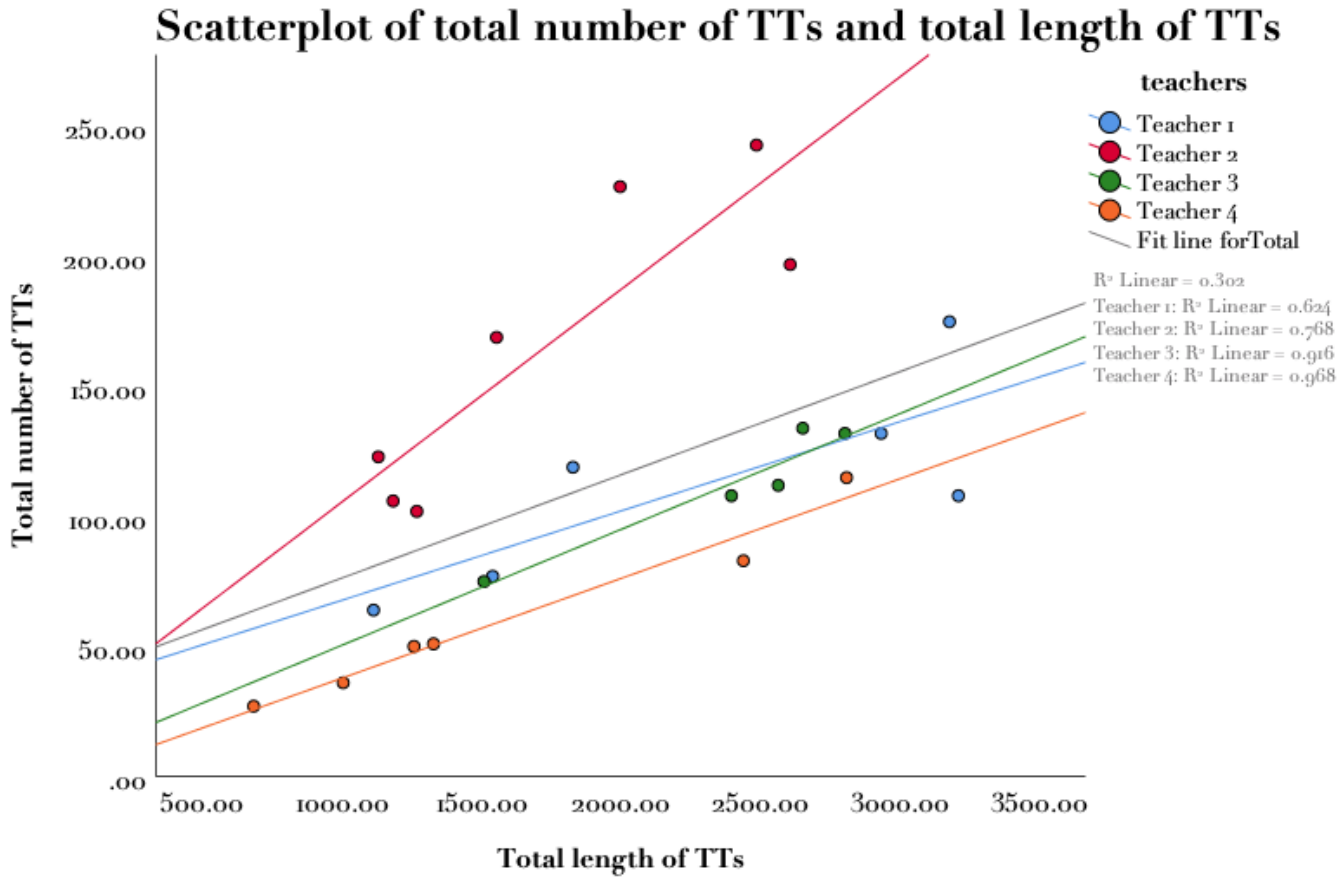


Figure 28 | Scatterplot of total number of TTs and total length of TTs

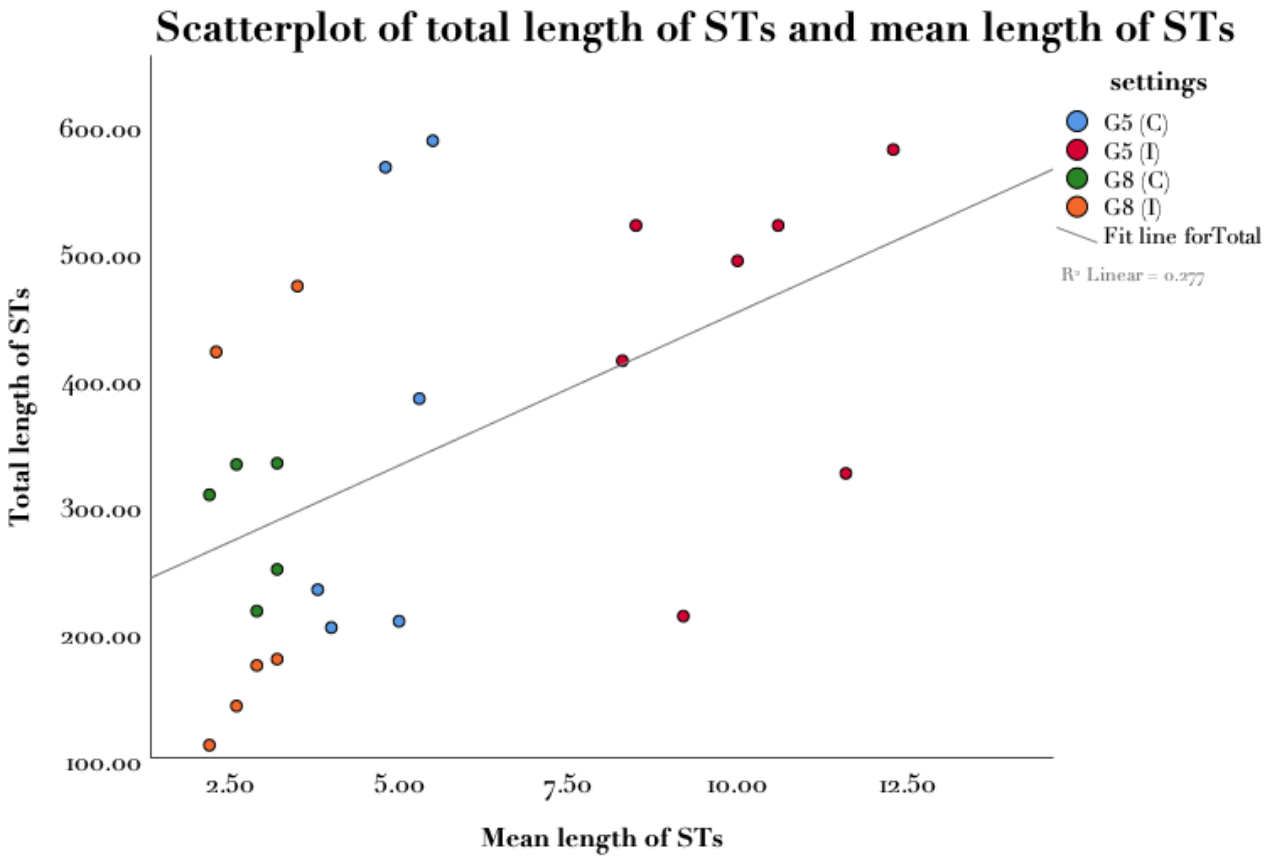


Figure 29 | Scatterplot of total length of STs and mean length of STs

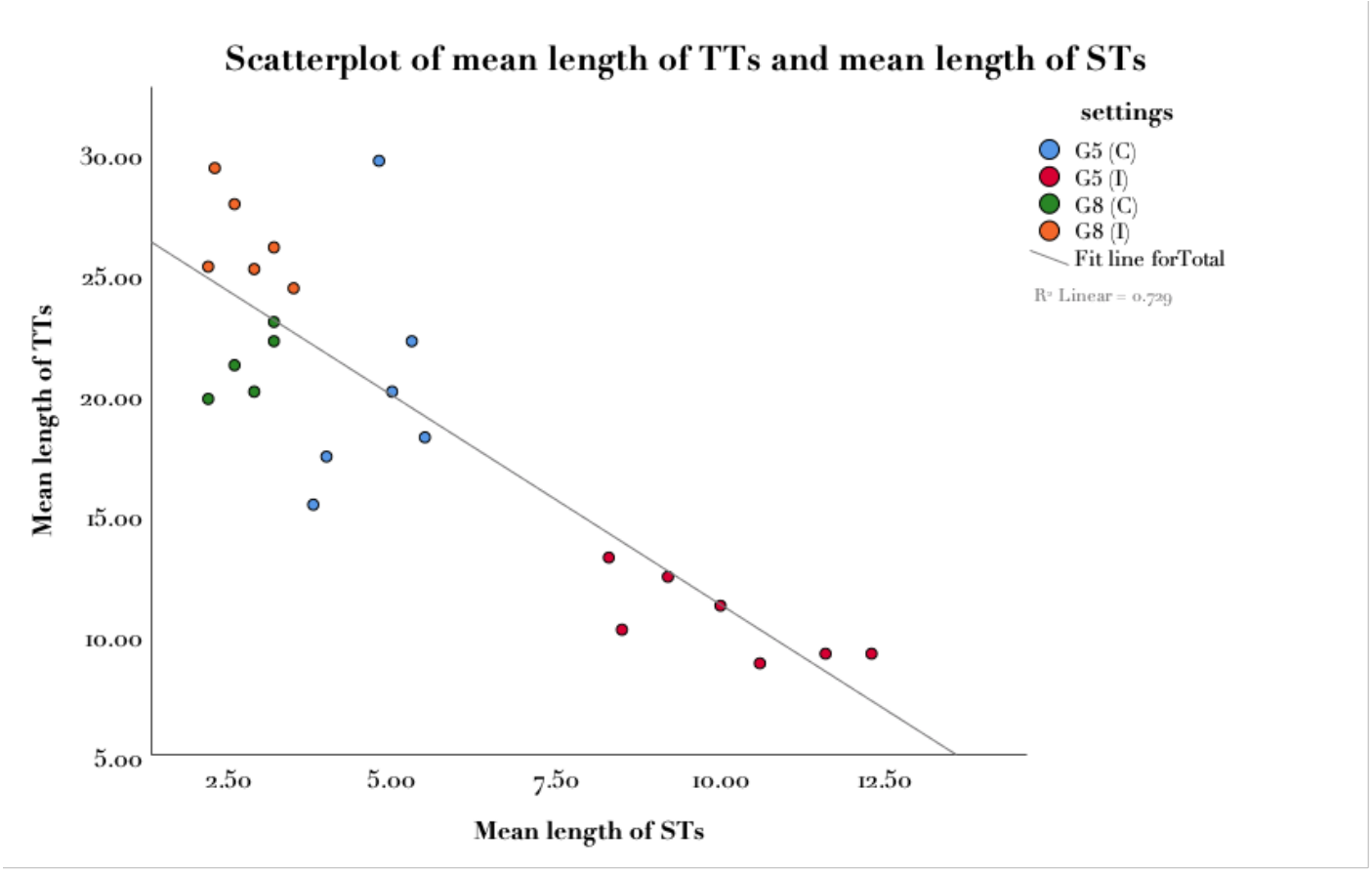


Figure 30 | Scatterplot of mean length of TTs and mean length of STs

5.3.3. Function (i.e., Function Analysis)

Another dimension of classroom interaction is the functions of teacher and student talk. Function analysis performed on the 'talk' segments of the lessons allows for insights into the dynamism between communicative purposes and interactional patterns. As Lo (2014) explains, 'inform' as a speech act is related to lecturing whereas 'elicit' is more associated with a dialogic mode of teaching. With timed and turn analyses demonstrating the comparatively more dialogic nature of mixed grouping in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons, investigating classroom interaction through 'functions' not only offers triangulation, but also illuminates previous analyses. Results of functions were presented in Table 61.

First, function analysis further corroborates time and turn analyses, with findings suggesting that Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons were qualitatively different from the other three settings. Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons were characterised by a mix of 'inform' (26.1%) and 'elicit' (14.8%) acts, a higher proportion of student acts (four out of ten), and the presence of genuine questions (i.e., elicit opinion). Importantly, in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons, students partook in 'elicit', which was not present in other CAL settings. The other three CAL settings were characterised by higher proportions of 'inform' (i.e., more lecturing), a narrower range of elicitation acts which were in the form of display questions, and the presence of 'form-focused' read-aloud sessions guided by teachers. Students' general passivity in these three settings as deduced from the commonplaceness of 'reply (restricted)' also corroborates the finding that students in streamed groups tended to talk less (see Timed analysis 5.3.1). In short, function analysis lends support to the claims that Grade 5 (Concentrated), Grade 8 (Concentrated), and Grade 8 (Integrated) based on streamed-abilities grouping were more teacher-dominant whereas Grade 5 (Integrated) based on mixed-abilities grouping was more dialogic. That is, the variable of grouping as opposed to ethnic concentration fundamentally explains time-based and turn-based differences illustrated above.

Additionally, function analysis further demonstrates function-based effects were linked to educational level. Notably, on one hand, there were the functions of 'perform/dramatise' in Grade 5 settings which were related to pedagogical practices (i.e., the use of drama) that drove interaction. On the other hand, the functions of 'translate' were present in both Grade 8 settings. The emergence of 'translate' in Grade 8 settings indicated that there were more teacher and student talk in English in both Grade 8 settings. Overall, such differences could be taken as the potential effect of level-based pedagogical preferences on classroom interaction.

	Most frequent acts found in observed CAL lessons							
	Grade 5 Concentrated		Grade 5 Integrated		Grade 8 Concentrated		Grade 8 Integrated	
Rank		*%*		*%*		*%*		*%*
1	T – Inform	35.1	T – Inform	26.1	T – Inform	40.2	T – Inform	35.2
2	T – Comment	9.2	T – Comment	13.2	T – Elicit (factual)	6.2	T – Elicit (factual)	6.9
3	S – Reply (restricted)	4.8	S – Reply (expanded)	6.4	T – Comment	6.1	T – Comment	5.2
4	T – Accept	4.2	T – Elicit (factual)	6.3	T – Elicit (yes/no)	5.5	S – Read aloud	3.6
5	T – Elicit (factual)	3.5	T – Elicit (opinion)	5.5	S – Reply (restricted)	4.3	T – Read aloud	3.3
6	S – Read aloud	2.6	S – Reply (restricted)	3.3	T – Elicit (modification)	3.4	T – Accept	2.9
7	T – Read aloud	2.5	T – Elicit (modification)	3.0	T – Tell jokes	2.5	T – Reprimand/regulate/request	2.7
8	T – Elicit (repetition)	2.1	S – Elicit	2.1	S – Read aloud	2.2	S – Reply (restricted)	2.5
9	S – Perform/dramatise	2.0	S – Express opinion (informational)	1.5	T – Read aloud	2.0	T – Elicit (yes/no)	2.3
10	T – Elicit (yes/no)	1.7	S – Perform/dramatise	1.4	T – Translate	1.4	T – Translate	1.6

** T stands for 'Teacher' and S stands for 'Students; all speech acts were subsumed in either teachers' turns or students';*

*** % refers to the average spans of 'talk' time attributable to speech acts ranked;*

**** Less frequent speech acts (those ranked below 10) are not reported.*

Table 61 | Function analysis

5.4. What assessment practices are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by location, technology use, differentiation, and type?

Task information from 24 CAL lessons was coded to yield a list of task characteristics: location (i.e., where it was an in-class or out-of-class task), technology (i.e., whether technology was involved), differentiation (i.e., whether the task was differentiated), type (i.e., categorisation by the predominant language skill involved). The basic unit of this section is the task itself. Totally, 103 task entries were recorded, which meant that on average there were 26 tasks associated with the delivery of thematic module per each CAL setting. Quantified task data that address the research question are organised into two categories: by location, technology use, and differentiation use (5.4.1), and by type (5.4.2).

5.4.1. Location, technology use, and differentiation

Overall, there were 32 tasks recorded from observed Grade 5 (Integrated) settings with the other three having around 23 to 24 tasks. Although Kruskal-Wallis H test reveals no statistically significant difference across groups in terms of 'task' time, the fact that there were more tasks in Grade 5 (Integrated) can be taken as an indicator of the potential effect of grouping. Descriptive statistics pertaining to task characteristics were tabulated in Table 62. By location, Grade 5 settings had a balanced mix of in-class and out-of-class tasks whereas Grade 8 settings seemed to have more in-class tasks to a varying extent. 4x2 Pearson Chi-square test, however, did not reveal a statistically significant difference between location and CAL settings. When it comes to technology use, all CAL settings had a similar ratio of 7:3 of technology use (no to yes). Put differently, traditional means of paper-and-pencil tasks remained common in observed CAL settings with some use of technology. 4x2 Pearson Chi-square test revealed no statistically significant association between technology use and CAL settings. As for recourse to differentiated tasks, an overall 4x2 Pearson Chi-square test revealed that there was a statistically significant association between differentiation use and tasks used in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons ($\chi^2(3)=8.605, p<.05$). In other words, there was more use of differentiated tasks in Grade 5 (Integrated), a characteristic not shared by other three CAL settings in which most tasks (around 90%) were not differentiated. Previous analyses have demonstrated the effect of mixed-abilities grouping on classroom interaction. Two subsequent pairwise Pearson Chi-square analyses were thus conducted to further corroborate whether there was an association between grouping (i.e., mixed-abilities versus streamed) on differentiation, and to explore whether educational level (i.e.,

combining both settings within an educational level) was associated with task location. Results were presented in Table 63, which lent support to the claim that there was more differentiated task use in a mixed-group setting, and that Grade 8 lessons were associated with more in-class task use than Grade 5 counterparts.

	Task analysis					
	Location %		Technology %		Differentiation %	
CAL Settings	*In class*	*Out of class*	*Yes*	*No*	*Yes*	*No*
Grade 5 Concentrated *(n = 24)*	45.8	54.2	37.5	62.5	8.3	91.7
Grade 5 Integrated *(n = 32)*	46.9	53.1	31.3	68.8	28.1	71.9
Grade 8 Concentrated *(n = 23)*	56.2	43.5	26.1	73.9	8.7	91.3
Grade 8 Integrated *(n = 24)*	75.0	25.0	25.0	75.0	7.2	95.8
χ^2 (3)	5.572		1.118		8.605*	

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 62 | Descriptive statistics with 4x2 Pearson Chi-square tests

		2x2 Chi-square χ^2 tests of association *(df = 1; n = 103)*		
		Contextual characteristics		
		Grouping	*Educational level*	*Ethnic concentration*
Task characteristics	*Location*	n/a	3.943*	n/a
	Technology use	n/a	n/a	n/a
	Differentiation use	8.348*	n/a	n/a

*$p<.05$; **$p<.001$

Table 63 | Further 2x2 Pearson Chi-square tests of associations

5.4.2. Type

Apart from task characteristics explored above, an important dimension of task use can be gauged by investigating the types of task present in given lessons. Given that tasks are integral to language lessons, understanding task type — as categorised by the predominant language skill used — enables a more comprehensive understanding of task use. All 103 task entries were categorised into nine broad task types with results presented in Table 64.

Macroscopically, a general pattern of task use was noticeable. Tasks engaging oracy skills (i.e., speaking and listening) were found to be commonplace in all four CAL settings. Decontextualised skills and penmanship tasks followed with literacy-oriented tasks ranked lower in the chart. Furthermore, a level-based difference in task use was present — most noticeably, translation tasks were common in Grade 8 settings whereas they were non-existent in Grade 5 settings. There was more use of audiovisual tasks (e.g., viewing a clip) in both Grade 5 settings with some use of game recorded in Grade 5 (Concentrated) lessons. There were more penmanship/copying tasks featured in Grade 5 lessons than Grade 8 counterparts. Further analyses clustering task type into a broad category further revealed that Grade 5 (Concentrated) lessons were associated with more oracy-oriented tasks, and that Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons tended to have more literacy-oriented tasks. Grade 8 settings, regardless of ethnic concentration, were remarkably similar in task use.

Analysis of task by subtype in Table 65 further revealed a level-based pattern of task use, not least in terms of listening, speaking, and reading tasks. For listening tasks, Grade 8 settings — when compared with Grade 5 counterparts — resorted to more use of dictation, a structured form of listening, than tape-based listening. As for speaking tasks, task use in Grade 5 settings was noticeably more varied than Grade 8 ones. It is worth heeding that read-aloud tasks in streamed-abilities settings were conducted both in and out of class; when it was assigned in the form of homework, students were expected to make individual recordings and upload them onto an online platform. Individual read-aloud tasks of such nature were present in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons, yet read-aloud tasks also took place in class not interactionally guided by the teacher (refer to *East Asian Pedagogy* in 5.5.2 for a more detailed discussion). As for reading tasks, only sentence-based comprehension tasks were recorded in Grade 8 lessons whereas both sentence-based and discourse-based comprehension were recorded in Grade 5 lessons. For writing and drilling tasks, task use was found to be largely similar across settings.

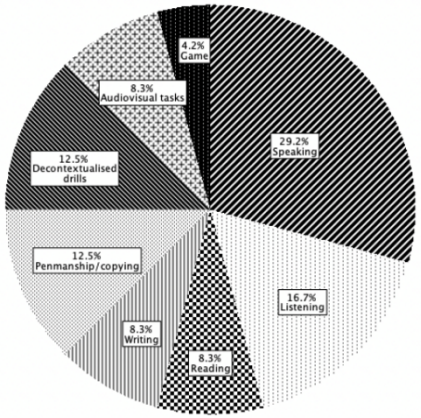
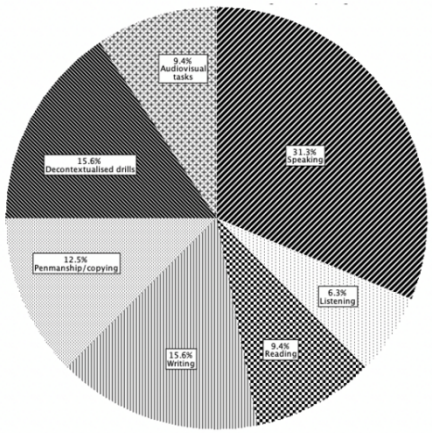
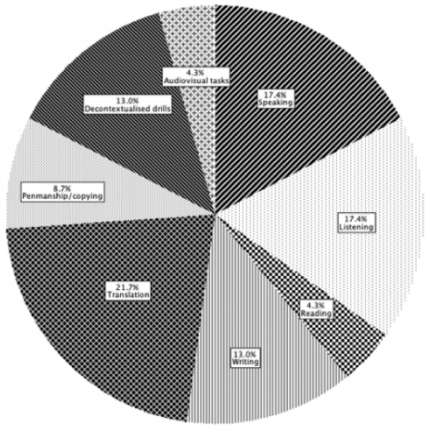
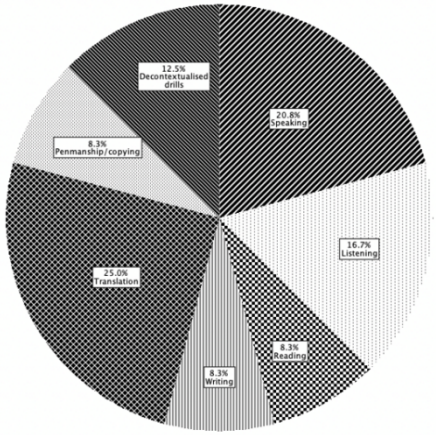
Proportions of task (by type) in observed CAL lessons								
	Grade 5 Concentrated		Grade 5 Integrated		Grade 8 Concentrated		Grade 8 Integrated	
								
Rank		*%*		*%*		*%*		*%*
1	Speaking	29.2	Speaking	31.3	Translation	21.7	Translation	25.0
2	Listening	16.7	Decontextualised drills	15.6	Listening	17.4	Speaking	20.8
3	Decontextualised drills	12.5	Writing	15.6	Speaking	17.4	Listening	16.7
4	Penmanship/copying	12.5	Penmanship/copying	12.5	Decontextualised drills	13.0	Decontextualised drills	12.5
5	Audiovisual tasks	8.3	Audiovisual tasks	9.4	Writing	13.0	Penmanship/Copying	8.3
6	Reading	8.3	Reading	9.4	Penmanship/copying	8.7	Reading	8.3
7	Writing	8.3	Listening	6.3	Audiovisual tasks	4.3	Writing	8.3
8	Game	4.2	Game	0	Reading	4.3	Audiovisual tasks	0
9	Translation	0	Translation	0	Game	0	Game	0
Clustered analysis	Listening and Speaking	45.9	Listening and Speaking	37.6	Listening and Speaking	34.8	Listening and Speaking	37.5
	Reading and Writing	16.6	Reading and Writing	25.0	Translation	21.7	Translation	25.0
	Decontextualised drills	12.5	Decontextualised drills	15.6	Reading and Writing	17.3	Reading and Writing	16.6
	Penmanship/copying	12.5	Penmanship/copying	12.5	Decontextualised drills	13.0	Decontextualised drills	12.5
	Translation	0	Translation	0	Penmanship/copying	8.7	Penmanship/copying	8.3

Table 64 | Proportions of task by type

		Proportions of task (by subtype) in observed CAL lessons %			
Task types	*Subtypes*	Grade 5 (Concentrated)	Grade 5 (Integrated)	Grade 8 (Concentrated)	Grade 8 (Integrated)
Listening	Tape	75	50	25	0
	Dictation	25	50	75	100
Speaking	Individual	14	10	0	0
	Pair	14	10	50	60
	Group	0	10	25	20
	Drama *(imitation)*	14	20	0	0
	Drama *(improvisation)*	43	10	0	0
	Read aloud	14	40	25	20
Reading	Sentence reading	50	0	100	100
	Discourse comprehension	50	100	0	0
Writing	Sentence writing	50	60	66	50
	Discourse production	50	40	33	50
Drilling	Lexical	66	60	66	66
	Syntactical	33	40	33	33
Copying	Character-level	33	0	0	0
	Word-level	33	0	50	50
	Sentence-level	33	50	50	50
	Text-level	0	50	0	0

Table 65 | Proportions of task by subtype

5.5. Qualitative supplements

Field notes made during visits to and lesson observations of four CAL settings were systematised in NVivo 12 to further supplement the fundamentally quantitative enquiries into CAL instruction in the 'Practice' domain. In what follows, two broad areas — general instructional characteristics and East Asian pedagogy — are enlarged upon.

5.5.1. General instructional characteristics

It was recorded in field notes that there were pronounced instructional differences across Grade 5 and Grade 8 lessons. First, by teaching content, Grade 5 lessons drew upon classical Chinese literature and folklore as themes to integrate various skill-based instructions, whereas Grade 8 lessons showed a tendency for daily and vocational aspects of Chinese. For example, during the observational period, Grade 5 (Concentrated) and Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons revolved around classical Chinese excerpts (both abridged and simplified from the classical texts) of *Journey to the West* and *Mulan* respectively. A cursory review of the curriculum confirmed that literary texts — with occasional translated stories from Western literature[31] — were common in both of school-based curricula in Grade 5. As for Grade 8 lessons observed, the thematic modules being instructed were based on transportation and road safety. Highly similar themes — such as, festival, travel, jobs, and weather — were present in the school-based curricula in Grade 8. It should be noted that both of Grade 5 lessons used school-based materials and Grade 8 counterparts used the same textbook assembled by a local exemplar school with corresponding school-based adjustments.

Given the differences in teaching content, it was further remarked that lexical and syntactical complexity, as noticeable instructional traits, varied accordingly. That is, in both Grade 5 lessons, due to the infusion of literary texts, low-frequency words and more challenging syntactical structures were observed. For example, in a Grade 5 (Concentrated) lesson dedicated to the module passage on an excerpt in *Journey to the West*, literary words and phrases — 一縷輕煙 (a waft of light smoke), 白骨精 (White Bone Spirit, a demon in the story), 金箍棒 (Gold-banded cudgel, a poetic referent to a magical staff), 吆喝 (berating), 化身 (incarnation) — were taught. By contrast, in a

[31] It was shared during a casual after-lesson exchange that there were plans to include translated literature from South and Southeast Asian stories to arouse CAL students' interest and promote cultural exchange.

Grade 8 (Concentrated) lesson covering a module passage on road safety, commonly-encountered words 馬路 (road), 行人 (pedestrian), 綠燈 (green light), 紅燈 (red light), 安全島 (traffic island) were taught. Accordingly, passages in Grade 5 were described in field notes as 'long, plot-driven, conceptually complicated, and generally meaning-focused' with 'focus-on-form tendencies', whereas passages in Grade 8 were 'similar in length and format to nursey rhymes, factual, and bite-sized' and characterised by 'a consistently and determinedly explicit and focus-on-forms approach'.

Differences in teaching content and, by implication, lexical-syntactical complexity were probably, as remarked in field notes, 'symptomatic of a larger difference in the overall goal of instruction', which was followed up in casual after-lesson exchanges in all four CAL settings. It was found that primary CAL instruction as indicated by Grade 5 lessons was oriented toward 'immersing students in a realm of Chinese classics and well-known stories around the world' (paraphrased from *Grade 5 CAL teacher, Concentrated*) with 'a focus on interactive activities and drama-based teaching' (paraphrased from *Grade 5 CAL teacher, Integrated*). Secondary CAL teachers as represented by teachers from both Grade 8 settings opined that the central goal of their lessons was to 'prepare students for daily communication in Cantonese with the ability to comprehend Chinese encountered in everyday life' (paraphrased from *Grade 8 CAL teacher, Integrated*) with 'a series of language enrichment activities for students to have a taste of Chinese culture' (paraphrased from *Grade 8 CAL teacher, Concentrated*). Whichever goal orientation is more appropriate developmentally and pedagogically for CAL students is beyond the investigative remit of this dissertation. However, cross-sectional evidence of all these discontinuities, as documented in this study, constitutes a cause for concern and a reason for further focused research.

Apart from differences in terms of teaching content, field notes also suggested that there were differences in how a translanguaging space[32] was enacted across settings.

[32] As a theoretical extension and reconceptualisation of the sociolinguistic concept of codeswitching, translanguaging is defined as 'a practice that involves dynamic and functionally integrated use of different languages and language varieties, but more importantly *a process of knowledge construction* that goes beyond language(s) [emphasis in original]' (Li, 2017, p.7), and 'a process of embodied participation and resemiotisation' (p.9). Put simply, in addition to code, a translanguaging perspective factors in semiotic and modal resources (i.e., extralingual resources), which has allowed for a fuller consideration of the meaning-making process involved in language learning. Following the logic, a language classroom is inherently a translanguaging space which is defined as 'a space for the act of translanguaging as well as a space created through translanguaging' (Li, 2011, p.1223) in which meaning making is a dynamic and fluid process (i.e., *trans-*) of drawing upon one's semiotic repertoire (i.e., *languaging*). In this thesis, both the cross- and extra-linguistic dimensions of translanguaging are considered relevant and they are found to be enacted qualitatively differently across settings.

In all four CAL settings observed, there was no explicit rule banning the use of native languages and English, which naturally ratcheted up the potentiality of a fuller (i.e., both *cross-* and *extra*-linguistically speaking) translanguaging space in a multilingual setting. On one hand, field notes underscored the general presence of *cross*-linguistic (i.e., across named languages) translanguaging practices as evidenced by CAL students' uses of English and native languages. However, it should be noted that use of native languages was observed to be low in this regard, English was tacitly selected as the common code CAL students switched into. As timed analysis reveals (see Table 7), the extent to which CAL teachers and students partook in *cross*-linguistic translanguaging varied across educational levels. Both Grade 5 teachers refrained from English use, which suggests that Grade 8 teachers used statistically more English than Grade 5 counterparts. As for students, while English use was recorded in all four settings, there was statistically more English use associated with Grade 8 students. Field notes germane to Grade 8 lessons indicated that both Grade 8 teachers 'displayed considerate ease in conversing in English' with occasional attempts of 'verbal translations' and 'vocabulary explanations in English', whereas such practices were not noted for Grade 5 lessons. On the other hand, field notes indicated that Grade 5 settings were more associated with *extra*-linguistic (i.e., drawing upon semiotic and multimodal resources) translanguaging practices, which corroborated function (see Table 61) and task (see Table 64) analyses. More task use related to drama (i.e., as a kind of embodied participation), audio-visual activities (i.e., multimodal activities), and game (i.e., drawing upon embodiment and multimodality) was recorded in Grade 5 settings, whereas such use was not found to be common in Grade 8 settings. Taken together, qualitatively speaking, the manifestation of the meaning-making processes (i.e., translanguaging) was found to differ as a function of educational level, which echoed findings from quantitative analyses.

5.5.2. East Asian pedagogy

Instruction is broadly conceptualised as a form of systematically manipulated input (Loewen, 2015; Loewen & Sato, 2017). However, how input is manipulated and presented to learners is subject to cultural-historically evolved beliefs of 'what works pedagogically'. Given this present study's focus on Hong Kong classrooms, traces of East Asian influences were impressionistically recorded in fieldnotes on all four CAL settings: language instruction was 'teacher-dominant', 'form-focused', and 'repetition-oriented'. Clearly, quantitative analyses revealed that these pedagogical traits manifested themselves on a continuum and differed as a function of contextual characteristics. Notably, in Grade 5 (Concentrated), Grade 8 (Concentrated), and Grade 8 (Integrated) settings, read-aloud was noted as a 'highly supervised', 'teacher-

led', 'interactive' process in which CAL learners received 'corrective feedback on word recognition and pronunciations' and were nudged to 'imitate teachers' demonstration of certain tones'. Given its inherent interactivity, read-aloud was coded as part of classroom talk. However, in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons where there were ethnic Chinese students, read-aloud turned into a task, which was noted to be 'a matter-of-fact event led by non-CAL students'. As for other notable non-verbal task use, penmanship, as a form of repetition-oriented task, was noted to be common in all four CAL settings observed. Decontextualised drills, in which exercises germane to Chinese lexis and syntax were provided in a context-reduced manner, were noted to be common.

Overall, pedagogical strategies of imitation and repetition were noted to be common across all four CAL settings, which are in broad agreement with existing iSLA literature done in East Asian contexts (see Gibson, 2008; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2008; Dahlin & Watkins, 2010; Butler, 2015). It bears repeating that while it is not this study's goal to compare the effectiveness of pedagogical strategies across settings, a general comparative perspective afforded by existing description-oriented design pointed to similarities within differences. That is, although there were noticeable differences in terms of teaching content and CAL goal orientations, there were broad similarities in terms of how content and related learning activities were structured. Such instructional structuring or manipulation in turn shaped CAL oracy and literacy experiences.

5.6. Summary

The 'Practice' domain of the present study is a descriptive endeavour *per se*, shining a much-needed exploratory light on a perennially under-researched dimension of the CAL provision: the enactment of CAL instruction across multiple settings, against the current policy backdrop of encouraging school-based solutions and devolved decision-making relating to CAL provision. There are two salient themes arising out of multiple strands of findings: instructional alignment and grouping effect.

Findings from this domain point to a central discovery: Grade 8 settings are associated with a narrower range of instructional patterns than Grade 5 counterparts. Put more specifically, in secondary school settings, there exists evidence of an instructional convergence towards a UK-based language assessment, namely GCSE Chinese Language examination which favours the use of English in assessing students' proficiency in Chinese (as illustrated in Figure 31). Noticeable level-based

effects of such instructional alignment are present across four CAL settings: on code choice (see 5.3.1 & 5.3.2), on linguistic demand (see 5.4.2), and on teaching content (see 5.5.1). Timed analysis reveals statistically significantly more teacher and student talks in English in Grade 8 settings. Function analysis demonstrates the emergence of 'translate' as a frequent act in Grade 8 settings. Translation-based tasks were also found to be the most commonplace across Grade 8 settings. Aside from code choice, Grade 8 settings were also associated with less linguistically demanding tasks. For example, more structured listening tasks and shorter reading tasks were utilised in Grade 8 settings than Grade 5 ones. Less demanding task use was coincidental with less dialogic (i.e., lecture-styled) classroom interaction. As for teaching content, Grade 8 settings discontinued from the literature-oriented approach characteristic of mainstream Chinese classes; instead, simpler content — lexically and syntactically speaking — was noted in Grade 8 settings. Considering that researcher-administered Chinese proficiency measures revealed that Grade 8 learners were no worse in terms of Chinese proficiency than Grade 5 counterparts, such a convergence may not only serve to explain why Grade 8 students on average reported feeling more bored than Grade 5 counterparts, but it may also hint at a structural mechanism of funnelling CAL students towards a below-grade-norm-standards, Chinese-as-a-foreign-language language assessment, which eventuates in a Chinese language proficiency divide that may continue to persist despite more increased governmental support.

Another prominent finding concerns the effect of mixed-abilities grouping on CAL instruction. Timed and turn analyses (see 5.3.1 and 5.3.2) reveal statistically significant differences in teacher talk in Chinese, student talk in Chinese, total number of teacher turns, mean length of teacher turns, total number of student turns, mean length of students turns between Grade 5 (Integrated) from the other three CAL settings. The effect of grouping was noticeable in all statistically significant correlational relationships between teacher turns and student turns (see scatterplots in 5.3.2). The presence of ethnic Chinese students in Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons, as a contextual characteristic, is linked to a comparatively more dialogic, interaction-rich instructional approach. Aside from these quantity-oriented analyses, quality-oriented analyses revealed unique interactional and assessment features related to Grade 5 (Integrated). For example, function analysis (see 5.3.3) reveals a higher proportion of student acts (for example, *Reply (expanded)* and *Elicit*), which suggested higher learner willingness to communicate and agency. For another example, task analysis (see 5.4) demonstrates that Grade 5 (Integrated) lessons drew upon more differentiated tasks to cater to learner diversity — given that there were a higher proportion of literacy-oriented tasks in this setting, it is probable that CAL students would benefit in the long run from this approach. Overall, the effect of mixed-abilities grouping is evident from both teacher and student variables, yielding more

L2 learning opportunities in terms of quantity and quality. However, it bears repeating that mixed grouping in the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting is a recent school-based decision, which means that Chinese Language lessons in this particular setting used to be streamed by CAL status, and that it is probable that it may take some time for this pedagogical approach to pay dividends.



TRADITIONAL/FULL CHARACTERS

A new restaurant

2 Read the advert below.

五月花餐廳

我們在市中心，火車站的旁邊。

餐廳下午五點開門到晚上十一點半，星期一休息。

歡迎你來買我們有名的烤肉和魚湯。咖啡免費。

我們餐廳能坐七十人。

Complete the gap in each sentence using a word from the box below. There are more words than gaps.

50	70	Mondays	Sundays
coffee	water	train station	bus station
roast chicken	fish soup	fruit juice	~~city centre~~

Example: The new restaurant is situated in the _____*city centre*_____ .

(a) The restaurant is next to the _____ . (1)

(b) The restaurant is closed on _____ . (1)

(c) One of the famous menu items is _____ . (1)

(d) _____ is provided free. (1)

(e) The restaurant can seat _____ people. (1)

(Total for Question 2 = 5 marks)

Figure 31 | A sample GCSE reading task designed by Pearson (Source: Pearson)

6. Phenomenology: Teacher Interviews

6.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- presents findings on the various aspects of the lived experiences of CAL teachers sampled (6.2); and
- summarises findings from teacher interviews (6.3).

6.2. What are the lived experiences of teaching CAL for Chinese Language teachers observed?

PIs were administered to four CAL teachers whose lessons were observed in the previous domain (see 3.3.3.3 for details of the sample). As summarized in Table 65, data analysis yielded a total of 81 categories relating to their lived experiences of teaching CAL. Further thematisation of these 81 categories led to the formation of 16 emergent themes, culminating in four superordinate themes: designing and developing CAL curricula (6.2.2), implementing CAL curricula (6.2.3), transitioning into CAL communities of practice (6.2.4), and becoming CAL teachers (6.2.5). For the full coding table, please refer to Appendix 11.1 on page 547. It bears repeating that the research focus — instead of being restricted to a highly homogeneous sample that might not capture the multi-faceted CAL experience — was purposively widened to explore the lived experiences of CAL teachers across continua of grades and ethnic concentration. In view of contextual heterogeneity, data were first atomised from individuals situated in different settings and then abstracted back into meaningful themes that formed the experiential structure of the experience. The impersonal experiential structure was ultimately rendered personal again through a mapping between participants whose accounts were atomised and abstracted, and the resultant structure (refer to Appendix 11.2 on page 550). Hence, findings emerging out of teacher interviews reflect the heterogeneity of the sample, while capturing the common aspects of CAL teachers' experiential accounts, which allows a more nuanced approximation of their lived experiences. For details of data analysis of PIs, refer to 3.4.3. In what follows, sub-themes (i.e., 16 emergent themes) within each superordinate theme, prefaced with a macroscopic description of the nature of the lived experiences described by these four CAL teachers, are enlarged upon with reference to representative quotations translated from teacher interviews.

Categories *Categories were semantic entities formed through combining lexical units from a single case. Categories were then harmonised across cases.*	**Emergent themes** *Emergent themes were the semantic entities harmonised across cases, manifesting an essential quality of the phenomenon under exploration.*	**Superordinate themes** *Superordinate themes were formed through combining emergent themes across cases, therefore shedding light on the experiential structure of the phenomenon.*
1. Fatigue and burnout associated with material development 2. Fatigue and burnout associated with assessment development 3. Minimal support from publishers (CAL) 4. Insufficient and untimely support from Education Bureau (CAL)	a. Fatigue and burnout related to curriculum design and development	A. Designing and developing CAL curricula *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived experience with designing and delivering CAL curricula in their respective schools)*
5. CAL formalised as a language subject 6. CAL administration 7. CAL assessment 8. CAL professional development 9. CAL support measures 10. CAL curricular documents 11. NCS students vs. 'new immigrants'	b. Demarcations of CAL as a subject	
12. Tweaking school-based curricula 13. Revamping school-based curricula 14. The spirit of experimentation 15. History of the school-based curriculum 16. Awareness of changing CAL policies	c. CAL curriculum in flux	
17. Use of Chinese classics 18. Adoption of language arts and games 19. Alignment with the local curriculum 20. Alignment with local assessments	d. Orienting CAL curriculum with the local curriculum	
21. Focus on daily Chinese 22. Focus on workplace Chinese 23. Adoption of interlingual strategies 24. Alignment with GCSE	e. Orienting CAL curriculum with the GCSE assessment and/or Applied Learning	
25. Prioritising explicit instruction 26. Prioritising comprehensibility (vocabulary instruction)	f. Common features in the implementation of CAL curricula	B. Implementing CAL curricula

27. Prioritising comprehensibility (assessment demonstration) 28. Modularisation of language skills 29. Prioritising exercises and drills 30. Infusing technology 31. Assessment for diversity management		*(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived implementation with CAL curricula in their respective schools)*
32. Separating CAL students from non-CAL (i.e., ethnic Chinese) counterparts 33. Grade-based streaming 34. Undifferentiated materials within class	g. Diversity management at the level of a grade (i.e., streaming) and undifferentiated materials	
35. Adopting mixed-abilities grouping 36. Students' self-awareness of abilities 37. Differentiated materials within class 38. Adapting CFL materials and assessments (i.e., CFL as a reference) 39. Reciprocal teaching	h. Mixed-abilities grouping and diversity management at the level of a class (i.e., differentiated materials)	
40. Language skills revolving around a story 41. Use of drama- and game-based activities 42. Maintaining a playful mood	i. Text-based modularisation (manifesting curriculum orientation)	
43. Language skills revolving around a topic 44. Emphasis on topical vocabulary items 45. Abridgement of the core texts	j. Topic-based modularisation (manifesting curriculum orientation)	
46. Memories of teaching CFL 47. Memories of learning CFL (i.e., the apprenticeship of observation) 48. Public examinations as the standard (CFL) 49. Less demand on curriculum development (CFL) 50. More support from publishers (CFL)	k. Reminiscences of days teaching CFL	C. Transitioning into CAL communities of practice *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived relation with the wider professional community)*
51. Confucian values vs. local values 52. Chinese culture and literature (CFL) 53. Chinese for specific purposes (CAL) 54. Organisational separation (CFL vs CAL) 55. High turnover rates of CAL teachers	l. Bifurcation of the Chinese Department	

56. PTH as the elephant in the room		
57. Misconceptions and misunderstandings germane to teaching CAL 58. Lack of professional collaboration 59. Moral support among CAL teachers 60. Learning from other CAL schools	m. Interaction with CAL and CFL colleagues	
61. Perceptions of high autonomy 62. Lack of Cantonese-based CAL research 63. Perceptions of diversified approaches 64. Moments of low self-efficacy 65. An emerging community of practice	n. Perceptions of the CAL teaching communities	
66. Getting accustomed to teaching CAL 67. Becoming confident and insightful 68. Desire for L2 training 69. CAL as a pursuit of personal meaning 70. Contribution to EM communities 71. Contribution to the school 72. Contribution to Hong Kong 73. Contribution to Cantonese culture 74. Contribution to generic Chinese culture	o. Development of a CAL professional identity	D. Becoming CAL teachers *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived relation with themselves, including personal sense-marking in relation to the phenomenon of teaching CAL)*
75. Problematising CAL and being critical 76. CAL as a socio-cultural issue 77. CAL as a social justice issue 78. CAL as a policy issue 79. CAL as a golden goose 80. Ethnicisation and social discrimination 81. Becoming politically correct	p. Critical consciousness	

Table 65 | An overview of qualitative findings (CAL teachers) of the 'Phenomenology' domain

6.2.1. Preamble

Macroscopically, qualitative data from PIs with CAL teachers shed light on the lived experiences of four frontline language teachers who working in different school settings with unique circumstances and histories, under the collective influence of a laissez-faire policy ecology that favours decentralised pedagogical arrangements were tasked with teaching CAL to ethnolinguistic minority learners from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. With all these variables at play, heterogeneity within their experiences of teaching CAL comes as no surprise. Yet, qualitative findings also reveal that their experiences of teaching CAL at a superordinate level coalesce into noticeable domains of professional and personal meanings, yielding an experiential structure on the multifaceted experiences of teaching CAL to minority students in postcolonial Hong Kong. The experiential structure corresponds to the four superordinate themes identified from interview data, revealing that although lived meanings based on the concrete instantiations of the 'instructed CAL' phenomenon, at the confluence of contextual and student characteristics are unquestionably heterogeneous, such heterogeneity emerges within a broad, stabilised structure. Given that these four teachers were formerly trained as Chinese-as-a-First-Language teachers (CFL) and had taught Chinese to ethnic Chinese students before, their present-day experiences with teaching CAL are ones of transitioning into their current capacities where they not only *take on fresh responsibilities* (i.e., designing and developing CAL curricula), but also *transform their preconceived notions of what teaching Chinese entails* (i.e., implementing CAL curricula) *and of what being Chinese teachers means in a collective and individual sense* (i.e., transitioning into CAL communities of practice and becoming CAL teachers).

6.2.2. Designing and developing CAL curricula

The first superordinate theme relates to CAL teachers' experiences of responding to what they deemed as an inadequate CAL infrastructure base in the current policy environment, dealing mainly with their engagement in *designing and developing CAL curricula* in their respective schools. Here, the lack of a viable CAL infrastructure signifies that there were insufficient curriculum resources upon which CAL instruction could be established and maintained, to a level that CAL teachers themselves were satisfied with. In order to cater better to unique CAL needs of those they referred to as 非華語生 /fei1 waa4 jyu5 saang1/ (non-Chinese-speaking students), all four teachers interviewed took on the roles of curriculum designers and developers. These were roles they were not professionally prepared for

Extract 45

> I'm not trained as a Chinese-as-a-second-language teacher, so I definitely felt overwhelmed when I was told to develop materials and assessments for non-Chinese-speaking students. It's especially stressful at the beginning when we're responsible for an outburst of pedagogical materials, like passages and homework assignments. To me, that's being the mastermind of a new syllabus. Planning, convincing, and developing! It's not something I needed to do when I was teaching Chinese-speaking students. Publishers have prepared everything for us, even the PowerPoint slides.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

As implied in Extract 45, the field of CAL had been characterised by the lack of a minimally viable infrastructure upon which CAL instruction could be anchored. In order to compensate for that, designing and developing CAL curricula became necessary, entailing macroscopic planning and negotiation, and the minutiae of setting learning goals and developing appropriate learning content. The latter also involved material and assessment development. Findings furthermore demonstrate that although CAL curriculum development was common in certain areas, there were fundamental differences that diversified CAL arrangements across these four CAL settings.

6.2.2.1. Fatigue and burnout related to curriculum design and development

One common theme concerns the fatigue and burnout related to curriculum design and development. Here, teacher fatigue and burnout are defined as a general state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion as a consequence of sustained exposure to certain work conditions (see also Pines & Aronson, 1988; Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003; Nayernia & Babayan, 2019).

Considering the need to compensate for the lack of CAL pedagogical materials, all four CAL teachers unanimously recounted experiences of feeling fatigued owing to the need to develop (i) pedagogical materials (e.g., textbooks, homework, graded readers) and (ii) assessment materials (e.g., quizzes, uniform tests, listening clips, examinations) for CAL purposes. These unexpected pedagogical duties constituted

a common stressor for all four CAL teachers. In this regard, Teacher 3 described that although it was tiring in her capacity as a CFL teacher (i.e., teaching Chinese to ethnic Chinese students who are usually native speakers of Cantonese), developing CAL materials was fatigue-causing in a qualitatively different way

Extract 46

> I used to be tired too… tired from correcting long compositions… and giving extended written feedback. But this is definitely different. The marking load is much lighter now but you have to put in so much effort in developing textbooks, readers, and other odd tasks. That's much more effortful than mechanical marking. If I can put it that way, it's like… it takes more 'brain power'.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

From Extract 46, Teacher 3 enlarged on the main experiential difference vis-à-vis feelings of fatigue: CAL-related fatigue was more associated with material and assessment development, whereas CFL-related fatigue related more to marking assignments. To Teacher 3, the fatigue experienced in a CAL setting was felt to be more intense in proportion.

Notably, these four CAL teachers' sense of burnout might stem from a dearth of teaching materials from local publishers, which they had had abundant access to when they were teaching Chinese to ethnic Chinese students, as remarked by Teacher 2

Extract 47

> I must say we're pampered with databases of test questions and there's no lack of reference and pedagogical materials, but not anymore. Publishers do not find Chinese-as-a-second-language books and materials lucrative and that's why we need to do everything by ourselves. It doesn't ease our workload at all when the Education Bureau is not taking the lead.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

From Extract 47, Teacher 2's lived experience of material shortage and subsequent feelings of fatigue might be read alongside the governmental intention of CAL

material development (see 4.2.3.5). Despite governmental ongoing efforts to ameliorate CAL material shortage (e.g., financing TEIs and local publishers to develop CAL pedagogical materials since the introduction of the 2014 Learning Framework), these four CAL teachers did not feel adequately supported in their experience. Their recounts could be taken as evidence of CAL material development as a crucial service gap that merits continuous policy attention.

6.2.2.2. CAL curriculum in flux

Another common theme deals with the perception that CAL curricula as planned and developed were constantly in a state of flux.

> **Extract 48**
>
> What is clear to me is that the school-based curriculum is that it changes a lot. It's unlike the mainstream curriculum. It's more stable and you know roughly what classical texts to teach, and what text types students should write…so on and so on… But, for ethnic minority learners, we're adjusting all the time. Policy changes... We can have a module one year. And we can discard that the next year. We're also learning from the wider community. If we see some good techniques that we can experiment with, we'll gladly consider them. For example, annotating texts with Jyutping *[i.e., a romanisation system for Cantonese]*, adding English translations throughout a long passage, or visualising the concept of tones with gestures and dance moves… *[paused for a few seconds]*… Or just adding in more pictures…
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

In Extract 48, the theme of CAL curricula in flux is pinpointed with Teacher 4 describing continuous refinement as part of his experience of designing and developing a school-based CAL curriculum. To illustrate his point, he cited the example of module selection for minority learners. What had been deemed appropriate might be later jettisoned. He also considered this process of adjustment as interactive with the wider CAL community where good practices shared could be translated across settings. He shared that adopting new pedagogical techniques for example, input enhancement techniques (Sharwood Smith, 1981, 1993; Sharwood Smith & Truscott, 2014) could mean regular curricular modifications.

Understandably, the experience of having taught Chinese to ethnic Chinese students becomes a frame of reference against which sensemaking of the perceived flux associated with CAL curricula was made. For example, Teacher 3 opined,

Extract 49

T2: Our school is definitely one of the pioneers in teaching Chinese to non-Chinese-speaking students. And people do wonder if we have a very strong foundation in that. The answer is 'No', or 'Not yet'! We're not hiding our expertise. As the saying goes, we're 'crossing a river by feeling our way over the stones' *[摸住石頭過河/mo2 zyu6 sek6 tau4 gwo3 ho4/; a Chinese folk saying]*. We moved a little, and then we stumbled a little. Sometimes, we had to turn back and felt our way around another stone to move ahead a bit. On the whole, I'm happy about the ample room for tolerance and understanding in our collective attempt to cross the river, and failures. There's no room for failure before.

R: By 'before', you mean before you taught ethnic minority students?

T2: Yes, when I was teaching HKDSE to Chinese kids. The path is clear and everything is 'black and white'. You just don't deviate from the right path. If you do, you're asking for trouble. The students can tell and they sometimes challenge you openly.

Teacher 3
(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)

Metaphorical use 'captures a richness of individual sensemaking or understandings about' the phenomenon under exploration (Cassel & Bishop, 2019; see also Cassel & Lee, 2012). In the experience of Teacher 3, the metaphor of 'crossing the river by feeling someone's way over the stones' pinpoints the indeterminacy constitutive of the process of designing and developing the CAL curriculum, which is contrasted with the markedly unambiguous experience of teaching CFL. The metaphor, alongside her elaboration, additionally denotes the experimentalism behind the perceived flux associated with developing the CAL curriculum.

What is noteworthy is that, for Teacher 2, the school-based CAL curriculum was subject to a greater degree of change (i.e., revamping), which differed from the incremental approach (i.e., tweaking) experienced by the other three CAL teachers. Teacher 2 remarked,

Extract 50

> Grouping students according to abilities has never been on my school's agenda but we did institute a policy of streaming at first. To do that, we separated South Asian students from Chinese-speaking students and arranged tailor-made classes to them. It had seemed the logical thing to do but our school finally decided to do away with streaming. We wanted to put Chinese-speaking students and non-Chinese-speaking students together. We reformed the whole curriculum and adopted measures to ensure comprehensibility in Chinese classes. Without doubt, we wasted some effort creating the initial curriculum, and expended some other efforts on adapting the 'first language' curriculum with supplementary materials. Make no mistake about it, it's a lot of confusion but, looking back, I must say it's worth it.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

Here, Teacher 2 indicated that school-based policies, such as streaming, played a role in school-based curriculum design and development. Implicit in Teacher 2's recount is the perception that curricular change could be framed as a trial-and-error process in search of more desirable CAL arrangements and outcomes.

6.2.2.3. Demarcations of CAL as a language subject

Relatedly, considerable energies dedicated to designing and developing CAL curricula led to the specification of learning content and the mode of assessment, which gave shape to CAL instruction across all four school settings. Notably, CAL did not manifest diffusely across the subjects (i.e., as a form of medium of instruction for non-language subjects) but took the form of concentrated instruction within the bounds of a compartmentalised language subject. For example, Teacher 2 remarked

Extract 51

> Over time, things have become more and more systematic. You can see the schemes of work across forms… textbooks… assessments… we even have our own money for after-school tutorials and other enrichment activities. On training calendar *[i.e., a type of school support services supported by the Education Bureau]*, you can see courses specific to our professional needs.

> Go to any job search sites, you can see advertisements specifically stating that they look for teachers who can work with non-Chinese-speaking students…
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

Extract 51 underscores the perceived demarcation of CAL instruction at the school level, with Teacher 2 highlighting the systematisation of CAL arrangements in her school, citing CAL-specific curricular documentation (i.e., schemes of work), pedagogical materials (i.e., textbooks and assessments), subject-based administration (i.e., after-school tutorials), professional development, and hiring practices as examples of the increased institutionalisation pertaining to the teaching of CAL in her setting.

Furthermore, as Teacher 4 suggested, such institutionalisation did not apply to the teaching of 'New Immigrants' and cross-boundary students,

> **Extract 52**
>
> I get to appreciate the gravity of the issue through the series of measures specific to non-Chinese-speaking students. You simply don't see that done to 'New Immigrant' *[新移民/san1 ji4 man4/or officially known as 'newly-arrived children]* children and cross-boundary students*[跨境學童/kwaa3 ging2 hok6 tung4/]*. You don't need to tailor-make *[度身訂造/dok6 san1 ding3 zou6/]* a separate curriculum for them.
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

Teacher 4 remarked that catering for CAL learners meant separate provision, which was not extended to newly-arrived or cross-boundary students. The former category refers generally to migrants from mainland China (see Kuah, 1999; Rao & Yuen, 2001), although its official referent 'newly-arrived children' was expanded in 2000 to include non-Chinese-speaking students who have newly arrived from their countries of origin (see Education Bureau, 2020). The latter category refers to Hong Kong-born students who study in Hong Kong yet reside in Shenzhen, which means they have to cross the border daily for schooling purposes. The number of newly arrived children is generally stable, whereas that of cross-boundary students is rising and reached around 27,000 in 2020 (news.gov.hk, 2020). Although research generally indicates that there are special educational needs including language learning ones

related to both groups (Yuen, 2018), CAL learners seem to be given noticeably more tailor-made attention, as evinced by CAL teachers' experience of the regimentation of CAL as a compartmentalised language subject with its own administration and professional development.

6.2.2.4. Orienting CAL curricula

Another feature concerns the orientation of CAL curricula at the school level. The basing of CAL curricula on the local curriculum emerges as a prominent theme among Grade 5 CAL teachers. According to the two primary CAL teachers, Grade 5 syllabi, by extension CAL curricula at primary levels, were characterised by the use of Chinese classics as a means through which orthographic and lexico-grammatical knowledge was taught. This approach resembled the approach used with ethnic Chinese students, as suggested by Teacher 1

Extract 53

> We base our planning on the local curriculum, with learning experiences similar to those you expect for Chinese-speaking students. That's why our curriculum development revolves around classical stories a lot, like Journey to the West *[i.e., an abridged version of a famous Chinese classic]* you have observed. Those are stories that Chinese students know since young and we definitely want non-Chinese-speaking students to experience this. Making use of these well-known stories, we will instruct Chinese skills… literacy, conversational abilities… word knowledge… We also include drama activities and games into the daily instruction, which are something that primary school students, regardless of ethnicities, love.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

By contrast, CAL curricula for Grade 8 counterparts oriented more towards the GCSE Chinese examination and ApL(C) (for non-Chinese speaking students) (see also 4.2.2.7 Alternative Chinese Language qualifications). Both were alternative Chinese qualifications with the former targeting UK students and the latter designed specifically for non-Chinese speaking students in Hong Kong. This orientation was evinced by an emphasis on everyday Chinese with the use of inter-lingual drills (i.e., translation tasks) and pedagogical practices (i.e., codeswitching and use of English),

or by an emphasis on vocational Chinese. As remarked by Teacher 4, this orientation was a form of strategic compliance

Extract 54

> Unquestionably, the end goal is the GCSE assessment. Our method is to build a strong foundation when students are in their junior years *[i.e., Grades 7 to 9]*. To do that, we need to design materials for that purpose. We'd incorporate question types common to that UK examination and get our students used to that mode of assessment. We have textbooks that focus on everyday Chinese, like describing weather, talking about Chinese festivals, and so on. I know it sounds strategic but acquiring Chinese is not on everyone's agenda. Of course, with the new scheme of 'Applied Learning', we're also adding in areas that deal with job types and workplace communication in general. We send the best of the best to the 'Applied Learning' scheme.
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

Despite common experiences in CAL curriculum design and development, the differences in curriculum orientation diversified CAL pedagogical arrangements across the primary-secondary continuum. It is worth noting that the noticeable misalignment between primary curricula and secondary counterparts might have explained the instructional discontinuities between Grade 5 and Grade 8 levels (see 5.6 on a summary of evidence of instructional narrowing at secondary levels), as well as influencing CAL students' CAL learning experiences within the K-12 system.

6.2.2.5. Coda

Overall, this superordinate theme relates to CAL teachers' lived experiences of responding to the lack of a viable CAL infrastructure. In experiencing this new reality, all four frontline CAL teachers recounted coming up against fatigue associated with the planning and development of different aspects of CAL curricula, particularly pedagogical materials and assessments. They furthermore described experiencing a high degree of flux associated with CAL curriculum development, while remarking on the gradual formalisation of CAL as a compartmentalised language subject. Despite contextual differences, the commingling of fatigue, flux, and formalisation is a shared feature of their respective curriculum development experiences. That said, their experiences of curriculum orientation diverged: primary settings were perceived as oriented towards the local curriculum, whereas

the secondary counterparts were described to be predominantly oriented towards an alternative qualification based in the United Kingdom (i.e., GCSE examination). Given this orientational difference, CAL teachers' experiences of CAL curriculum development were diversified. This connotes an experiential structure characterised by broadly similar themes with a degree of contextual differentiation.

6.2.3. Implementing CAL curricula

Inextricably linked to the previous superordinate theme are these four CAL teachers' lived experiences of executing what was designed and developed, namely, *how CAL curricula were implemented across settings*. This superordinate theme concerns CAL teachers' perceived transformation of what teaching Chinese at an implementational level entailed for CAL students. Although all four CAL teachers considered curriculum implementation as an instructional duty they were primarily familiar with, they described that implementing a second language curriculum was unexpectedly challenging in its own right, as opined by Teacher 3

Extract 55

> Talking is one thing, but doing it is another. The way you talk, the way you draw their attention to language rules, and the way you ensure that they understand… These were not something we normally worried ourselves about back in the days, but they become more and more important now, at least to me.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

Teacher 3's experience summarises CAL teachers' dual roles as curriculum developers and implementers, which was not part of their experience when they were CFL teachers (i.e., curriculum development as a duty shared by the government and local publishers).

Qualitative data under this superordinate theme indicate a series of shared features in implementing CAL curricula across these four CAL settings, although their perceived intensity and manifestation varied. At the same time, given the differences in curriculum orientation and other contextual constraints (refer to 6.2.2.4), fundamental differences in the way CAL curricula were implemented were also identified from CAL teachers' descriptions.

6.2.3.1. Shared features in implementing CAL curricula

Among the shared features in implementing CAL curricula is CAL teachers' gravitation towards explicit instructional techniques. Explicit instruction is understood as a type of broadly deductive language instruction that emphasises the provision of metalinguistic information, whereas implicit instruction is more concerned with an immersive approach where learners are not explicitly taught the target features under focus (Ellis, 2015; see also Shintani, Li, & Ellis, 2013). It is clear that there was general prioritisation of explicit instruction from CAL teachers' descriptions, as Teacher 2 suggested,

Extract 56

> I used to be one of those who thought there is no grammar for Chinese. I take a different view now. I'm becoming more analytical in the way I approach my mother tongue. It's definitely something very different because I didn't have to explain rules of the language that much in the past. They *[Chinese-speaking students]* arrive in the classrooms with naturally formed language abilities *[渾然天成嘅語言能力 /wan 4 jin4 tin1 sing4 ge3 jyu5 jin4 nang4 lik6/]* most of the time. I mean, I still needed to explain the plot and moral of the set text, and pointed out typos in their writings. But now, it's like I'm zooming in, and I'm focusing on different parts of a character, radicals, contrasting sounds and tones, and sentence patterns… it's just a totally different approach!
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In the above extract, Teacher 2 disclosed that she used to take a more inductive and implicit approach towards implementing the curriculum, in part because ethnic Chinese learners mostly came equipped with what she perceived as naturally formed language abilities, which evokes her Chomskyan conception of language acquisition for CFL (i.e., ethnic Chinese) learners (Chomsky, 1965). However, taking up CAL duties, she began transforming the way she taught Chinese, turning increasingly explicit and analytical with more emphasis on orthographic knowledge, and contrastive instruction on Cantonese sounds and tones. This swing of the instructional pendulum towards the metalinguistic side might be connected to the teacher belief that second language learning is, in essence, a form of rule learning, as opined by Teacher 3

Extract 57

> Learning Chinese as a second language surely is like learning Maths. Am I right? In order to learn it at all, you have to know the basics like 1+1 equals 2, right? The same with Chinese. For example, the meaning behind a radical… Or how some characters cluster together semantically… That's why we want to teach them the rules in a very clear way so they become aware of the rules and apply them.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

Implied in this kind of rule-based conception of second language learning is the belief that, before language learning becomes procedural, declarative knowledge is fundamental. Over time, declarative knowledge becomes automatised into procedural knowledge (Ellis, 2015). However, it should be noted that CAL teachers' gravitation towards an explicit approach was experienced as linked to how learning content was configured (see also 6.2.3.3). This is, predominantly explicit instruction in CAL settings was not realised in isolation, but in integration with meaning-oriented materials. In doing so, some degree of contextualisation was made possible. Yet, as will be shown below, the manifestation of these episodes of 'explicit instruction' varied and was subject to the mode of CAL content configuration, curriculum orientation, among other things.

Closely linked to the above are teachers' common attempts to ensure comprehensibility in both vocabulary instruction and the administering of assessment tasks. This feature is different from explicit instruction because the prioritisation of comprehensibility is more concerned with rendering input as understandable as instructionally possible to CAL learners, whereas 'explicit instruction' is associated more with the provision of metalinguistic instruction. For example, concerning vocabulary instruction, English translations were used to promote comprehension in both secondary CAL settings. While English is usually not the first language of CAL learners, it was used as a common language through which comprehensibility could be ensured. For example, Teacher 4 described his routine while introducing new vocabulary items in his Grade 8 CAL classroom

Extract 58

> I would say that I expend more energy on making sure that non-Chinese-speaking students understand the phrases I'm talking

about. As you may agree, Chinese is a language of characters and phrases so understanding them is the key. What I usually do now is to pronounce the new words and phrases slowly, to focus on the tonal variation, and then give the English translations. Other times, I will say a previously taught character or phrase, and ask them what it means to check if they know. Usually some kids would volunteer to say the English translation. If they don't understand the words and phrases being taught, they will just zone out… I definitely don't want them to daydream!

Teacher 4
(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)

It is notable from Teacher 4's recount that whenever comprehension checks were conducted, Teacher 4 allowed the use of English. Teacher 4's willingness to use English as an inter-lingual strategy in vocabulary instruction, probably related to the broader curriculum orientation towards a UK-based GCSE Chinese examination, could be contrasted with Teacher 1's method of ensuring comprehensibility

Extract 59

T1: When I'm introducing new characters and phrases, I like doing whole-class activities. I will write those words onto the blackboard and use chalk of different colours to break the character down. I want them to understand the meaning of each part. And I want them to know that they can guess the meaning of a character or a phrase by paying attention to the parts. I also use a lot of pictures and drawing to illustrate my point and let them guess.
R: How about using English to explain?
T1: Umm… I don't really prefer that personally. I do talk to them in English sometimes, like, during class teacher periods. But, in lesson time, I tried to keep that to a minimum. They can use Google Translate as they like, and some do. I allow that but I just don't think they should get the English meaning from me and stop guessing the meaning on their own.

Teacher 1
(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)

From Extract 59, Teacher 1 described adopting an extra-lingual approach to ensuring comprehensibility in her CAL lessons. Chiefly, she mentioned the use of chalks of different colours, pictures, and drawing as teaching strategies as part of the

vocabulary instruction she adopted. These ways of promoting comprehensibility involved visual cues and drew upon learners' multimodal resources with little recourse to English, which is markedly different from secondary CAL teachers' strategies promoting comprehensibility (see 5.5.1 for a discussion on the manifestation of translanguaging in CAL settings observed).

As for administering learning tasks and homework, there was demonstrable attention paid to ensuring that students understood what those tasks required. Comprehensibility was usually ensured in the form of whole-class demonstrations and task repetition. Here, teachers made sense of their instructional transformation vis-à-vis their former role as a CFL teacher, as Teacher 2 described

Extract 60

> Administering new tasks takes a lot of skills. You have to walk them *[CAL students]* through the whole process. I have to demonstrate how it can be finished with my students. Otherwise, they will just give your poorly-finished assignments. I always remind myself: what Chinese-speaking students can do on autopilot might be totally confusing to South Asian students. I need to hold their hands through the process first and they will be able to stand on their own.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

CAL teachers interviewed also remarked on their emphasis on exercises and drills to promote explicit awareness among CAL learners. This lived emphasis on exercises and drills may be linked to the prioritisation of explicit instruction and comprehensibility. Here, drills and exercises are categorised as distinct from yet related to explicit instruction because the former emphasises the role of output in developing language skills, whereas the latter stresses the role of input. CAL teachers' descriptions revealed that exercises and drills were used to help nurture fundamental language abilities, for example, grapheme-syllable learning (see Tan & Liu, 2018) in the case of Teacher 3

Extract 61

> Reading set texts aloud is a pedagogical strategy I use a lot. It's a good way to offer guidance that helps students link the sound *[音/jam1/]* and the form *[形/jing4/]*. You know, form, sound, meaning. Building the linkage between 'form' and 'sound' is fundamental

> to learning Chinese. If they don't know a character, they can listen along and try to pronounce it. The more they practise, the more likely the linkage can be formed. It takes time. And repeated practice *[重複練習/cung4 fuk1 lin6 zaap6/]*.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

Teacher 3's preference for read-alouds (Price & Bradley, 2015), which is a shared feature in implementing CAL curricula among these four teachers, may be rooted in the belief that word recognition is integral to more complex language processing, and that automatised word recognition, contingent upon sound auditory-visual binding, can happen without being encumbered by the semantic dimension of the character. Once the linkage between form and sound is formed, a foundation has been laid in Cantonese and, by extension, Standard Written Chinese. In Teacher 3's experience, repeated practice mattered if one was to develop form-sound associations through using read-alouds as a form of pattern practice.

Besides read-alouds, decontextualised practices were a common part of these four teachers' experiences of teaching CAL in local schools. For example, CAL teachers described employing copying/penmanship as a kind of pattern practice for CAL students, with the goal of enabling CAL students to produce tightly controlled output independently (i.e., character recognition and production; see also 5.4.2 for task use in CAL lessons observed). For another example, dictation is commonly utilised as a decontextualised drill, as revealed by Teacher 2

> **Extract 62**
>
> Dictation *[默書/mak6 syu1/]* is core to my instructional strategy. To non-Chinese-speaking students, it's hard as it takes a lot of revision and rapid handwriting. But, that's the best way to bridge oracy and literacy. And with non-Chinese-speaking students, I have to be less demanding. I cannot dictate a whole paragraph the way I usually do to Chinese-speaking students. You have to begin with phrases, then 'golden sentences', and probably a few sentences.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

To Teacher 2, dictation was classified as a more challenging task than copying/penmanship because dictation as a decontextualised exercise entailed prior revision and rapid handwriting abilities (i.e., sound orthographic knowledge).

Teacher 2 also highlighted the fact that dictation had to be carefully implemented such that the difficulty level was appropriate to CAL learners.

From these descriptions of their teaching practices in CAL, it can be inferred that their pedagogical actions, particularly their use of exercises and drills, seem to be rooted in their belief that learning Chinese involves a high degree of memorisation and repetition, as evinced by their use of classical four-character idioms such as 博聞強記 /bok3 man4 koeng5 gei3/ (having wide learning and a retentive memory) (Teacher 1) and 熟能生巧 /suk6 nang4 saang1 haau2/ (practice makes perfect) (Teachers 2 & 4) that stress the role of memory and practice in learning Chinese.

Moreover, all four CAL teachers generally described technology use as an integral part of their lived experiences (refer also to 5.4.1 for a discussion on technology use in CAL tasks). Here, technology use entails the use of computerised hardware and programmed software (e.g., tablets, smartphones, and/or computers; language learning programmes, and/or applications) both inside and outside CAL classrooms, and/or an electronic platform and network (e.g., learning management sites, and/or YouTube) in which some forms of CAL input and output were engaged and/or managed. Given the prevalence of technology-assisted learning in modern classrooms (Becker, 2000; Hennessy, Ruthven, & Brindley, 2005), its infusion across all four CAL classrooms comes as no surprise.

Teacher 2 enlarged on how technology was integrated vis-à-vis her daily pedagogical activities in a primary CAL setting

> **Extract 63**
>
> Technology plays an indispensable role in my lessons as it's such a great motivator, and it's a powerful medium in which learning is engaged. I like trailing new techniques and methods. Almost every lesson, there's an element of technology. I use PowerPoint to show set texts and deliver learning content. Sometimes, I use the visualiser and do a live demonstration of how a character can be written in the right stroke order. Also, I love inviting kids to demonstrate their classwork using that method. Sometimes, I ask them to read aloud a passage at home, record it, and send it to me via eClass. Other times, I allow them to use iPads owned by the school and write with support from dictionary. They really look forward to using iPad in class.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

Teacher 2 perceived technology use as central to her instruction, which consisted of predominantly teacher-controlled and pre-planned CAL activities. In her experience, technology use served to replace old instructional methods (e.g., employing the visualiser/PowerPoint instead of the blackboard), and/or to transform existing ones (e.g., homework and computer-assisted language learning). In secondary CAL settings, technology use was further broadened with the use of smartphones, and established electronic learning management systems such as Moodle and Google Classroom

Extract 64

T1: Apart from the usual, like using PowerPoint and playing YouTube videos, I personally like giving them electronic homework. It's easy to manage when you have a platform like Google Classroom. It's harder in the beginning but gradually they become used to it. It's easy to assign more homework because of technology. You can tell who does not submit and their progress is tracked. I don't allow them to use smartphones in class as the class size is huge it'd be hard to manage. Sometimes, I arrange tablets for them to use in class but they have to work in pairs…

R: Do students have only electronic homework?

T1: Not really, I do ask them to do pen-and-paper work, which will be counted as part of the Daily Marks *[as a form of continuous assessment alongside the end-of-term examination]*. Comparatively, online work is more casual... For example, I sometimes ask my kids to follow stroke order instructions I uploaded on Google Classroom, ask them to write those characters on a piece of paper for 10 times, and finally take photos of their handwriting and upload them onto the site. Is that electronic or pen-and-paper? Sometimes, I ask them to read a short paragraph online, and ask them to give a verbal response based on the text, and upload that recording onto Google Classroom. Is that electronic or pen-and-paper?

Teacher 3
(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)

From Extract 64, technology use in Teacher 3's Grade 8 lessons was less teacher-controlled with noticeable leeway given to the way CAL students engaged with ICT. The integration of technology into existing pen-and-paper homework routines had the following pedagogical features described: (i) tracking of submission records; (ii)

tracking of student performance; (iii) blurred boundaries across modalities; and (iv) increased output with the ease of administering assessment. These technology-aided features constituted Teacher 3's experience of teaching Chinese in CAL classrooms.

Extract 65

> I let my kids use smartphones in class. I usually have these sessions where they can translate from English to Chinese. That's why smartphones come in handy. They can browse words using the dictionary, or Google Translate if they want. Of course, not everyone has a smartphone, but they can always work in pairs or groups…
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

That CAL students could use their personal devices exemplifies the high degree of freedom allowed in Teacher 4's CAL lessons. Students in this setting were given a pedagogical task to finish, assisted by applications of students' choosing (e.g., built-in dictionaries, and Google Translate), which furnished a source of lexical support. To summarise, technology-assisted language learning was common to these four CAL teachers' lived experiences, although the extent to which technology use was teacher-controlled and -monitored varied.

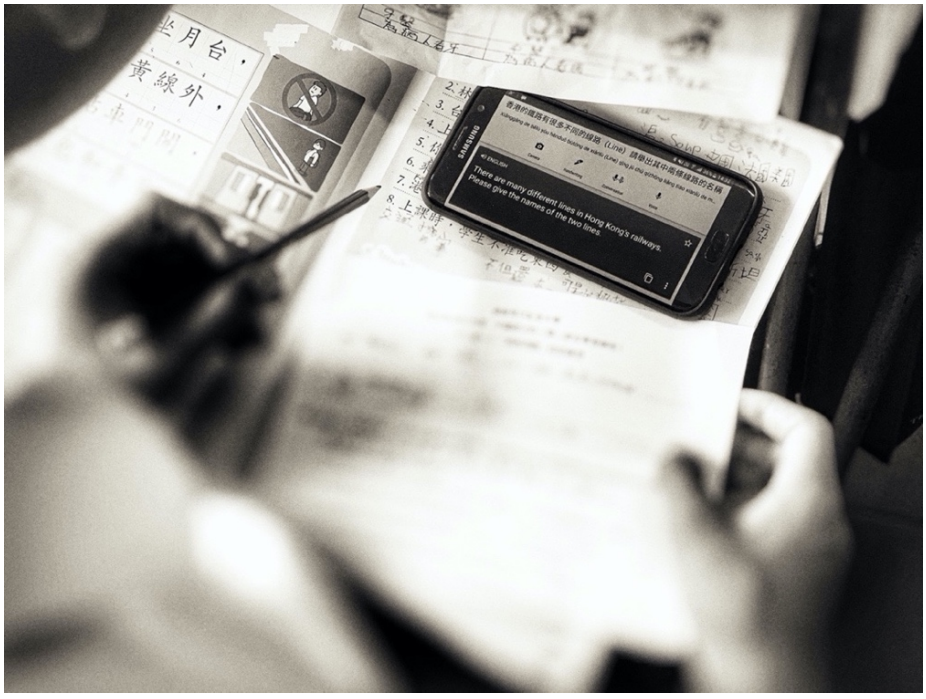


Figure 32 | A student finishing a translation task aided by technology

Lastly, CAL teachers' descriptions underscore the use of language assessment for diagnostic and diversity management purposes. Academic literature generally agrees that assessment is used for various purposes: chiefly assessment-*of*-learning and assessment-*for*-learning. On one hand, in an examination-oriented education system such as Hong Kong's (see Lee & Coniam, 2013), assessment-*of*-learning drives much of the pedagogical action in classrooms. On the other hand, apart from facilitating learning in general, assessment-*for*-learning also serves to diagnose CAL students' learning needs and, by extension, manage diversity. In CAL settings, the term 前測 /cin4 cak1/ (pre-assessment) was regularly mentioned as part of CAL teachers' experiences of teaching Chinese, highlighting the importance of employing assessment for diversity management purposes

Extract 66

> We sort our students into groups, using pre-assessment *[前測 /cin4 cak1/]* because non-Chinese-speaking students vary a lot in their Chinese abilities. It's better to teach according to their levels *[因材施教/jan1 coi4 si1 gaau3/; a Confucian concept on education]*.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

Pre-assessment, in Teacher 1's experience, was integral to how learner diversity was managed. Specifically, CAL students were sorted based on the criteria prescribed in pre-assessment and taught in a level deemed appropriate to them. In describing her experience, Teacher 1 evoked the Confucian concept of 'teaching students according to their abilities/aptitude' as a basis of adopting pre-assessment.

Pre-assessment is also connected to the perceived flux as identified in the previous superordinate theme (see 6.2.2.2)

Extract 67

> When they're in S1 *[i.e., Secondary One; Grade 7]*, we administered pre-assessment to check what abilities they are capable of. We usually adapt the ones provided by the EDB. Student ability is different from year to year, I would say. Some students are absolute beginners. Some are quite proficient in Cantonese conversations. You really have to do something about such diversity. That's why the role of 'form coordinators' *[a pedagogical role responsible for coordinating CAL instruction for a specific grade*

level] is important in my school – they would tweak the curriculum accordingly.

Teacher 3
(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)

Teacher 3 characterised pre-assessment as integral to the instructional process. With pre-assessment, information on CAL students' Chinese abilities could be elicited, which then fed back into a feedback loop that was managed by a grade-specific CAL teacher (i.e., 'form/grade coordinator') responsible for curriculum adjustment. These common experiences with implementing pre-assessment may be reflective of their broader experiences of teaching CAL students of varying Chinese abilities, a theme that will be highlighted below.

6.2.3.2. Learner diversity management: streaming or differentiated materials?

Interview data from these four frontline CAL teachers suggest that, against a backdrop of a primarily laissez-faire policy ecology, their experiences of teaching CAL diverge over the issue of how learner diversity was managed as part of their respective school-based policies: diversity as managed through *a policy of grade-based streaming* (Teachers 1, 3, and 4), versus diversity as managed through *differentiated materials* (Teacher 2). This divergence of experience vis-à-vis perceived learner diversity suggests that the very structure of CAL resources and access to CAL learning opportunities across these four CAL settings might also be different across these four CAL settings (see 7.2.2.4 for findings on CAL students' experience of CAL instruction; see also Morrison, Lumby, & Sood, 2006).

First of all, in CAL settings where Teachers 1, 3, and 4 were situated, diversity was managed through distinguishing between CAL and non-CAL learners, separating them into two groups, and streaming CAL students into different groups for more targeted CAL instruction. Notably, through this grade-based streaming policy, two models of Chinese language provision were present in these three settings: one that was reserved for students with native and native-like proficiency in Chinese language and literacy (i.e., a CFL curriculum for ethnic Chinese students and exceptionally proficient CAL learners); and one that was designed specifically for CAL learners (i.e., Teachers 3 and 4) or simplified from the CFL curriculum (i.e., Teacher 1).

Extract 68

Grouping *[分組 /fan1 zou2/]* matters in my school because non-Chinese-speaking students simply cannot handle the local

curriculum. Well, even local Chinese students fail in it so it's definitely something they *[CAL learners]* want to avoid. That's why we separate them into two streams. Of course, for ethnic Chinese students, they don't really have a choice they will be in the local stream, even when they're on track to fail it. But, for non-Chinese-speaking students, we base this decision on their actual abilities. There are always, I imagine, one or two students who are like Nabela Qoser *[a local ethnic minority journalist and broadcaster known for her Chinese abilities]*, and they can definitely join the Chinese-speaking students. Well, in our school, practically 99% of the non-Chinese-speaking students receive the simplified curriculum *[i.e., GCSE]*.

Teacher 4
(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)

In Teacher 4's experience, the Chinese proficiency divide between ethnic Chinese students and CAL counterparts necessitated streaming such that diversity could be managed. The case was found to be remarkably similar in the other secondary CAL setting, as Teacher 3 revealed

Extract 69

T3: Grouping is key. Grouping by abilities is a top priority. Although Chinese-speaking students are the minority, we cater for them by delivering the local HKDSE curriculum. As for non-Chinese-speaking students, we also put them into different groups such that instruction and materials can be more targeted. We group them by their abilities, while considering their learning attitude and motivation.
R: I'm wondering if they can choose the HKDSE stream.
T3: Theoretically yes, but I don't witness that at all. Well, the HKDSE curriculum is a nightmare even for local Chinese-speaking students so it's to be shunned.
R: How about capable non-Chinese-speaking students?
T3: We'll nominate them to opt for Applied Learning (Chinese) where they get to learn about practical Chinese for vocational purposes. GCSE is easy for these smart students.

Teacher 3
(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)

Apart from showcasing Teacher 3's experience of managing perceived learner diversity as part of CAL curriculum implementation, Extract 69 evinces Teacher 3's

sensemaking in relation to streaming students based on their ascribed status (i.e., CAL students, or the derogatory referent NCS students) and Chinese abilities, as well as learning attitudes and motivation. Interestingly, both CAL teachers at secondary levels held the belief that the HKDSE examination was unreasonably hard as a high-stakes assessment (even for native Chinese-speaking learners), with Teacher 3 opining that striving for the HKDSE curriculum might not be a meaningful experience for CAL learners and that Applied Learning (Chinese) was sufficient for capable CAL learners. Both secondary CAL teachers' recounts align with the findings indicative of instructional narrowing in the 'Practice' domain (see 5.6). For a discussion on CAL language assessment policies, refer to 4.2.2.7 for relevant findings.

In the ethnically concentrated primary setting where streaming was adopted, Teacher 1 demonstrated a largely similar logic, albeit orienting the curriculum towards CFL standards (see 6.2.2.4 for a discussion on CAL curriculum orientation at primary levels)

Extract 70

> Chinese students are never really separated from non-Chinese-speaking students. They get to interact with one another, if they want. It's just when it comes to learning Chinese, we don't think it makes sense to put Chinese-speaking and non-Chinese-speaking students together, for obvious reasons. It's not anything near racial segregation in the US! For example, I focus a lot on Chinese characters in the non-Chinese-speaking class surely, Chinese-speaking students will find such 'character-based instruction' repetitive.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In Teacher 1's, streaming students into different groups was a crucial instructional strategy. However, Extract 70 suggests that streaming was experienced differentially across educational levels. At the primary level, streaming was not adopted to enable qualitatively different curricula for learners (as in HKDSE and GCSE), but to allow for a simplified version of the mainstream curriculum. That is, although teachers from these three settings described the policy of streaming as part of their experiences of managing perceived diversity, there existed nuances in the manifestation and desired outcomes of the streaming policy.

Apart from managing diversity through streaming, there existed another model of diversity management in the ethnically integrated primary setting, as revealed earlier in Extract 50. This model of diversity management aimed to establish a common curriculum for both ethnic Chinese and language minority learners. Extract 50 further reveals that the school had adopted some form of streaming, yet decided to discard streaming and cope with learner diversity through differentiated materials. In Extract 71, Teacher 2 added that decision of putting ethnic Chinese learners alongside CAL learners was pedagogically motivated

Extract 71

> Umm, we never believe in streaming. Students of different abilities should learn together and from each other. And Chinese-speaking students can be mini teachers and role models for non-Chinese-speaking students. Also, we did observe that streaming seemed to widen the gap between Chinese-speaking and non-Chinese-speaking students, which was the main reason why we thought we should stop relying on streaming. Overall, I prefer the new arrangement but we're still exploring.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In Teacher 2's experience, the jettisoning of the school's streaming policy afforded pedagogical opportunities, such as reciprocal teaching and peer modelling, that would otherwise be impossible in a streamed-abilities setting. Furthermore, the success of mixed-abilities grouping depended, in large part, on the use of differentiated materials in the same classroom, which was identified to be a unique feature of Teacher 2's experience of teaching CAL

Extract 72

> We devised a material differentiation system we called 'star-moon-sun'. Learner materials are differentiated into three levels they broadly share the same structure yet the content varies in difficulty. The 'sun' version is the hardest and will be used on Chinese-speaking students. Some capable non-Chinese-speaking students were also using this version. Then the 'moon' version for average non-Chinese-speaking students. The difficulty level for this set is reduced. Then, we have the 'star' version which is the least difficult version with plenty of scaffolding. Overall, learners know whether they are sun, moon, or star and they can progress up with ease, which would not be possible when they're separated

through streaming. It *[i.e., streaming students into groups]* would have been administratively difficult to do so because it's not good for a student to go to an entirely new class in the middle of an academic year.

Teacher 2
(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)

Teacher 2 elaborated on the mechanism behind material differentiation, which was divided into three difficulty levels. Such an arrangement allowed learners to know what level they were in, with the additional benefit of enabling capable CAL learners to progress up within the same academic year. This agility in progression was deemed a merit by Teacher 2. This means that more capable CAL learners were given the opportunities to use materials traditionally reserved for ethnic Chinese students, while reaping the potential benefits of learning in a mixed-abilities space.

6.2.3.3. Configuration of CAL content: text-based or topic-based?

Apart from diversity management, results of the analysis suggest that CAL content configuration is another area of divergence. From teachers' accounts, CAL learning content was generally modularised, which provided contexts on which learning content could be based. However, its manifestation varied across grade levels: primary settings had a preference for structuring content around core texts (i.e., text-based), whereas secondary settings tended to base content around topics (i.e., topic-based). This grade-based difference in implementing CAL curricula reflects the broader divergence in curriculum design and development (see 6.2.2.4 for a discussion on CAL curriculum orientation).

In both primary settings, CAL teachers recounted anchoring the unit/module around 經典 /ging1 din2/ (classics), 故仔 /gu3 zai2/ (stories), and 範文 /faan6 man4/ (set texts). This mode of configuring CAL learning content shaped the kind of pedagogical activities that CAL teachers employed. For example, in Teacher 1's classroom, drama activities and games followed from the adoption of *Journey to the West* as a set text

Extract 73

As you can see, our units are based on classical Chinese stories. They're fun to read and a lot can be done with them. For example, drama. You can invite students to perform certain parts of the dialogue, or imagine a scene. Sometimes, we do have units based on practical writing, like expository writing... I always try to make

> the lesson fun by designing some simple games to get my students engaged better in Chinese learning. Sometimes, it can be as simple as competitions between teams, or gamifying certain tasks. They love those.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

From the above extract, Teacher 1 explained the CAL lessons were based on units that mainly revolved around set texts. Those texts were mainly classical Chinese stories and folklore, with some non-fiction text types. Teacher 1 furthermore added that, because of the nature of the content (i.e., fiction-oriented content with dialogues and scenes), she described the use of drama- and game-based activities as part of her experience. A similar mode of learning content organisation is identified from Teacher 2's descriptions

> **Extract 74**
>
> Our school-based materials have great fidelity to the local curriculum's. It's full of literary elements that enable our students to be immersed in the world of classics. Each unit has a main story: sometimes, those ancient folk tales we all know so well; sometimes, world literature. Because of that, we have a weekly drama lesson dedicated to the drama-related activities emerging out of the text being taught. As for writing, we have a wider range of set texts, not just fiction, but also practical genres, such as letters, descriptive writing, and expository writing. In terms of teaching methods, it's definitely fun, interactive, and experiential. For example, when asking students to write an expository piece on plants, I brought in potted plants from the campus and let them observe them and discuss in groups.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

It is clear from both Extracts 73 and 74 that both CAL teachers from the primary settings organised their CAL content (and by implication instructional activities) in a broadly similar fashion. In Teacher 2's experience, content configuration was characterised by centripetal attention to 教緊嘅篇章 /gaau3 gan2 ge3 pin1 zoeng1/ (the text being taught), with the use of drama-based activities (as corroborated with task analysis in 5.4.2, particularly Table 63). Practical genres were also taught, which was mentioned by Teacher 1 in Extract 73. That means, while content was organised around a set text, a module might feature a range of text types with a view to teaching

certain language skills. Together, both extracts underscore both primary CAL teachers' implementation of a curricular orientation towards the local curriculum in Chinese.

However, findings relating to both secondary settings surface a noticeably distinct pattern in configuring learning content in CAL. Instead of basing modules on set texts, secondary CAL teachers described that learning content was usually organised topically and thematically, with their descriptions of CAL implementation consistently couched in a discourse oriented towards the UK-based GCSE Chinese assessment. For example, Teacher 3 remarked

Extract 75

> We base our teaching materials on the GCSE syllabus which has… four or five themes? I don't remember the number. Considering that they're going to take the examination in senior grades, we have to develop their competence in those themes as early as possible. Those themes touch on local culture, school life, vocation, etc. Basically, the kind of topics you expect in English lessons, right? It's quite basic *[簡單 /gaan2 daan1/]* yet they're important for general communication *[一般嘅溝通 /jat1 bun1 ge3 kau1 tung1/]*, which is exactly what they need in Hong Kong.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

The above extract by Teacher 3 echoes Extract 54 where Teacher 4 touched on the theme of orienting the school-based CAL curriculum towards the GCSE syllabus. Both extracts reveal that preparations for the UK-based assessment began as early as junior secondary forms. Here, Teacher 3 revealed that the topic-based mode of curriculum implementation was in alignment with GCSE assessment's preference for a topical and thematic approach towards content organisation. Apart from characterising CAL instruction as analogous to English-as-a-second/foreign-language instruction, Teacher 3 went on to reveal that, in order to implement this approach, highly specific vocabulary lists provided by the examination authority were drawn upon

Extract 76

> One way to implement the GCSE curriculum is to really study the document specifying the syllabus. There are vocabulary lists featured there so they provide a useful starting point. Every unit

> is structured with the aim of introducing and reinforcing those vocabulary items to non-Chinese-speaking learners. There would be dictation assessments, worksheets, mini writing tasks, and reading passages in each unit.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

The vocabulary lists for the GCSE assessment formed the foundation upon which a topic-based unit was based. This mode of modularisation, in Teacher 3's experience, was largely lexically driven, which correlated with the use of highly decontextualised tasks, including but not limited to 默書測驗 /mak6 syu1 cak1 jim6/ (dictation assessments) and 工作紙 /gung1 zok3 zi2/ (worksheets). As for Teacher 4, a similar discourse pertaining to the topical modularisation of learning content was identified,

> **Extract 77**
>
> Umm… the way we simplify the curriculum is not random. We focus on curricular documents and exemplars from the GCSE and A-Level examination authorities. There is much emphasis on thematic vocabulary and that forms the backbone of what we teach. What is different from the local curriculum is that we no longer retain an appreciative focus on classical and modern texts, and that reading and writing tasks are significantly trimmed to reflect the GCSE curriculum better. Of course, we need to drill topical vocabulary items into the learners' repertoire. It's quite daily and 'down-to-earth' in nature, whereas the local curriculum can be highbrow and elitist.
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

Overall, both Teachers 3 and 4 described making reference to curricular documents related to the GCSE examination (as well as the A-Level examination in Teacher 4's case) to make decisions about the thematic-lexical approach both were taking to CAL curriculum implementation. Particularly, from Extract 77, Teacher 4 deemed it as a principled process, instead of 亂嚟 /lyun6 lei4/ (random). Importantly, Teacher 4's description juxtaposes CAL and CFL curricula as 'down-to-earth' (i.e., more emphasis on daily communications) and 'highbrow' (i.e., more emphasis on classical literature and advanced Chinese) respectively, exemplifying the fundamental differences between both curriculum orientations.

6.2.3.4. Coda

Similar to curriculum design and development, qualitative findings on these four frontline CAL teachers' curriculum implementation across CAL settings indicate both commonalities and differences. Noticeably, CAL teachers interviewed tended to make sense of CAL curriculum implementation vis-à-vis their training and professional experiences in implementing CFL curricula and standards. On the one hand, CAL teachers uniformly described the adoption of similar instructional strategies namely, the prioritisation of explicit instruction, comprehensibility, and decontextualised drilling that reflected their shared beliefs in second language acquisition. On the other hand, given highly devolved decision-making in the current laissez-faire CAL policy ecology, there existed diversified experiences in implementing CAL curricula. Frontline CAL teachers' recounts revealed two major divergences. First, diversity was managed differently, such as, streaming and the use of differentiated materials. Second, CAL learning content was configured differently. In sum, despite shared experiential accounts of CAL beliefs and practices, CAL curricula were subject to school-based differences, with grade level being a determining factor. That is, the experiences of CAL curriculum implementation, despite the similarities, are more diversified in primary settings than secondary ones.

6.2.4. Transitioning into CAL communities of practice

Apart from the above, frontline CAL teachers' accounts of teaching CAL also touch upon shared meanings as they were transitioning from CFL teaching communities into CAL ones. This lived relation with the broader professional transition emerges as a significant theme from interview data. As illustrated above, CAL teachers' experiences were linked, in large part, to their former identities as CFL teachers. Their former identities became a vital reference point in their collective professional transition into the CAL teaching communities, as Teacher 1 revealed

Extract 78

> I feel like I have experienced a sort of growth… metamorphosis… And it's not just me. Otherwise, that might be quite scary. It's good to have a team which experiences that together. All the meetings together. Attending PD *[an abbreviation standing for professional development]* workshops together. Sometimes, we even record listening clips together for examinations and tests.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

From Extract 78, Teacher 1 highlighted the collective experience as colleagues in her school were drawn closer because of CAL-related issues. The palpable sense of an emerging CAL community of practice was further echoed by Teacher 3

Extract 79

> At the very beginning when the school was making the transition, I volunteered to teach ethnic minority students. A couple of teachers from the Department *[i.e., the Chinese Department of the school]* did that too. Together, we formed this task force and it has gradually become more and more important as the school became popular among EM *[a shortened form of ethnic minority]* parents. And we have some common visions so we collaborate to realise them! We're becoming more knowledgeable as a unit you're only as effective as the team is.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

These extracts evince the emergence of a community of practice formed by people who share common missions towards a joint enterprise, and accumulate shared knowledge from having engaged with the joint enterprise (see Lave & Wenger, 1991).

6.2.4.1. Reminiscences of days of teaching CFL

Considering that all four CAL teachers interviewed were formerly CFL teachers and were trained as such, their respective processes of adjusting to the role differentiation between CFL and CAL constitute an integral part of their lived experiences. In this regard, one common facet of these four CAL teachers' professional transition concerns their memories of teaching CFL, and/or of their former professional engagement with CFL issues. Reminiscences refer here to the acts of recollecting and reviewing past experiences and events with a view to fulfilling various psychological functions, such as identity and sensemaking (see Webster, 1993, 2003).

Extract 80

> I do look back with fondness because I'm quite a fan of the traditional way. From the way I learned through nursery rhymes

and poems, then classical tales and novels. To the way I got trained in university. It's been always about nurturing my love towards literature. But, in my present capacity, it's quite hard sometimes to communicate this love because students struggle even with basic words.

Teacher 2
(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)

In Extract 80, Teacher 2 reminisced about 'the traditional way', which she revealed was concerned with learning Chinese through literature and language arts. Such a literature-based approach to teaching Chinese, however, was at odds with her existing experience of teaching CAL (i.e., more emphasis placed on literal understanding than literary appreciation).

Similar reminiscences about the CFL days can be found in Extracts 81 and 82 by Teachers 4 and 3 respectively

Extract 81

Quite frankly, I'm a product of a highly examination-driven culture. You know, HKCEE and HKALE[33]. I still remembered reciting classical poems and memorising sayings from set texts. To me, that's the allure of that system because you clearly know what your goals are. It may be flawed and stressful but it's definitely created generations of highly articulate Chinese users with a love of literature.

Teacher 4
(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)

Extract 82

What I missed *[掛住 /gwaa3 zyu6/]* most about the old days *[referring to days when she's teaching CFL]* was that I just needed to teach and mark assignments. It's quite carefree *[無憂無慮 /mou4 jau1 mou4 leoi6/]*. And you're quite pampered by the publisher with the textbook, question banks, and even software with a fully developed sets of PowerPoint slides. Now, it's a different story.

[33] Please note that both are precursors of the HKDSE Examination.

Teacher 3
(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)

From the above extracts, different aspects of the CFL days were mentioned as part of CAL teachers' descriptions of their lived experience. In Extract 81, Teacher 4 expressed admiration for the now-defunct examination systems (i.e., HKCEE and HKALE), which he believed set very clear standards in terms of what learners could aspire towards. In Extract 82, Teacher 3 characterised teaching CFL as involving fewer curriculum development duties, with greater support from local publishers. Altogether, these descriptions of CAL teachers' former experiences with CFL evince the extent to which their lived experiences of teaching CAL were being shaped by their CFL identities, while shedding light on this common feature of their experiences of transitioning into the CAL communities.

6.2.4.2. Bifurcation of the Chinese Department

However, interview data suggest that the experiences of transitioning into CAL communities varies. One common aspect of the three CAL teachers in streamed-abilities settings (i.e., Teachers 1, 3, and 4; see also 6.2.3.2 on streaming as a means of diversity management) concerns the fissiparity of the Chinese Department into two streams, one catering for CFL students and another for CAL counterparts. For example, Teacher 1 remarked on the functional separation of the Chinese Department,

Extract 83

> Different curricula mean different content and emphasises and expectations, which also mean different units for things. Maybe, outwardly, we're still referred to as the 'Chinese Language teachers' *[中文老師 /zung1 man4 lou5 si1/]* from the Chinese Language panel. But, internally, we know it's two different modes of operations with two groups of people and even two different sets of rules and standards. It's just different.

Teacher 1
(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)

Teacher 1 revealed that, despite the common label of 'Chinese Language teachers', there were effectively two different systems at work. In Teacher 1's experience, the

Chinese Department was divided into two functional units. This characterisation was further affirmed by Teacher 3

Extract 84

> In my school's Chinese Department, we have two different panels that do not really communicate with one another. The panel for HKDSE and the panel for GCSE and Applied Learning. One is a curriculum for native-speaking students with emphasis on classical and modern Chinese texts. The other is highly practical with a focus on practical, workplace Chinese. I now belong to the second panel. Personally, it feels as if it's the inferior panel and the turnover rate is high because it's considered as a stepping stone. People just come and go.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

Echoing what Teacher 1 shared (i.e., functional separation), Teacher 3 disclosed that there was seldom any communication across two panels. She further characterised the CAL panel (i.e., the one preparing students for GCSE and Applied Learning (Chinese) as exit-point assessments) as a more inferior panel, citing its high teacher turnover rate as evidence.

Similarly, Teacher 4 also described the fissiparity of the Chinese Department into two streams as part of his experience as a secondary CAL teacher, while opining that Putonghua as yet another language subject (sometimes an entity separate from the Chinese Department) could pose additional challenges to CAL learners

Extract 85

> …that's probably why we have to set up two systems to realise our vision for the Chinese language... One system for the local curriculum and the focus is on an immersive experience in classics and, through this immersion, people acquire the language and its beauties… Another system for non-Chinese-speaking learners, which is unquestionably a simplification. Just like how we learned English – it's always very practical and without any profundity, am I right? The issue is further confusing because there's the subject of Putonghua – most ethnic Chinese kids can tell the difference between Putonghua and Cantonese but, to non-Chinese kids, it's quite similar and I simply don't blame them! How can one handle so many things?

Teacher 4
(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)

Overall, these three CAL teachers' descriptions of the bifurcation of the Chinese Department (which are absent in interview data from Teacher 2) may be associated with their schools' adoption of streaming as a policy to manage learner diversity.

6.2.4.3. Interaction with CAL and CFL colleagues

Closely linked to the previous theme are the perceptions of the interaction among CAL and CFL colleagues. Given the departmental bifurcation highlighted above, CAL teachers observed that interaction between CAL and CFL teachers was kept to a minimum, to the point that there were perceived misconceptions towards the CAL teaching communities, as revealed in Extracts 86 and 87

Extract 86

> Curriculum-wise, there's no room for collaboration. I guess, we're busy as we are. Of course, we do collaborate on other fronts, such as career development and extracurricular activities, the way we do with other teachers.
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

Extract 87

> I would say regular Chinese teachers generally misunderstand what second language education is all about, and the sort of challenges we are facing. I don't blame them. Quite frankly, I used to have a lot of misconceptions about the task of teaching Chinese as a second language.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

In Extract 86, Teacher 4 revealed that there was minimal professional collaboration between CAL and CFL teachers. Potentially as a result of this lack of communication, Teacher 3 described mainstream Chinese Language teachers' misconceptions towards the nature of second language education. In one of the primary CAL settings, a broadly similar description emerges, with Teacher 1 recounting her experience of

feeling misunderstood by her colleagues and university friends (i.e., Chinese Language teachers in the wider community)

Extract 88

> Because of the different duties we take on, teachers who teach Chinese as a mother tongue tend to have some rather misguided understanding of what we're doing. When I was attending professional training elsewhere or trying to touch base with my university friends, I got a taste of their misunderstanding. Some gibed a little, suggesting that we don't need to do much for our lessons, and that learning content is vulgarly dumbed down. Some over-sympathised, saying I must be suffering so much and it's a torturous experience. Either way, it's not a good feeling.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In Extract 88, Teacher 1 revealed that misunderstanding towards the nature of CAL manifested in the form of either gibes related to the workload or uncalled-for commiserations.

However, these descriptions germane to the lack of professional collaboration and the presence of misunderstandings were not identified from interview data from Teacher 2. In fact, from her account of her experience with her colleagues, a rather distinct picture of professional collaboration and support emerges

Extract 89

> No doubt, I do miss the more straightforward days of teaching Chinese in an approach that I was trained for. That said, I still feel that I've been learning so much from working with Chinese teachers who devote themselves to the task of teaching Cantonese to those who need it and want it. That's important. And I love the support we have for each other, and the good practices that are being shared among teachers in this giant experiment we're part of.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

Overall, these experiential differences between Teachers 1, 3, 4 and Teacher 2 may be related to how perceived diversity was managed across CAL settings. That is, the adoption of mixed-abilities teaching in the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting might have blurred the boundaries between CAL and CFL, creating conditions for Chinese

Language teachers to have more opportunities to collaborate and co-create in curricular and instructional matters.

6.2.4.4. Perceptions of the CAL teaching communities

What is furthermore noteworthy from these four frontline CAL teachers' accounts are their perceptions of the emergence of CAL communities. These teachers' descriptions of their self-perceived embeddedness in these teaching communities in the making indicate the contingent and indeterminate nature of their lived experiences of teaching CAL.

Extract 90

> To me, our contribution isn't something that 'exploded' out of nowhere, but a gradual process of reaching compromises *[妥協 /to5 hip6/]* from different stakeholders: the government, experts, principals, teachers, students, and parents. One thing I also notice is that I feel that the research base related to teaching Cantonese and Cantonese being the focus here as a second language remains weak and piecemeal *[零碎 /ling4 seoi3/]*. It's tentative and full of uncertainties. And because of that, we have to lead. That's what we're trying to achieve right now.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

As implied, Teacher 3 considered her teaching community as emergent from a process laden with compromises, and negotiated from different stakeholders. Additionally, she perceived her community as largely practice-led because research base in CAL knowledge was piecemeal. From Teacher 3's description, the contingent nature of CAL teaching communities is underscored, which dovetails with earlier experiential accounts of the high turnover rates of CAL teachers (see Extract 84 in 6.2.4.2) and CAL curriculum in flux (see 6.2.2.2).

Similarly, Teacher 2 reflected on the development of strategies in response to the issue of linguistic underachievement of CAL students

Extract 91

> T2: Over time, as curriculum development and teaching become more manageable, I feel less anxious. Although it's good that every school has developed its strategies *[策*

略/caak3 loek6/] responding to the issue at hand, it is not clear how these strategies can achieve the ultimate goal. Sometimes..

R: Excuse me, you mentioned the ultimate goal. What do you mean by that?

T2: I mean, the goal of helping non-Chinese-speaking students learn Cantonese such that they can become part of Hong Kong.

R: Ok. Please continue.

T2: I was just trying to say that we're playing a part in this 'thing' *[*嘢 /je5/; *which was also accompanied with the gesture of air quotes]*. What is it exactly? Is that really fulfilling the goal of language learning and social integration? Does it really work? And how?

Teacher 2
(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)

In Extract 91, Teacher 2 opined that coping strategies developed in response to CAL issues contributed to the easing of anxiety incurred while teaching CAL. However, Teacher 2 questioned the extent to which existing practice which she referred to as 嘢 /je5/ ('thing'), a highly colloquial Cantonese term indicative of indeterminacy, which resembles the use of 'stuff' in colloquial English of the wider CAL teaching community substantively achieved the goal of language learning and social integration. Teacher 2's account of ambivalence towards existing CAL practice can be read alongside Teacher 1's description

Extract 92

Now, it's more a case of 'different households have different methods' *[各家各法 /gok3 gaa1 gok3 faat3/; a classical four-word idiomatic expression in Chinese]*. But it used to be 'millions of people united as one' *[萬眾一心/maan6 zung3 jat1 sam1/; another classical four-word idiomatic expression in Chinese]*, if you see what I mean. So, from the perspective of the teachers who just want an easy time, it may be good to break with the previous mode. But from the teachers who want progress, this mode of 'different households have different methods' may not work. Am I right?

Teacher 1
(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)

Here, Teacher 1 juxtaposed two classical Chinese idiomatic expressions, 各家各法 /gok3 gaa1 gok3 faat3/ (different households have different methods) and 萬眾一心

/maan6 zung3 jat1 sam1/ (millions of people united as one), to illustrate her perception of the CAL teaching communities. The current mode of operation is represented by the former, signifying the state of high autonomy and diversified approaches (i.e., decentralisation). The previous mode of operation (i.e., CFL) is captured by the latter phrase, hinting at a highly centralised mode of practice. From this juxtaposition, it can be inferred that Teacher 1 held the belief that a decentralised mode of operation might not yield much progress, echoing Teacher 2's observation that existing CAL communities, albeit less overwhelmed as a result of agile adaptation at the local level, might fall short of their intended goal.

Likewise, a comparable description was identified from Teacher 4

> **Extract 93**
>
> We're in a flexible state. It has positives and negatives. On one hand, there would be 'breathing spaces' *[喘息空間 /cyun2 sik1 hung1 gaan1/]* for the teachers and students. One the other hand, some groups will thrive and some struggle because of lack of guidance and self-doubt. Well, you get something and you lose something… Maybe that's why examination exemption is this easy enough target for everyone, allowing all schools to stay on.
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

In Teacher 4's experience, the laissez-faire policy ecology coupled with the measure of examination exemption allowed 'breathing spaces' for both teachers and students alike. Instead of characterising a decentralised system in a negative light (Teacher 1, Extract 92), Teacher 4 remarked that this mechanism allowed certain communities to thrive, and led some to struggle. Overall, this description from Teacher 4 summarises the lived experience of teaching CAL in a highly decentralised ecology contingent upon the compromises and negotiations of various stakeholders. Particularly, the fixture of the preferential policy of exempting minority students from the mainstream Chinese Language qualifications and subsidising them to seek alternative ones, based on interview data, is experienced as a stabilising pillar enabling various CAL communities to take shape and stay on.

6.2.4.5. Coda

This superordinate theme touches on a core aspect of these four frontline CAL teachers' lived experiences: their transitioning from a CFL environment into a CAL one. Findings pertaining to this superordinate theme suggest that although these

teachers' transitional experiences broadly align (e.g., reminiscences about CFL), divergences are identified. In particular, Teachers 1, 3, and 4 experienced a bifurcation of the Chinese Department into two panels (i.e., CFL versus CAL), describing the general lack of collaboration between both panels. Yet, such perceptions were not identified from Teacher 2, which may be related to the school's adoption of mixed-abilities teaching where the boundaries between CFL and CAL were blurred (see also 6.2.3.2 for a discussion on diversity management). Furthermore, CAL teachers' descriptions of their professional experiences indicate that the respective CAL teaching communities they were part of were highly autonomous and practice-led. Overall, this superordinate theme enriches an understanding of these four frontline CAL teachers' transitional experiences on the front line, shedding light on their lived relations with the wider professional communities they were once part of, and with the very communities they were transitioning into.

6.2.5. Becoming CAL teachers

The final superordinate theme of these four frontline teachers' lived experiences relates to their self-construal vis-à-vis the role of teaching CAL. Such self-perceptions and -interpretations offer a glimpse of their journeys of 'becoming CAL teachers', which reveals their evolving professional subject positions (i.e., teacher identity) in tension with the CAL environments and roles they find themselves in. As Danielewicz (2001) argues, teaching 'requires engagement with identity, the way individuals conceive of themselves so that teaching is a state of being, not merely ways of acting or behaving' (p.3). What is also noteworthy is that this domain of lived meanings is dynamically linked to their experiences and beliefs about their respective transitions from CFL teachers into CAL ones, yet distinct in that this is more imbued with personal meanings relating to the profession. These personal meanings included but were not limited to descriptions pertaining to the kind of teacher they aspired to become, their sense of contribution to other interconnected areas, and critical consciousness of the issue(s) they encountered and/or engaged themselves in. These personal meanings constituted and are constituted by their evolving personhood as CAL teachers. For example, Teacher 1 remarked

> **Extract 94**
>
> To me, a shift in role causes a shift in the way I see myself. I see myself now as a Chinese Language teacher serving non-Chinese-speaking students and, gradually, I become aware that what I'm doing can make a huge difference in their lives. The aspect of

> teaching is really, really magnified when I am working with South Asian students.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In Extract 94, Teacher 1 enlarged on her self-construal vis-à-vis her role as a CAL teacher, remarking that she became increasingly aware of the contribution her role could make. Here, her perceived ability to bring change to the lives of her students is connected to her professional work with CAL students and thus connected to her professional identity as a CAL teacher. Similar self-construal in relation to the CAL profession was identified from Teacher 4

> **Extract 95**
>
> I used to see teaching as a sort of maintenance work. Umm, it's like you're not really helping with the inception of something. Like… when students went to secondary schools, they came with pretty solid language skills. I was there to correct this character or that. It's mostly maintaining what they had. The foundation's there. Basically, I only had to create an experience for them and more could be accrued. Now, I'm teaching Chinese to ethnic minorities, and I'm beginning to get a better idea of what it means. And I kind of see a different side to my job. It's like you're building the foundation of something. And that foundation matters. Students don't come to the classrooms with much. They're like a piece of blank paper in most cases. And what you do really matters now because it forms the foundation to something more.
>
> *Teacher 4*
> *(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)*

Here, Teacher 4 made sense of his present role as a CAL teacher with his past experience, remarking that the differences in language abilities between ethnic Chinese (a similar observation was made by Teacher 2 in Extract 56) and CAL students necessitated different teaching approaches and that this experience allowed him to discover a new side to his profession.

Both Extracts 94 and 95 exemplify a domain of personal meanings associated with the role-specific duty of teaching CAL to diverse students in respective instructional settings. This domain of personal meanings is a shared feature among these four frontline teachers. In what follows, two sub-themes are enlarged on: first, discourses

capturing their 'beliefs, values, and commitments' towards being CAL teachers (Hsieh, 2010, p.1); second, self-reflexive and critical discourses towards the central CAL phenomenon from their perspectives of being CAL teachers.

6.2.5.1. Development of a CAL professional identity

These four frontline CAL teachers' descriptions pertaining to the role of teaching CAL in diverse settings exemplify a prominent aspect of 'becoming CAL teachers', namely the development of CAL-oriented professional identities. On the whole, CAL teachers were able to be self-reflective about their processes of adjusting to the professional demands and commitments that teaching CAL entailed, while identifying potential areas of contribution that being CAL teachers could make. For example, Teacher 2 touched on her experience of becoming a CAL teacher

Extract 96

> Over time, I'm getting more and more confident in this task. I know what to pay attention to, and what to avoid… I must say experience and expertise go hand in hand. And in between both, there has to be a process, both internal and external. And to me, the internal process matters a lot. It's about not shying away from your responsibilities as a teacher… about your determination….
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

Here, her notion of 內在過程 /noi6 zoi6 gwo3 cing4/ (an internal process) might probably indicate the refashioning of a CAL-specific professional identity as part of the larger lived experience of teaching CAL on the front line. Similarly, Teacher 1 recounted experiencing a change of mindset in relation to CAL

Extract 97

> Do I want to turn the clock back and teach only ethnic Chinese students again? Do I want to apply to another school to teach only local Chinese kids? Quite honestly, I thought about all these in the beginning but gradually my mindset has changed. I know I would love to teach here… My school has given me a lot of opportunities to grow professionally and it only makes sense I reciprocate with hard work… and don't we always talk about how Cantonese is endangered? I think what I'm doing now… teaching the subject of Chinese to non-Chinese-speaking students… is a step towards preserving Cantonese and allowing the Chinese

> culture to be known by more people… And for these I'm grateful… I'm grateful that I've been given this opportunity.
>
> *Teacher 1*
> *(F, G5(C), B.Ed. & M.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In Extract 97, Teacher 1 attributed her decision to continue serving as a CAL teacher to (i) her desire to contribute to her school which offered her opportunities to develop herself professionally, and (ii) her motivation to contribute to the preservation of the Cantonese language which she considered as endangered. Her perceived abilities to contribute to these areas of personal importance through teaching CAL constitute a part of her sensemaking in relation to the new pedagogical role. A similar line of sensemaking could also be seen from CAL teachers at secondary levels

> **Extract 98**
>
> Although being a Chinese teacher to South Asian students has some challenging areas, it offers many rewards like, being able to work with South Asian students who are so full of dreams and long for a better life… helping my school thrive in diverse settings… bringing cultures together… teaching Cantonese to people who will benefit from it… and I can go on and on. These positive experiences really convince me that this is an area I would like to devote myself to in the foreseeable future. But perhaps I need more guidance… and more training… so I can be better and better at this task.
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

To Teacher 3, rewards associated with CAL outweighed the challenges, which led her to decide that the teaching of CAL was an area to which she would devote herself. This framing related to her role evinces the development of an identity position oriented positively towards teaching CAL, and the sensemaking processes therein.

6.2.5.2. Critical consciousness

The other sub-theme deals with teachers' self-reflexive and critical discourses in relation to the central CAL phenomenon. Similar to the previous sub-theme, critical consciousness is understood here as a belief-based or ideological construct that pertains chiefly to frontline teachers' 'personal and professional critical consciousness about racial, cultural, and ethnic diversity' (Gay & Kirkland, 2003). Together with their evolving beliefs about their roles as CAL teachers, frontline

teachers' critical awareness of the complexities and challenges associated with multicultural settings forms the basis of their respective journeys of *becoming* CAL teachers.

Extract 99

> My involvement as a Chinese Language teacher gets me curious about ethnic minorities' struggles. And I'm becoming more and more concerned about the whole situation when I become more aware of what they're facing. First, can you believe the amount of discrimination they're facing on a daily basis? And I thought to myself sometimes, why would you want to learn the language of someone who doesn't like you? And, I think it's quite problematic that the government has not put in place a comprehensive Chinese-as-a-second-language curriculum for them. Now, the situation turns into this 'neither-fish-or-fowl' thing *[四不像 /sei3 bat1 zoeng6/]*… It's like it's 'reaching the throat but not the lungs *[到喉唔到肺 /dou3 hau4 m4 dou3 fai3/ (reaching the throat but not the lungs); a colloquial phrase in Cantonese that refers to a sense of disappointment and frustration because something is half-done]*… I'm not trying to skirt my responsibilities by saying these but there's only so much we can do as their Chinese Language teachers.
>
> *Teacher 2*
> *(F, G5(I), B.A. & B.Ed., 10 years of teaching experience)*

In Extract 99, Teacher 2 revealed that her role as a CAL teacher allowed her to better understand what minority students were facing, which included race- or ethnicity-based discrimination and the unavailability of a comprehensive curriculum to help them acquire Chinese systematically as a majority language. Teacher 2 described that the current situation with colloquial Cantonese references — namely, 四不像 /sei3 bat1 zoeng6/ (a 'neither-fish-or-fowl' thing) and 到喉唔到肺 /dou3 hau4 m4 dou3 fai3/ (reaching the throat but not the lungs) — that expressed her dissatisfaction with macroscopic CAL policies, while accentuating the limitedness of CAL teachers. Recounts from CAL teachers at secondary levels demonstrated a similar line of critical discourses, as revealed by Teacher 4 in Extracts 100 and 101

Extract 100

> I definitely get the feeling that working with ethnic minorities is a sensitive issue. And you need to be politically correct about what you do and say sometimes.

Teacher 4
(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)

Extract 101

> For sure, I would also say the whole issue of ethnic minorities learning Chinese is quite a complicated social issue. It's about their social integration. It's not just finishing an examination and getting a certificate. And what kind of Chinese is needed for their integration and employment? At what level? We need to address all these foundational questions with better policies, if we are serious about wanting to move beyond the status quo. But, instead of really doing any of these, the issue is turned into this 'golden goose'… Schools fight over ethnic minority students because they mean more funding… but are we ready? They submit grant proposals for things… but are we doing things that really help? Sure, more financial resources are good, but it may just 'treat the symptoms without curing the disease' *[治標唔治本 /ci4 biu1 m4 ci4 bun2/]*.

Teacher 4
(M, G8(I), B.A. & PGDE, 7 years of teaching experience)

Both extracts underscore Teacher 4's awareness of the sensitive nature of working with minority populations, and his critical appraisal of the CAL situation. Noticeably, he pinpointed the underlying issues of credentialism, while describing the status quo as a mere 'golden goose' for local schools to secure extra financial resources. These critical assessments from his vantage point as a CAL teacher highlight his consciousness of the complexities of teaching diverse students.

Likewise, Teacher 3 opined,

Extract 102

> [First,] 'ethnic minorities' is a broad category but when we're using it, we do not mean white or the privileged kind. They don't even need to learn Chinese, right? So, when we use that term, we're actually referring to underprivileged South Asian kids in the public-school system. Race/ethnicity is claimed to be the issue here but it is not. Am I making sense? And these South Asians face so much discrimination… And my students often share that

> their siblings try to get out of manual labour, or that some are even involved in crime. It's heart-breaking to hear these as we're doing life planning with them… And whenever I watch news of racial troubles in the US or somewhere else, I feel like those issues resonate more and more with me…
>
> *Teacher 3*
> *(F, G8(C), B.A. & PGDE, 13 years of teaching experience)*

Critically, Teacher 3 unpicked the use of the term 少數族裔 /siu2 sou3 zuk6 jeoi6/ (ethnic minorities), while distinguishing groups of people by socioeconomic status. To Teacher 3, the CAL issue under question has been simplified as a radical/ethnic issue, but ought to have been approached as a complicated issue intersecting race/ethnicity, class, and social justice in education. Her resonance with news of racial struggles further evinces her critical consciousness of the ramifications of racial/ethnic diversity around the world.

Overall, as part of their lived experiences of teaching CAL in diverse settings, the critical consciousness of these four frontline teachers of the complexities of the CAL situation in postcolonial Hong Kong suggests that CAL teachers as policymakers at the local level are agentive and aware of the implication of their roles vis-à-vis the broader goal of social justice.

6.2.5.3. Coda

This final superordinate theme is connected with these four frontline CAL teachers' evolving self-construal vis-à-vis their roles as Chinese Language teachers in diverse settings. As suggested by the previous superordinate theme, the lived experience of teaching CAL entails transitioning across teaching communities. These transitional processes, as phenomenological findings have revealed, are furthermore imbued with personal meanings (i.e., discourses of self-construal and self-positioning) that indicate (i) the development of a specific CAL teacher identity and (ii) the emergence of critical consciousness from their lived experiences of having taught CAL on the front line. Specifically, these meanings are linked to their transitions into the roles of CAL teachers. Unlike previous superordinate themes where CAL teachers differed in the certain aspects of their experiences, the present superordinate theme of 'becoming CAL teachers' is a common theme identifiable from their descriptions of their lived experiences. That means, despite contextual differences, self-construal in relation to their roles as CAL teachers is a broadly shared feature from the experiential accounts of these four CAL teachers.

6.3 Summary

In summary, analysis of interview data gleaned from these four frontline teachers surfaces a broadly uniform experiential structure of four domains of lived meanings vis-à-vis the teaching of CAL across the four CAL instructional spaces observed: CAL curriculum design and development (see 6.2.2), CAL curriculum implementation (see 6.2.3), transitioning into CAL teaching communities (see 6.2.4), and becoming CAL teachers (see 6.2.5). As suggested in the Preamble (see 6.2.1), these domains are concerned with their experiences of (i) taking on the fresh responsibilities of CAL curriculum planning and development, (ii) transforming preconceived notions of what teaching Chinese Language meant and how it could be enacted, and (iii) transforming what being Chinese Language teachers meant in a collective and individual sense. This experiential structure is noticeably built upon their pre-existing experiences as CFL teachers and is in interaction with a policy environment that encourages devolved decision-making. Although the manifestation of this four-domain experiential structure differs from context to context, findings suggest that most of the differences are identified across the educational level (i.e., Grade 5 versus Grade 8), with further diversification found within the primary level (i.e., Grade 5 settings). This is, on the one hand, between-level differences are found in their lived experiences of CAL curriculum orientation and content organisation, pointing to a fundamental divergence in the way CAL teachers situated at primary and secondary levels experienced the CAL phenomenon. On the other hand, within-level differences are mostly linked to the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting where differentiated materials were adopted as a chief means of diversity management. As such, lived descriptions relating to Grade 5 settings are comparatively more heterogeneous than those in Grade 8 settings. Considered together, under the current CAL policy environment, lived experiences of both primary and secondary CAL teachers are in broad alignment with the four-domain contour within which differences are present.

7. Phenomenology: Student Interviews

7.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- presents findings on the various aspects of the lived experiences of CAL students sampled (7.2); and
- summarises findings emerging from student interviews (7.3).

7.2. What are the lived experiences of learning CAL for ethnolinguistic minority students from CAL classes observed?

PIs were administered to a subsample of 15 CAL students selected with reference to their Chinese proficiency and teachers' recommendations (see also 3.3.3.3 for details of the subsample of CAL students selected from the 'Practice' domain). The heterogeneous sample formed had the advantage of revealing the multi-faceted experiential structure from diverse learners situated within the CAL settings observed. To yield an experiential structure and capture the heterogeneity therein, a similar analytical process of thematisation and case tagging adopted for PIs with teachers was applied for PIs with students. For details of phenomenological data analysis, refer to 3.4.3. For details of the coding table and case tagging, refer to Appendices 11.3 and 11.4 on pages 554 and 557 respectively.

As summarised in Table 67, 14 emergent themes formed from 68 categories were abstracted into three superordinate themes for students interviews: learning CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong (7.2.2), developing a non-normative multilingual identity (7.2.3), and becoming non-Chinese-speaking (NCS) students (7.2.4).

Categories *Categories were semantic entities formed through combining lexical units from a single case. Categories were then harmonised across cases.*	**Emergent themes** *Emergent themes were the semantic entities harmonised across cases, manifesting an essential quality of the phenomenon under exploration.*	**Superordinate themes** *Superordinate themes were formed through combining emergent themes across cases, therefore shedding light on the experiential structure of the phenomenon.*
1. Use of technology (home) 2. Family members' encouragement 3. Interest in family members' accounts of learning and using Chinese 4. Perception of CAL homework 5. Leisurely Chinese reading at home 6. Exploration of Cantonese culture and media at home 7. Use of repetition (strategy)	a. Learning CAL in home settings	A. Learning CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with CAL students' lived experiences of learning CAL across the domains of home, school, and community in postcolonial Hong Kong)*
8. Experiences with analytical/explicit CAL instruction 9. Incomprehensible CAL instruction/ feeling lost about CAL instruction 10. Use of technology (school) 11. Use of English (strategy) 12. Use of self-invented symbols (strategy) 13. Use of avoidance (strategy) 14. Feigning comprehension (strategy)	b. Experiencing instructed CAL in school settings	
15. More opportunities to interact with ethnic Chinese students in general 16. More opportunities to be exposed to and use CAL 17. Feeling less anxious about using CAL	c. Learning CAL and ethnic integration	
18. More opportunities to model after ethnic Chinese students in class 19. More opportunities to interact with ethnic Chinese students in CAL lessons 20. More opportunities to seek help from ethnic Chinese students	d. Learning CAL and mixed-abilities grouping	

21. Having close ethnic Chinese friends 22. Experiences with a differentiated approach		Learning CAL in school settings	
23. Practical orientation of secondary CAL learning content 24. CAL teachers' willingness to use cross-linguistic techniques 25. Becoming assessment-conscious and examination-oriented 26. Experiencing curricular discontinuities 27. Perception of secondary CAL lessons as less demanding 28. Feelings of boredom with secondary CAL lessons	e. Learning CAL and grade levels		
29. Awareness of different starting points 30. Multiliteracies/acquiring multiple systems 31. Tonality of Chinese (production) 32. Feelings of anxiety connected to classroom interaction in Chinese 33. Few incentives to persist and/or aim high	f. Difficulties in learning CAL in school settings (general)		
34. General forgetfulness 35. Tonality of Chinese (reception) 36. Inchoate abilities to recognise radicals and characters 37. General inattentiveness	g. Difficulties in learning CAL in school settings (specific)		
38. Using of technology (community) 39. Participating in sports activities 40. Participating in social activities *See also 62 – 65*	h. Learning and using CAL in the community		
41. Linguistic division of labour 42. Learning to communicate beyond languages 43. Use of social media (i.e., transnationalism) 44. Going to church and attending Bible study groups	i. Being multilingual in postcolonial Hong Kong		B. Language use and interaction in postcolonial Hong Kong *(This superordinate theme deals primarily with CAL students' lived experiences relation with the wider sociolinguistic community, including the*

45. Going to mosques and learning classical Arabic		*manifestation of an English-dominant multilingual identity among a subgroup of CAL learners)*
46. English as the usual medium of communication in non-home settings 47. Being asked to practise English with 48. Ethnic Chinese groups' easy amazement 49. Feelings of anxiety connected to societal interaction in Chinese	j. Interacting with ethnic Chinese people	
50. Communicating among EMs in English 51. Communicating with overseas relatives 52. Exposure to English-based media 53. Exposure to English-based print 54. Exposure to English-based social media 55. Reliance on English for comprehensibility 56. Awareness of importance of English in Hong Kong 57. The allure of the West 58. More devotion to ESL than CAL	k. Developing an English-dominant multilingual identity	
59. Awareness of discrimination and differential treatment 60. Feelings of inadequacy and deficiency 61. Adjusting one's CAL expectations	l. Experiences of racial/ethnic discrimination and the deficit model of CAL provision	C. Becoming *non*-Chinese speaking (NCS) students *(This superordinate theme deals primarily with CAL students' lived relation with themselves, including personal sense-marking in relation to the phenomenon of learning CAL, as well as the deficit model of CAL provision experienced)*
62. Desire to make friends with ethnic Chinese 63. Desire to communicate in Cantonese 64. Desire to understand the local culture 65. Desire to use Cantonese in the community *See also 39 and 40, as well as 52*	m. Discourse of integrative motivation	
66. Perceived difficulties to integrate via CAL 67. Focusing on the use of Chinese in the workplace 68. Passing the Chinese examination as a goal	n. Discourse of instrumental motivation	

Table 67 | An overview of qualitative findings (CAL students) of the 'Phenomenology' domain

7.2.1. Preamble

On the whole, qualitative data gleaned from student interviews capture descriptions and recollections of CAL students' lived experiences vis-à-vis their individual circumstances. Notably, these descriptions were gathered from CAL students from different schools (i.e., ethnically concentrated settings versus ethnically integrated settings), at different developmental stages (i.e., Grade 5 versus Grade 8) and different CAL proficiency levels (i.e., High, Mid, and Low), and from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Given the confluence of all these variables, their lived experiences were distinct yet nonetheless shaped by common factors under the current CAL policy environment. Results of the phenomenological analysis indicate the presence of an experiential structure that corresponds to three broad domains of lived meanings: (i) their home-school-community experiences of learning CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong (i.e., the first superordinate theme); and (ii) their experiences of being multilinguals in postcolonial Hong Kong where they interacted with majority groups (i.e., the second superordinate theme), and (iii) their self-construal in relation to the ascribed label of Non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students (i.e., the third superordinate theme). Furthermore, findings demonstrate that these domains of lived meanings, especially their descriptions relating to formal (i.e., instructed) CAL instruction, are subject to contextual influences, such as exposure to ethnically integrated settings, exposure to mixed-abilities learning, exposure to secondary CAL arrangements, proficiency levels, and age.

7.2.2. Learning CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong

The first superordinate theme concerns CAL students' lived experiences of learning CAL in post-1997 Hong Kong. There are two noticeable characteristics of this superordinate theme. First, CAL students' language learning experiences, as their descriptions and recollections will demonstrate below, extend beyond the bounds of the school settings where they receive formal CAL instruction, and into their homes and immediate community settings where they non-formally and informally engage in CAL use. As Student 3 described his CAL experiences across the settings

> **Extract 103**
>
> My method is to learn Cantonese from school, and from daily life… The simplest things… like… watching Canto shows on TV… chatting with shopkeepers in Canto… playing sports with

> Chinese friends outside school… can make me a better speaker… You simply cannot just rely on the textbooks…
>
> *Student 3*
> *(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Filipino, High Proficiency)*

As a proficient learner himself, Student 3 opined that he learnt CAL from both school and non-school settings, suggesting that instructional and leisurely activities were crucial to his CAL learning journey. Similar accounts were identified from other CAL students. That suggests that their experiences of learning CAL in Hong Kong are not solely linked to the formal CAL instruction but are present across various life domains.

Second, as for learning CAL in school settings, findings reveal that although CAL students have encountered common features in CAL instruction, their lived experiences are shaped by contextual influences such as exposure to (i) ethnically integrated settings, (ii) mixed-abilities learning, and (iii) secondary CAL arrangements, which renders CAL learners' lived experiences in school settings highly diverse.

7.2.2.1. Learning CAL in home settings

One of the common features of CAL students' experiences of learning CAL concerns their engagement in CAL tasks and activities in home settings, as well as their accounts of how home-based CAL engagement may be shaped by strategy use and their family members. This domain of lived CAL meanings pertaining to the home settings is uniformly identified from all 15 CAL students interviewed. For example, Student 2 remarked that

Extract 104

S2: I usually go home after school and do homework. I have Chinese class every day, so I need to have Chinese homework every day…and revision... I like learning Chinese by myself at home because I can control the speed… Umm... Like I need more time when I'm reading story books because I need to check the dictionary… Sometimes I copy difficult words again and again… It's [a] very helpful thing to do…

R: Oh that's interesting. Can you tell me more about this habit of copying words again and again?

S2: A Chinese friend taught me that. If a word is hard, you keep copying it and it will make sense… Like you can see

different parts of a word, and how they go together. I usually do this at home on old homework books. Just copy and copy…

Student 2
(F, G5(I), aged 11, HK-born, Nepalese, High Proficiency)

Student 2 shared that learning CAL was not restricted to the school but extended into other settings, especially home. Student 2 went on to mention a number of CAL tasks and activities, including, homework, revision, reading story books, dictionary use, and strategy deployment. Of particular interest here was the use of copying as a form of repetition to help herself with character learning. Apart from this, the use of technology is also a recurring theme related to home settings

Extract 105

S10: Chinese homework is usually easy and I usually do it using my phone…
R: Do you mean that Chinese homework is usually like online homework?
S10: No, I just use my phone to translate words into English. And then I will do it on paper. When we do not remember a word, I can type the English word into the app and write my answers.
R: So it's like using a dictionary app?
S10: Yes, I use Google… Google Translate. You just take a picture and everything will be automatically in English… Well, that's one of the reason[s] why my parents let me have a phone. And I taught them and my younger brother to use Google Translate as well…

Student 10
(M, G8(I), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Mid Proficiency)

Student 10 explained the role of technology in assisting the completion of his written homework. His strategy was to use a mobile application Google Translate to translate Chinese homework into English and sometimes his English response into Chinese. The convenience afforded by the application especially, the function of 'Image Translate' (i.e., the instant identification and translation of text from a picture) made it a learning strategy commonly adopted in home settings. Student 10 remarked that his parents endorsed such a method and that he also taught them and his younger brother to utilise Google Translate. Student 10's account furthermore

highlights the intricate relationship between their home-based CAL engagement and their family members, which is another recurring theme in the home domain

Extract 106

> My father always tells me to pay extra attention in Chinese lessons. He speaks very good Chinese and he wants that for me. We watch TVB [a local broadcasting channel] shows when he's off from work. I think he can be a good teacher… but he's only good at speaking… because he doesn't really read and write Chinese… so he do[es]n't really help me with homework much…
>
> *Student 14*
> *(F, G8(C), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)*

In Extract 106, Student 14 highlighted her close relationship with her father who she considered as a proficient speaker in Chinese (probably Cantonese), while suggesting parental encouragement as a possible motivator towards learning CAL. Her father's CAL role was primarily linked to her recreational engagement in Chinese (i.e., watching local shows from a Cantonese-based channel together) but less connected to homework coaching because of his limited literacy skills in Chinese.

Similarly, as described by Student 5, encouragement also came from other family members

Extract 107

> My big sister always helps me with my Chinese homework. She always teaches me methods which help me remember characters and sounds better. Well, she went to a Chinese kindergarten and so she's very good at Chinese… I think I'm getting better and better at it with her help and support.
>
> *Student 5*
> *(F, G5(C), aged 10, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)*

Here, Student 5's older sister helped her with her Chinese homework, while imparting strategic knowledge that, Student 5 thought, led to her improved retention of Chinese characters and sounds.

Overall, apart from highlighting that CAL students' lived experiences of learning Chinese are not bound to the school domain, these extracts exemplify CAL students'

collective experiences in the home domain where they engage strategically in CAL tasks and activities, and receive support and encouragement from family members.

7.2.2.2. Experiencing instructed CAL in school settings

For the majority of the CAL students interviewed, the learning of CAL in the school domain is another prominent theme. After all, schools are where they are receiving formal CAL instruction. On the whole, CAL learning in the school is described as rule-based, as reflected by CAL students' recounts of explicit instruction (Students 1 – 9, 11 – 12, 14 – 15). For example, Student 3 remarked

Extract 108

> In Chinese lessons, [Teacher 3] talks a lot and she likes explaining words in a deep way. Like she's always telling us stories about the words. That really helps me visualise each character better, and see the patterns more easily… [Teacher 3] sometimes explains grammar and words in English… That helps us understand the grammar more… and get the main message from the text… Well, I would say [Teacher 3's] Chinese lessons are mostly similar to the ones I had when I was a Secondary One *[i.e., Grade 7]* student.
>
> *Student 3*
> *(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Filipino, High Proficiency)*

In Extract 108, Student 3 recounted that instructed CAL in the secondary setting was experienced as analytical. To student 3, his teacher – Teacher 3 – tended to explain words and grammar through direct instruction and occasional use of English.

Furthermore, students' descriptions of their experiences reveal that instructed CAL learning is often tied to moments of incomprehension among CAL learners from Mid-to-Low proficiency brackets (Students 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12 – 15). In response to these moments of incomprehension, CAL students recounted deploying strategies for different purposes. For example

Extract 109

> S7: Chinese lessons are hard to me. Sometimes when [Teacher 2] talks, she talks quite fast and I cannot get what she's trying to say. Sometimes, after the whole lesson, I still don't understand much. But I copy all the things on the blackboard so I can learn those words at home. If [Teacher 2] doesn't write down the word, I'll just write

down the sound using English. And some symbols, like upward arrows for rising tones.

R: And then what do you do with those? I mean the words you hear but don't know how to write.

S7: If I mark down the sound, I can try to pronounce it again and ask the teacher, or my classmates. You know, I do that to passage[s] sometimes. You hear the teacher read the passage and you just write down the sound.

Student 7
(F, G5(I), aged 10, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)

Student 7 remarked that incomprehension arose from the pace with which her teacher Teacher 2 spoke. She recounted adopting the strategy of copying the content written on the blackboard and learning it at home. For verbal content not written on the blackboard, she attempted to write down the sound using a combination of English and symbols, which could be followed up later. In the face of incomprehensibility, Student 7 drew on her own linguistic and semiotic repertoire (i.e., English and symbols) to remedy incomprehension.

Interview data also suggest that, rather than taking proactive strategies, certain CAL learners coped by disengaging themselves from the learning process,

Extract 110

I think [Teacher 1] is an amazing teacher… I can usually follow what she's telling us. But sometimes, some passage is hard to understand. Even though [Teacher 1] is very patient, I still don't get it. So sometimes… I may just pretend that I understand… Just keep nodding…

Student 6
(M, G5(C), aged 10, HK-born, Nepalese, Mid Proficiency

From Extract 110, although Student 6 thought highly of his teacher Teacher 1 and could usually follow her instruction, he described that there were moments when he found lesson content incomprehensible. When negotiation of meanings failed, he pretended that he understood. This strategy of feigning comprehension was identified across CAL learners of all proficiency levels (Students 1, 4, 6 8, 11, 13).

Another kind of disengagement was identified relates to the adoption of avoidance strategy,

Extract 111

> I struggle to follow the teacher, which is quite boring because it's all about rules and grammar points. Whenever [Teacher 4] asks me any questions, even the easiest, I will just say /ngo5 m4 zi1 dou3/ *['我唔知道'; 'I don't know']*…
>
> *Student 15*
> *(M, G8(I), aged 13, HK-born, Mixed, Low Proficiency)*

In Student 15's experience, in response to explicit instruction that he found boring and hard to follow, he disengaged himself from the interactional process by uttering the phrase 我唔知道 /ngo5 m4 zi1 dou3/ ('I don't know') even for questions he might know how to answer.

Apart from CAL students' strategic behaviours, technology use is described as a common feature (Students 1 – 9, 11 – 15), which indicates the commonplace nature of technology-assisted language learning in CAL students' lived experiences. In Extract 112, Student 12 described the use of iPad in her classroom. She revealed that iPad was used for various purposes: namely, word learning, reading, writing, and homework,

Extract 112

> S12: To me, there are a lot of rules in Chinese. And they're hard to remember. It's different from English – you cannot just guess its sound… So I like it when [Teacher 1] lets us use iPad. It's fun to learn rules through iPad. You can see the strokes in different order and colours. These make me remember the rules better.
> R: Do you know the name of the game?
> S12: I don't know.
> R: Umm… How often do you get to use iPad?
> S12: Not often… like… once a week, I think. And we use iPad for different things, like reading… writing…. Sometimes we have online homework.
>
> *Student 12*
> *(F, G5(C), aged 11, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)*

In sum, regardless of contextual differences, students' lived experiences of formal CAL instruction converge and have the following characteristics: (i) descriptions of

highly explicit instructional environments, (ii) coping with incomprehension, (iii) strategic behaviours related to CAL instruction, and (iv) technology use.

In what follows, divergences in their lived experiences of learning CAL in the school domain are set out vis-à-vis a number of contextual factors: ethnic concentration, grouping arrangements (i.e., diversity management), and grade levels.

7.2.2.3. Learning CAL and ethnic integration

One noticeable divergence concerns the experience of learning CAL vis-à-vis the degree to which the school is ethnically integrated. This pattern is identifiable from most CAL students (Students 2, 4, 7, 10, 11, 15) from ethnically integrated settings of both grade levels. In general, these CAL students describe more opportunities to be in contact with ethnic Chinese students and be exposed to a CAL-rich environment (see also 5.2.2 for questionnaire findings on students in ethnically integrated settings reporting more Chinese use with classmates), and feel less anxious about using CAL. For example, Student 11

Extract 113

> Well, I think a mainstream school allows me to make friends with Chinese students. That's a plus. I used to attend a primary school with a lot of Nepalese students… And my parents thought that might not be good for my development in Chinese. They sent me to this school hoping I would make more Chinese friends. And I do. I don't think I have many Chinese friends, but I do have a few classmates who are willing to help me with Canto and Mando.
>
> *Student 11*
> *(F, G8(I), aged 14, HK-born, Nepalese, Mid Proficiency)*

From Extract 113, an ethnically integrated school — as referred to as a mainstream school by Student 11 — was associated with more opportunities to make friends with and seek help from ethnic Chinese students. A similar description was identified from Student 2 from Grade 5

Extract 114

> I used to be quite afraid of using Cantonese. It's like it's very easy to make a pronunciation mistake and you would say something funny. But I think I have become less stressed now because I keep

> using Cantonese with Chinese classmates and teachers here. The more I speak it with them, the less stressful it is. I enjoy playing with them during the recess. It's fun to hear them make jokes.
>
> *Student 2*
> *(F, G5(I), aged 11, HK-born, Nepalese, High Proficiency)*

In Student 2's experience, increased contact with ethnic Chinese in an ethnically integrated setting was linked to less anxiety in using Cantonese, highlighting the connection between ethnic composition of her school and the social dimension of learning CAL. This social dimension, as Student 15 put it, was linked to language learning beyond the CAL classroom

> **Extract 115**
>
> I sometimes play basketball with Chinese boys and would pick up some Cantonese from them. Sometimes, the morning assembly is in Cantonese and I would hear Cantonese. It's usually fun to learn the language this way. I mean, outside the classroom.
>
> *Student 15*
> *(M, G8(I), aged 13, HK-born, Mixed, Low Proficiency)*

According to Student 15, social activities — such as playing sports and attending assemblies — presented CAL learning opportunities. These activities were part of the lived experiences of CAL students from ethnically integrated settings.

7.2.2.4. Learning CAL and mixed-abilities grouping

Another divergence concerns CAL learning experiences vis-à-vis the adoption of mixed-abilities grouping. This pattern is only identified from CAL students (Students 2, 7, 13) from the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting, the only CAL learning condition that adopts mixed-abilities grouping. This theme, closely related to the previous theme concerning ethnic integration *at the school level*, captures lived descriptions in relation to ethnic integration *at the class level* and can thus be conceptualised as an extension of the previous theme.

For example, Student 2 found 'learning Chinese with other [ethnic] Chinese students' in a mixed-abilities class advantageous

> **Extract 116**
>
> We're now learning Chinese with other [ethnic] Chinese students. I can think of three reasons why I prefer this than the old way. One, it's good to pay attention to the way they pronounce

words and answer the teacher. Two, they can help us with Chinese in group activities. Three, we can practise speaking and listening with them as well.

Student 2
(F, G5(I), aged 11, HK-born, Nepalese, High Proficiency)

Here, advantages Student 2 listed were related to class-level contact with ethnic Chinese students: observing the way ethnic Chinese students enunciated and pronounced words, receiving linguistic support from ethnic Chinese students, and practising oracy skills with ethnic Chinese students. Such class-level contact was further described as part Student 13's experience

Extract 117

S13: I sit next to a Chinese boy and he always helps me in Chinese lessons. It's hard to follow the teacher but he always tell[s] me what's going on. He tells me the answers when I don't know how to finish the classwork.
R: Do you two play together outside Chinese lessons?
S13: Yes, we are in the same interest class after school. And we talk on the phone when I have questions. He's a helpful friend.

Student 13
(M, G5(I), aged 10, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

From the above extract, Student 13 described his relationship with an ethnic Chinese student from his Chinese class. Similar to Student 2, Student 13 remarked that his presence was a source of linguistic support when he struggled through direct instruction and classwork. Also, that this relationship extended beyond the classroom (e.g., participation in an interest class, receiving support over the phone) suggested closer bonds were developed through ethnic integration at the class level.

Notably, mixed-abilities grouping is also distinct because of its adoption of differentiated materials as a compensatory mechanism. In Extract 118, Student 7 described her experience with differentiated materials

Extract 118

I like that there are different levels of classwork and homework for us. I think this is a good thing because different people need different things, right? I belong to the 'Moon' group and the worksheets I get have a 'Moon' symbol on them… Umm… They're also less difficult and have more hints… Hints are important because I can be lost without them.

Student 7
(F, G5(I), aged 10, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)

To Student 7, the differentiation system 'Star-Moon-Sun' (see Extract 72) was experienced as a positive facet of her lived experience of learning CAL. Here, classwork and homework pegged at different levels, in Student 7's experience, could enable different learners to thrive. The presence of scaffolding in the materials designed for 'Moon' students allowed her to engage better with CAL materials.

7.2.2.5. Learning CAL and grade levels

Another identifiable divergence arises from age/grade level. This pattern is observable from most CAL students (Students 3 4, 8 11, 14) who are from Grade 8 (i.e., secondary CAL settings; older CAL students). Under this sub-theme, lived descriptions of learning CAL are made with reference to Grade 8 students' past experiences of learning CAL at primary levels.

For example, Student 3 compared primary CAL lessons against secondary ones

Extract 119

S3: One of things I notice is that primary Chinese lessons are more about traditional Chinese stories, like Mulan. And secondary Chinese lessons are more about practical topics, like weather, festivals, and job types… It's easier now… And I would say I'm re-learning a lot of the things I know already.
R: What do you feel about that?
S3: I feel bored sometimes. But I don't have any strong opinions though because some classmates are quite weak.
R: How about English lessons? Would you say you're re-learning what you already know?
S3: Oh… I definitely think it's more difficult now, like in terms of length, and vocab[ulary] level…

Student 3
(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Filipino, High Proficiency)

In Extract 119, Student 3 perceived that there was a change of thematic focus between primary CAL lessons and secondary ones, with the latter focusing more on practical themes. Further, as a proficient learner himself, he remarked that secondary CAL lessons were less demanding. However, such a trend was not observed among

secondary English lessons. He revealed that he sometimes experienced boredom yet understood that easier content might better suit less proficient CAL students.

Apart from CAL students' experience with secondary CAL lessons (e.g., more practical and less demanding content), the emergence of cross-linguistic techniques is also a recurring theme. That is, in secondary CAL learners' experience, their CAL teachers were more willing to use English in CAL instruction.

Extract 120

S9: I like Chinese lessons more now because [Teacher 4] is willing to explain concepts and grammar in English. In primary school, my Chinese teacher didn't speak much English so I didn't follow the lessons well.
R: How about the learning materials? Like textbooks?
S9: I think it's less difficult now and I like easier content…

Student 10
(M, G8(I), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Mid Proficiency)

From Extract 120, CAL teacher's willingness to use English was cited as a reason why Student 10 preferred secondary CAL lessons to primary ones. Similar to Student 3 in Extract 119, Student 10 considered CAL learning materials less demanding yet found them more compatible with his learning needs.

A similar observation was made by Student 14

Extract 121

I feel less confused now because the content is shorter… but it's ok because it's at my level... And I can improve my Chinese by revising the GCSE word list [Teacher 3] gives us. There're also English meanings there so it's easier for revision. Overall, I think I'm learning better than before.

Student 14
(F, G8(C), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

As suggested in Extract 121, weaker CAL learners such as Student 14 found shorter CAL content more compatible with their CAL learning. The bilingual word list designed for the GCSE Chinese assessment was experienced as facilitatory. Further, Extract 121 also evinces Student 14's awareness of the exit-point qualification

(i.e., GCSE Chinese Examination), with similar descriptions also identified from several secondary CAL students (Students 3 – 4, 12, 14).

7.2.2.6. Difficulties encountered in learning CAL in school settings

Apart from CAL students' experiences of CAL instruction in general and vis-à-vis contextual features, CAL students' lived descriptions also concern their perceived difficulties and challenges in relation to learning CAL across school settings. In this regard, CAL-related difficulties are identified as either *general* or *specific*. General difficulties are difficulties encountered in learning CAL from almost all learners interviewed, whereas specific difficulties are ones only described by CAL learners from Mid-to-Low proficiency brackets (Students 6, 9 – 15). It is worth noting that among the eight CAL learners from Mid-to-Low proficiency brackets, four of them were not born in Hong Kong (i.e., either newly-arrived or returnee students).

General difficulties include different starting points of exposure to CAL instruction, acquisition of multiple linguistic systems, production of tones, language learning anxiety, and motivation issues. For example, Student 1 revealed that

> **Extract 122**
>
> I can think of two challenging areas. First, I feel like I'm learning different things at the same time. Like… /syu1 min6 jyu5/ *[書面語; written language]* and /hau2 jyu5/ *[口語; spoken language]*. And it's more challenging when there's Putonghua. But for English, it's like one whole system. Second, it's quite hard to aim high in Chinese… You see, we learn everything in English. And English is our advantage and, for some of us, the mother tongue… Umm… also… some of us didn't go to Chinese kindergartens. So… the starting points are different… I think catching up is hard. But we don't have this problem for English!
>
> *Student 1*
> *(M, G5(C), aged 9, HK-born, Indian, High Proficiency)*

Learning Chinese is challenging because of the presence of multiple linguistic systems. Here, different perceived systems – Standard Written Chinese (i.e., the written language), Cantonese (i.e., the spoken language), and Putonghua (i.e., another spoken language) – were cited to illustrate the complexity the learner was coping with. To Student 1, the presence of multiple systems was not an issue experienced for English. Student 1 also revealed that it was harder to aim high because the language of instruction (i.e., the language used to acquire content

knowledge) and home communication was English. Hence, the centrality of English in their academic and social lives, to Student 1, rendered CAL learning a low priority. This was further compounded by his belief that non-attendance at Chinese-medium kindergarten (i.e., different starting points) could have an impact on his CAL motivation.

Extract 123

S8: I don't like answering questions in Chinese class because I got very anxious. I don't know why. I just can't help myself.
R: What do you do then if the teacher asks you questions?
S8: I will just stay silent…
R: Is that because you don't know the answer or…?
S8: Yes, sometimes I don't know what the teacher is saying. Sometimes I know the answers, and yet I just don't want to make a mistake in front of the whole class.

Student 8
(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Nepalese, Mid Proficiency)

Another general difficulty pertains to CAL students' language learning anxiety. In particular, most CAL students interviewed consider the experience of classroom interaction a source of anxiety. From Extract 123, Student 8 remarked that asking questions in CAL lessons caused him anxiety and he preferred to remain silent, attributing his anxiety to incomprehension and to the potential shame of making a mistake.

Additionally, the tonality of Chinese (including both Cantonese and Putonghua) is experienced as challenging. Tonal production is identified as a general difficulty (i.e. for CAL learners from all proficiency brackets), whereas tonal perception is specific (i.e., for CAL learners from Mid-to-Low proficiency brackets), which means that the tonality of Chinese (i.e., four tones for Putonghua; nine tones for Cantonese) constitutes varying levels of difficulty to CAL students in the subsample. For example, Student 12 described her struggle with perceiving and producing tones

Extract 124

I think speaking and listening [are] the hardest, for example the tones. I can't tell the difference and I can't say them properly. It's the most difficult thing to me.

Student 12

(F, G5(C), aged 11, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

From Extract 124, Student 12 mentioned that speaking and listening were the most challenging, particularly when oracy skills depended on tonal abilities.

Similarly, Student 9 from Extract 125 described her experience with classroom activities that her CAL teacher Teacher 3 adopted to raise CAL students' tonemic awareness, revealing her difficulty in perceiving tonemic contrasts.

Extract 125

> [Teacher 3] sometimes puts two totally different words with similar sounds together. She asks us to pay attention to the difference but, to me, it's the same. I just don't hear the difference. I think it's funny. It's also funny when [Teacher 3] is trying to teach us a tongue-twister. It just sounds so similar.
>
> *Student 9*
> *(F, G8(C), aged 12, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)*

Apart from tonal perception, other specific difficulties related to learning CAL are general forgetfulness, general inattentiveness, and inchoate abilities to recognise Chinese characters, as suggested in Extracts 126, 127, and 128

Extract 126

> No matter what I do, I forget what I have just learnt very easily.
>
> *Student 10*
> *(M, G8(I), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Mid Proficiency)*

Extract 127

> S15: I zone out a lot. I just cannot focus in Chinese class.
> R: Can you tell me why you cannot focus in Chinese class? Because you don't understand the lesson or...?
> S15: I guess I do understand sometimes, not fully. But the main thing is that I don't feel interested in Chinese. So… yep… I daydream a lot.
>
> *Student 15*
> *(M, G8(I), aged 13, HK-born, Mixed, Low Proficiency)*

Extract 128

S13: It's hard because Chinese words and sounds are quite similar… I'm still learning to understand words… and their parts. I think I'm improving because the after-school teacher helps me with that.
R: You mean the Chinese class that happens after school?
S13: Yes.
R: What do you learn from that?
S13: Some basic Chinese words and vocab[ulary].

Student 13
(M, G5(I), aged 10, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

These extracts highlight some of the key challenges facing comparatively weak CAL students interviewed. General forgetfulness as described in Extract 126, as is general inattentiveness depicted in Extract 127, might have stemmed from incomprehension and the combined effect of the difficulties related to learning CAL. It is worth noting from Extract 128 that, to compensate for the additional challenges faced by weaker students (who might or might not be newly-arrived or returnee students), additional support was available with a focus on elementary Chinese.

7.2.2.7. Learning and using CAL in the community

Alongside CAL students' lived experiences across home and school settings are their experiences of learning and using CAL in community settings, which reflect their societal exposure to Chinese (encompassing Cantonese and Putonghua) in post-1997 Hong Kong, as well as situatedness in various contexts involving the use of Chinese. In particular, their participation in social and sports activities in the community are described as relevant to their experience of learning and using CAL. For example,

Extract 129

Me and my siblings sometimes go to the community centre for fun activities and classes... They're mostly in Cantonese so it's good for us to learn more... The people at the community centre are nice and they always answer our questions on homework…

Student 2
(F, G5(I), aged 11, HK-born, Nepalese, High Proficiency)

From Extract 129, Student 2 described her regular participation in social activities and nonformal classes run by a community centre. These occasions might widen her

(and her siblings') access to opportunities to learn and use CAL beyond the school setting.

Extract 130 reveals that sports activities might serve a similar function

Extract 130

S6: I make friends with [ethnic] Chinese students through football… After school, I sometimes play football with other students near school…
R: Do you talk to them in Cantonese?
S6: Yes, at first a little bit scared but I think I'm more confident now.

Student 6
(M, G5(C), aged 10, HK-born, Nepalese, Mid Proficiency)

Through participating in the leisure activity of football, Student 6 formed friendships with ethnic Chinese students and this afforded him more opportunities to use Cantonese, which he believed helped reduce his language use anxiety in Cantonese.

Last but not least, interview data point to technology use to mediate their situatedness in an intensely Chinese-speaking environment. Perhaps as a defining feature of language use and learning in the 21st century, technology use in the community is repeatedly described as an integral part of CAL students' engagement with the speech community in post-1997 Hong Kong, which also aligns broadly with their technology use at home (see also 7.2.2.1), especially the use of applications for translation and learning purposes. This was exemplified by Student 14's account of turning to Google Translate to engage with the unfamiliar Chinese orthography present in everyday community settings

Extract 131

I like using Google Translate if I see Chinese words I don't understand. Like in the street... Or in the supermarket. It's convenient… I can also hear the sound because it may be something I know already…

Student 14
(F, G8(C), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

7.2.2.8. Coda

The phenomenological focus of this present enquiry is concerned with minority learners' lived experiences of learning CAL vis-à-vis the current CAL policy ecology in post-1997 Hong Kong. Interview data from this superordinate theme suggest that CAL learning is lived along a continuum of formal to nonformal/informal experiences, straddling different life domains that are interconnected yet distinct. Lived descriptions germane to the home and community domains are broadly similar across groups, suggesting that CAL learners are engaged in largely similar forms of CAL learning and use (e.g., self-regulated learning, participation in social and sports activities) and experiences (e.g., technology use, familial encouragement, societal interaction) in non-school settings. As for lived descriptions connected to the school domain, interview data suggest that considerable variations are identified, revealing that the lived experiences of CAL learning are shaped by three noticeable sources of influence, namely

(i) *ethnic integration* which can be realised at school (i.e., ethnically integrated settings) and classroom (i.e., mixed-abilities groups) levels, with ethnically integrated CAL learners describing having more access to opportunities to be exposed to and use Chinese;
(ii) *age/educational level*, with older CAL learners (i.e., those in Grade 8) describing experiencing a shift towards a GCSE-oriented curriculum and the emergence of cross-linguistic teaching techniques[34]; and
(iii) *proficiency*, with weaker CAL learners (including newly-arrived and returnee students) describing encountering additional difficulties to learning CAL.

Overall, interview data suggest that these variations connected to the school domain shaped by learner-internal and learner-external factors are superimposed onto a broadly uniform home-school-community experiential base.

7.2.3. Language use and interaction in postcolonial Hong Kong

Additionally, interview data suggest that CAL learners' lived experiences of learning CAL are shaped by their dual situatedness in postcolonial Hong Kong where they

[34] This finding relating to age/educational level is further linked to findings from the third superordinate theme. For more, please refer to 7.2.4.

interact with majority groups in both instructional and social settings, and in an increasingly late-modern, transnational world characterised by the rise of social media and technology use. Such interactive encounters, constituting their respective journeys of becoming multilingual, are integral to their lived experiences of learning CAL in post-1997 Hong Kong. Data germane to this superordinate theme reveal two broad patterns of lived meanings related to language use and interaction: first, CAL learners' everyday linguistic needs are fulfilled by their home languages and English, a trend that is uniformly identified from the subsample of 15 CAL students; second, given intense English use and engagement among certain CAL students, a strong preference for English is identified from this particular group. Viewed together, although Hong Kong is an intensely Cantonese-speaking environment (Census and Statistics Department, 2017; see also 3.3.1), CAL students interviewed do not experience it as such and the sufficiency of English as a common language of communication in their immediate societal and scholastic settings constitutes a crucial mediational factor in their learning of CAL.

7.2.3.1. Being multilingual in postcolonial Hong Kong

First of all, multilingualism is a central motif throughout CAL students' descriptions of their experiences vis-à-vis language use. Their multilingual experiences highlight their multilinguality, as well as their linguistic situatedness in postcolonial Hong Kong where they participate in activities of societal and scholastic nature. Interview data related to this theme suggest that CAL students use both majority languages (i.e., Cantonese and English) and their respective home languages

Extract 132

S3: In everyday life, I use English 99% of the time. Like, studying… chatting with friends… going to church… For that 1%, I may use Cantonese when I have to buy something. But it's not a big part of my life.
R: How about home? Do you still use English mostly?
S3: Yes, but sometimes with some Tagalog phrases.

Student 3
(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Filipino, High Proficiency)

From Extract 132, Student 3 remarked on his use of English, Cantonese, and Tagalog (i.e., his home language), which highlighted his state of multilinguality. Furthermore, his account evinces the centrality of English as a dominant language of daily

communication, a trend that was identified among certain CAL students (Students 1, 3 5, 8 11, 14, 15) (see 7.2.3.3 below).

It is worth noting that interview data also demonstrate that not all CAL students describe such intense English use as exemplified in Extract 132. Instead of adopting English as the usual language of communication, these CAL students retain an affinity for non-majority languages which they use in home and religious settings,

Extract 133

S10: I use different language[s]. I use Punjabi with family. And I go to mosque every day for praying and learning to read in Arabic.
R: Do you talk to mosque people in Arabic?
S10: Not really. We're just there to learn to read the Quran.
R: How about English and Chinese then?
S10: English is for study… homework… Umm… English is very important. I think Chinese is also important but I don't use it except in school.

Student 10
(M, G8(I), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Mid Proficiency)

Student 10's use of four named languages Punjabi, Arabic, English, and Chinese could be taken as evidence of his multilinguality. The above exchange between Student 10 and the researcher highlights the roles of ethnic culture and religion (in this case, Islam) on everyday language use, and the restriction of English and Chinese to the scholastic settings. From Extract 133, a clear linguistic demarcation of domains is implied.

As highlighted above, given the meditational role of technology in CAL students' learning of CAL (e.g., Google Translate) (see Extracts 59, 65, 105, and 131), it is not surprising that CAL students uniformly described the use of social media and instant messaging as part of their experiences of being multilingual in post-1997 Hong Kong, which means that language use and exposure extend beyond territorial boundaries. For example, Student 4 revealed that she was in regular contact with her relatives overseas

Extract 134

I talk to my cousins all the time. Some're in the UK and some're back in Pakistan. Well… we all use Facebook and IG *[i.e.,*

Instagram] to stay connected and it's just fun to know about life in other places…

Student 4
(F, G8(I), aged 12, HK-born, Pakistani, High Proficiency)

7.2.3.2. Interacting with ethnic Chinese people

Descriptions of interaction with ethnic Chinese people can be found in not only school settings (see 7.2.2.3 and 7.2.2.4), but also community ones. As highlighted earlier in the previous superordinate theme, classroom interaction in Chinese (with ethnic Chinese people, including ethnic Chinese peers and teachers) constitutes a source of anxiety for the majority of CAL students interviewed. Similarly, in community settings, such inter-group contact conducted chiefly in Cantonese is experienced as anxiety-causing. In Extract 135, Student 12's description typifies the experience of anxiety in societal interaction in Chinese

Extract 135

I feel nervous if I have to speak in Cantonese. My mind just goes blank.

Student 12
(F, G5(C), aged 11, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

Furthermore, the usual medium of communication between minority groups and ethnic Chinese groups is English. From CAL students' descriptions of their daily routines, this pattern of language use was uniformly identified from all 15 CAL students interviewed. For example,

Extract 136

S4: I use Cantonese like when I'm paying at the cashier or buying something from wet market… I like how they're easily impressed with me speaking Canto[nese]… They're friendly people. But I don't do that often.
R: So for other times, you're using…?
S4: I use English mostly… Hong Kong people are ok with us speaking English all the time, even my teachers… and Pashto with my people from the mosque or when buying Halal food.

Student 4
(F, G8(I), aged 12, HK-born, Pakistani, High Proficiency)

From Extract 136, Student 4 remarked that her Cantonese use was restricted mostly to transactional occasions (e.g., purchases of groceries where formulaic Cantonese is involved) in the community, while describing that English sufficed as her daily language of interaction with ethnic Chinese groups.

What is also noteworthy is that CAL students' interaction with ethnic Chinese students is mediated by the societal importance placed on English. For example, some CAL students described that they practised English with ethnic Chinese students, as demonstrated in Extracts 137 and 138

Extract 137

English is more important than Chinese. Even Chinese students know that. That's why they keep asking us to practise English with them.

Student 10
(M, G8(I), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Mid Proficiency)

Extract 138

R: You mention you had a couple of Chinese friends from school. Can you tell me more about them?
S3: They're friendly… Umm... they're quite weak in English but they prefer me to talk to them in English. I heard that their parents want them to practise English more so they enrolled them in our class.
R: Do you talk to them in Cantonese at all?
S3: Not really. But I did practise speaking with them…
R: You mean practising speaking Cantonese with them?
S3: Not really… Umm… I mean English speaking… It's like they're doing a presentation and we're listening… They're reading aloud something and we're helping them with pronunciation.

Student 3
(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Filipino, High Proficiency)

Taken together, Cantonese use with ethnic Chinese people is described as limited and is restricted to transactional occasions where only formulaic Cantonese is needed. That is, although Hong Kong presents a Cantonese-rich environment, a majority of inter-group interaction takes place in English.

7.2.3.3. Developing an English-dominant multilingual identity

Given the sufficiency of English as a common language, as well as their interaction with ethnic Chinese people, certain CAL learners (Students 1, 3 5, 8 11, 14, 15) manifested a strong preference for English in their lived descriptions of learning CAL in post-1997 Hong Kong, which can be taken as evidence of the development of an English-dominant multilingual identity. Multilingual identity is defined here as self-construal in relation to one's multilinguality. Hence, for this group of CAL students who are also multilingual learners and users, the mastery and use of English are a more appealing identity option. For example

Extract 139

> I wouldn't deny the fact that I can speak survival Cantonese but I simply don't see myself as a Cantonese speaker. I use English pretty much all day every day. I read in English. I write in English. I talk to my family and friends in English. It's part of who I am. And I believe it's an important part of what Hong Kong is.
>
> *Student 15*
> *(M, G8(I), aged 13, HK-born, Mixed, Low Proficiency)*

In Extract 139, Student 15 enlarged on his perceptions of English and Chinese. As a CAL learner of mixed ethnicities, he remarked that English was his usual mode of communication in various settings, constituting an important part of his selfhood, as well as the city's identity. Similar ascription of value to English was also identified from Student 8 in Extract 140

Extract 140

> I don't particularly hate learning Chinese or love it. I just don't feel much about it. It's like… it does not carry the same amount of weight as English does.
>
> *Student 8*
> *(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Nepalese, Mid Proficiency)*

As for CAL students in Grade 5, such a tendency to exhibit an English-dominant multilingual identity can also be identified, for example

Extract 141

> I get to understand more about different things through English. I wouldn't be the person I am without English... It's like I wouldn't be able to talk with you here without English… So I would say that… English is the language I want to focus on… I would like to work harder in English… And Chinese, to me, is just a good side dish to have…
>
> *Student 1*
> *(M, G5(C), aged 9, HK-born, Indian, High Proficiency)*

In Extract 141, Student 1 attributed his acquisition of world knowledge to English. Because of the intricate relationship perceived between English and his personal development, he prioritised more efforts for the learning of English. To Student 1, the learning of CAL was secondary to that of English, which hints at the differential levels of investment in learning Chinese and English respectively (see also Norton, 2000, 2013; Darvin & Norton, 2016).

Comparatively, as for other CAL learners (Students 2, 6 7, 12 13) whose interview data did not indicate an English-dominant multilingual identity position, regular and frequent exposure to English was described as part of their linguistic norm, whether locally or virtually (see also Extract 134 in 7.2.3.1). For example, Student 7, who did not explicitly avow an English-dominant multilingual identity position, described English as an integral part of her everyday language use and/or exposure

Extract 142

> Well… we *[i.e., ethnic minority people]* talk in English all the time… That's like the common language we share… I have got relatives from the UK and we skype in English…
>
> *Student 7*
> *(F, G5(I), aged 10, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)*

7.2.3.4. Coda

Overall, data related to this superordinate theme shed light on an important aspect of CAL learners' lived experiences of engaging with language use and interaction in postcolonial Hong Kong. Literature on the colonial period generally suggests that Hong Kong was composed of two monolingual communities (i.e., a Chinese-speaking community and an English-speaking community) that had little contact (see Luke & Richards, 1982; So, 1989; Poon, 2000). Over time, as the citizenry became more bilingual, inter-ethnic contact became more common. Yet, such contact is usually mediated by a cline of English use by ethnic Chinese speakers in Hong Kong (see Poon, 2010). Interview data on this superordinate theme dovetail with this pattern of language use and interaction. In CAL students' experience, their daily language needs were fulfilled by their home languages and English. Interview data also reveal that English was the usual language of communication between CAL students and ethnic Chinese groups. These patterns of language use and interaction in both societal and scholastic settings lead some of the CAL students interviewed to align more with English use and learning, which could in turn mediate their attitudes and motivation towards learning CAL.

7.2.4. Becoming non-Chinese-speaking (NCS) students

The final superordinate theme concerns these 15 CAL students' self-construal vis-à-vis their experiences of learning CAL across settings highlighted above. Similar to the superordinate theme of 'Becoming CAL teachers' (see 6.2.5), these self-perceptions and -interpretations from CAL learners offer a glimpse of their sensemaking in relation to learning CAL in an instructional and policy environment where they have been ascribed the label of '*non*-Chinese-speaking (NCS) students'. Such official ascription has material consequences (e.g., instructional practices, exit-point examination), with implications for CAL students' personhood as minority learners. Interview data gleaned from this existing subsample of CAL students recruited from four different CAL settings suggest a differential pattern of self-construal in relation to learning CAL between CAL students in Grade 8 and those in Grade 5. Notably, interview data from Grade 8 students suggest that they are aware of racial discrimination, as well as the general deficiency ascribed to them as minority groups; and that such awareness is linked to their discourses indicating a rather instrumental (instead of integrative) motivation towards learning CAL. Yet, such a pattern of self-construal was absent from Grade 5 CAL learners' descriptions of their experience, with them indicating a more integrative motivation towards learning CAL.

7.2.4.1. Experiences of racial discrimination and the deficit model of CAL provision

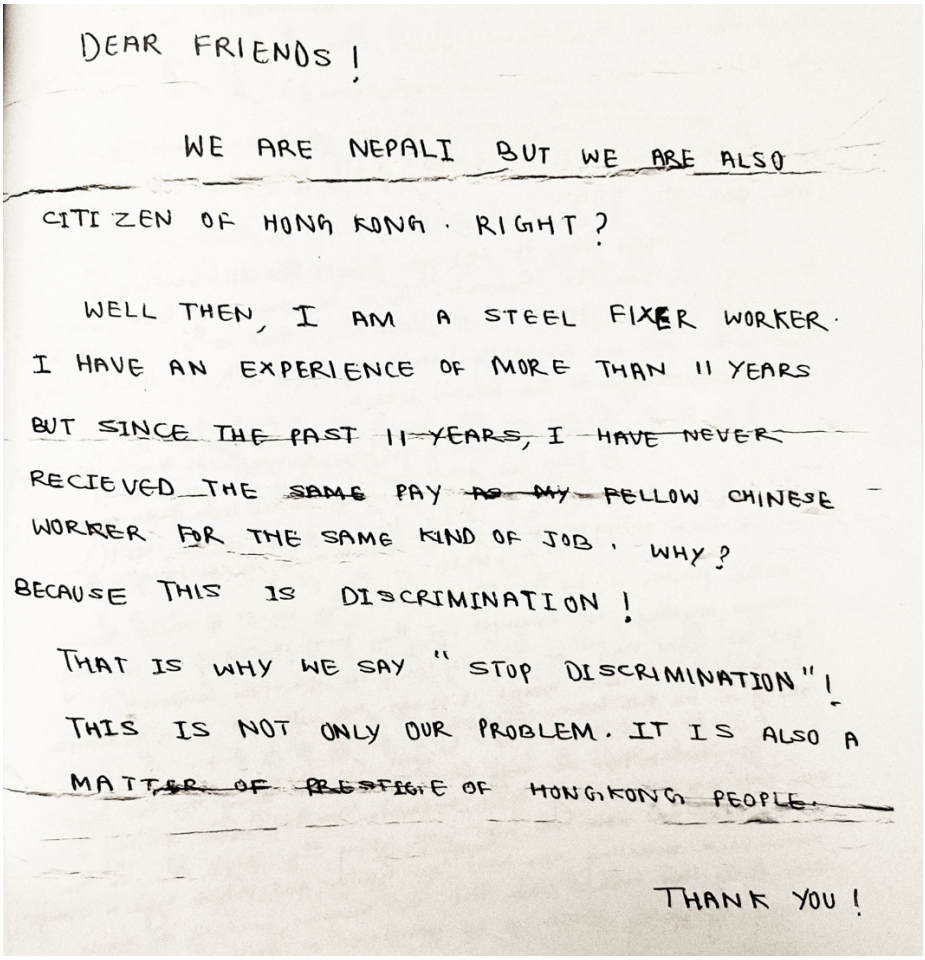
Core to Grade 8 students' interview data were descriptions indicating their awareness of radical discrimination and their feelings of deficiency. This domain of lived meanings was identified uniformly from all Grade 8 students (Students 3 4, 8 11, 14 15; with Student 7 being the only Grade 5 student who described that). The first aspect under this theme was their experience of racial discrimination, as revealed by Student 4

Extract 143

S4: Discrimination is real in Hong Kong. We're called names and we're treated poorly.
R: Do you mean that you're experiencing that at school?
S4: I mean in society.
R: How about school?
S4: School's better but Chinese people make fun of my poor Cantonese accent.
R: I'm very sorry to hear that. But I'm wondering if you can tell me more about your experience of discrimination.
S4: Umm... For example, I walked into a candy shop with my sister and the boss told the shop assistant to keep an eye on us as we may 偷嘢 /tau1 je5/ (steal things). Another example is that people didn't want to let us rent their flat because we're not Chinese.

Student 4
(F, G8(I), aged 12, HK-born, Pakistani, High Proficiency)

From Extract 143, Student 4 gave examples of racial discrimination she experienced herself as a member of ethnic minorities in Hong Kong, including name-calling, teasing, and differential treatments.


DEAR FRIENDS !

WE ARE NEPALI BUT WE ARE ALSO CITIZEN OF HONG KONG. RIGHT ?

WELL THEN, I AM A STEEL FIXER WORKER. I HAVE AN EXPERIENCE OF MORE THAN 11 YEARS BUT SINCE THE PAST 11 YEARS, I HAVE NEVER RECIEVED THE SAME PAY AS MY FELLOW CHINESE WORKER FOR THE SAME KIND OF JOB. WHY ? BECAUSE THIS IS DISCRIMINATION !

THAT IS WHY WE SAY " STOP DISCRIMINATION " ! THIS IS NOT ONLY OUR PROBLEM. IT IS ALSO A MATTER OF PRESTIGE OF HONGKONG PEOPLE.

THANK YOU !

Figure 33 | An example of discrimination facing minority groups in Hong Kong (Source: a 2007 collection of essays by steel fixer workers in Hong Kong)

Grade 8 CAL students' awareness of racial discrimination might be linked to their experiences of the deficit model of CAL provision in Hong Kong,

Extract 144

S14: I know there're regular Chinese classes and special classes. Since we're quite bad in Chinese, the special classes suit us.
R: What do you mean by special classes?
S14: I mean less difficult Chinese classes.

Student 14
(F, G8(C), aged 13, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

Student 14 remarked on the existence of two kinds of Chinese classes, regular and special. In her experience, because CAL students were weaker in Chinese, they deserved less demanding instructional arrangements. This experience was further elaborated upon by Student 9 who categorised herself as a 非華語 /fei1 waa4 jyu5/

(non-Chinese-speaking) student (i.e., with connotations of minority students' linguistic deficiency), the official label ascribed to CAL students

Extract 145

> I used to want to speak Chinese like local people but my teacher said it's not needed for us 非華語 /feir waa4 jyu5/ (non-Chinese-speaking). It's just like local people wanted to speak good English but they don't have to read Shakespeare like people in the UK. We need to believe that it's good enough for us.
>
> *Student 9*
> *(F, G8(C), aged 12, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)*

Extract 145 can be taken as evidence of Grade 8 CAL students' evolving expectation vis-à-vis learning CAL. Student 9 expressed her belief that language provision was dependent on whether the learners themselves were native-speakers. Here, given her status as a 'non-Chinese-speaking student', Student 9 reasoned that the existing CAL provision available to her was 'good enough'.

7.2.4.2. Discourses of CAL learning motivation

Lastly, student interviews have yielded discourses of their CAL learning motivation. There emerges a differential pattern among CAL students of different educational levels: Grade 8 CAL students tend to engage in discourses indicating instrumental motivation towards learning CAL, whereas Grade 5 counterparts are in general more integrative in their orientation. It is highly probable that older CAL students interviewed (i.e., those in Grade 8) are more exposed to a general discourse of the importance of Chinese in the workplace (e.g., ApL(C) as a policy initiative at senior secondary levels), which may in turn shape their CAL learning motivation.

Specifically, older CAL students' instrumental discourses of learning CAL are evinced by (i) their emphasis on passing the Chinese language examination, which was exemplified by Extract 146; and (ii) their preference for learning workplace Chinese, which was highlighted in Extract 147

Extract 146

> To me, it's *[referring to the learning CAL]* about passing the examination and I think I stand a good chance of doing exactly that.

Student 15
(M, G8(I), aged 13, HK-born, Mixed, Low Proficiency)

Extract 147

> I'm curious about practical Chinese. [Teacher 3] told us that there's going to be such a module in Form Five. That can help us to find better jobs in Hong Kong.

Student 9
(F, G8(C), aged 12, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)

Furthermore, certain CAL students (Students 3 4, 8, 10 11) expressed their opinions on the perceived difficulties and futility of social integration through learning CAL, as demonstrated by Student 3

Extract 148

> It's funny how people say if we speak better Cantonese, we'll be part of Hong Kong. The truth is we're part of Hong Kong with or without Cantonese. We're born here. We have our own ways of life… communities… Of course, make no mistake about it, I still think Cantonese is important for work and survival… but that's it. I just don't see the point of aiming for more.

Student 3
(M, G8(C), aged 13, HK-born, Filipino, High Proficiency)

From Extract 148, Student 3 expressed his doubt towards the received view that speaking better Cantonese is essential for social integration in post-1997 Hong Kong. He remarked that whether minority students were part of Hong Kong shall not be determined only through the successful acquisition of Cantonese, while suggesting that there were equally legitimate ways of life and communities in postcolonial Hong Kong. Student 3's view hints at his lack of interest in social integration with the Cantonese-speaking population and his rather instrumental attitude towards learning CAL. It should be noted that Student 3 was also identified as among those manifesting an English-dominant multilingual identity position (see 7.2.3.3).

By contrast, these discourses of instrumental motivation towards learning CAL are not identified from younger CAL students (Students 1 2, 4 7, 12 13). Instead, they

generally described that their reasons for learning CAL were mainly associated with their desire to be integrated. For example, Student 5 revealed that she was curious about making friends with ethnic Chinese people and their cultures

Extract 149

S5: I want to make friends with Chinese people. And I want to know more about Chinese things, like Chinese New Year, and Moon Festival. I also like Chinese stories.
R: Can you tell me more about this? I mean stories you like.
S5: I like read[ing] books about the stories behind Chinese festivals, and about famous people in old China.

Student 5
(F, G5(C), aged 10, HK-born, Indian, Mid Proficiency)

This pattern of integrative motivation is also identified from weaker CAL students in Grade 5, for example

Extract 150

I want to speak more Chinese in local places. I want to understand Chinese words in the streets… and newspapers... I think it's important to know more and more Chinese to be a good Hong Kong person.

Student 13
(M, G5(I), aged 10, non-HK-born, Pakistani, Low Proficiency)

7.2.4.3. Coda

In sum, interview data related to this superordinate theme reveal experiential differences between Grade 5 CAL learners and Grade 8 counterparts. Specifically, Grade 8 learners tend to describe experiences indicative of their (i) awareness of racial/ethnic discrimination around them, (ii) sensemaking vis-à-vis largely deficit-based CAL arrangements emanating from a depreciative, assimilationist model of CAL provision (e.g., the official referent of '*non*-Chinese speaking students'; see also Adamson & Feng, 2015), and (iii) instrumental motivation for learning CAL. These descriptions were not identified from interview data gleaned from Grade 5 CAL learners whose descriptions are generally integrative in nature. This grade-based (i.e., age-based) divergence, present in student interviews, is largely exploratory, pending

further research that systematically studies their language learning motivation and beliefs. That said, the grade/age-based difference in CAL learning motivation dovetails with quantitative data collected on CAL learning motivation through the LBQ (see 5.2.3). That is, on the whole, older minority students are less integratively motivated to learn CAL. In view of all these, findings of PIs with this subsample of CAL students seem to point to the possibility of an intrinsic, age-related trajectory of sensemaking (e.g., adjustment of one's language learning motivation) in relation to the experiences of social discrimination and the imposition of deficiency and low expectation. This is, from data drawn from Grade 8 CAL students, it can be extrapolated that older CAL learners were experiencing a broadly similar process of becoming non-Chinese speaking students under the current CAL policy ecology.

7.3. Summary

Overall, analysis of interview data from these 15 CAL students selected with respect to their Chinese proficiency and teachers' recommendation surfaces three noticeable domains of lived meanings related to the learning of CAL: learning CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong (see 7.2.2), language use and interaction in postcolonial Hong Kong (see 7.2.3) and becoming NCS students (see 7.2.4). On the whole, this subsample of CAL students described the learning of CAL as a phenomenon taking place across home-school-community settings. Notably, CAL-related experiences in the home and community settings were broadly uniform with major variations identified in the school settings. As highlighted in the Preamble (see 7.2.1), these variations in the way these 15 CAL students described their experiences with instructed CAL might be related to the confluences of various factors (e.g., proficiency, grade level, school type). Therefore, these school-based variations identified from student interviews evince CAL students' diversified experiences of learning CAL in the following three ways

1. With ethnic concentration realised at both school (i.e., ethnically integrated schools) and classroom (i.e., mixed-abilities groups) levels, the extent to which CAL students were afforded CAL learning opportunities varied. In this regard, CAL students in ethnically integrated and mixed-abilities settings (i.e., Grade 5 (Integrated)) described more opportunities to be exposed to and use Chinese.

2. Interview data furthermore suggest that CAL students' Chinese proficiency might be a determinant of the extent to which learning CAL was regarded as difficult. Specifically, weaker CAL students (including newly-arrived and

returnee CAL students) described encountering additional difficulties relating to their learning of CAL.

3. The variable of age/educational level might determine the experience of learning CAL vis-à-vis (i) curricular content, (ii) use of cross-linguistic techniques, (iii) awareness of social discrimination, (iv) feelings of deficiency, and (v) CAL learning motivation. Overall, available interview data seem to suggest that the primary-secondary transition signifies a watershed in their experiences of learning CAL.

On top of these findings, interview data also suggest that CAL students' patterns of language use and interaction in both societal and scholastic settings may shape their experiences of learning CAL. Given that English and their home languages generally fulfil their daily language needs, it is hardly surprising that some of the CAL students interview manifest an English-oriented multilingual identity, which may further mediate their attitudes and motivations towards learning CAL.

8. Discussion and Conclusion

8.1. Chapter guide

This chapter

- recapitulates major research findings in the present study (8.2);
- discusses three thematic clusters of findings (8.3 – 8.5);
- discusses potential limitations of the present study (8.6);
- discusses implications for future research and policymaking (8.7); and
- concludes the present study (8.8).

8.2. An LPP perspective on CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong

The present study is positioned as an LPP inquiry that has problematised CAL provision to ethnolinguistic minority students in post-1997 Hong Kong and particularised a cross-section of primary and secondary CAL classrooms to shed light on the enactments and lived experiences of existing CAL policies. Methodologically, CAL provision as intended, enacted, and lived has been explored with a multi-dimensional, mixed-methods design, with multiple strands of findings generated through a purposeful funneling down from a macro-level analysis of CAL intentions articulated in policy documents to a micro-level exploration of CAL instructional spaces and key participants in them.

At the macro-level of policy, CAL provision as an arena of language-in-education policymaking is largely reactive than proactive, with evidence of retaining 'inconsistent, incoherent, or incongruent elements' that might undercut the intended efficacy of existing measures (Howlett, 2014, p.198). On the one hand, policy data indicate that CAL provision from 2014 onwards is characterised by increased governmental commitment to strengthening support for both ordinary and special schools at K-12 levels, with sustained investment in the wider CAL infrastructure and a patchwork of satellite CAL measures. Funds earmarked for CAL purposes (see 4.2.2.3) are utilised within a diffuse and decentralised structure of CAL measures aiming at 'bridging [ethnolinguistic minority students] over to mainstream Chinese Language classes' (Hong Kong Hansard, 31 October 2018, p.846). On the other hand, since 2006/07 school year, there has existed in parallel a preferential policy of exempting minority students with CAL needs from sitting the mainstream Chinese Language examination and subsidising them to seek UK-based qualifications in Chinese (i.e., GCSE, IGCSE, and GCE). Rhetorically reframed as an initiative opening 'multiple pathways' for ethnolinguistic minority students, the policy of Alternative Qualifications in Chinese Language (ACL), as available statistics have elucidated, is fast becoming the preferred option in the existing phase of CAL

provision (see Figure 13 in 4.2.2.7), with the percentages of minority students taking mainstream HKDSE Chinese Language halving from 18.6% in 2012 to 9.9% in 2017 (see Table 42 in 4.2.2.7). Considered together, evidence suggests that existing CAL policies intend to enable a K-12 environment rich in resources, be it financial assistance, professional support, or infrastructural investment, yet affordances of this policy environment are under the influences of the micro-level negotiations between prioritising *mainstreaming* arrangements and *alternative* ones.

At the micro-level of policy enactment, both classroom and interview data point to the differential associations between the preferential ACL policy and instructional practices across the primary-secondary sample, with both secondary classrooms exhibiting noticeable traits of 'the narrowing of the curriculum brought about by teaching to the test' (Cummins, 2000, p.248). These instructional characteristics of secondary CAL instructional spaces are observed and experienced regardless of their degree of ethnic concentration, which lends credence to the likelihood that secondary schools admitting CAL students are, in practice, prioritising an instructionally narrow mode of CAL provision in alignment with overseas ACL at the exit point of secondary schooling. However, this association is not observed among primary CAL instructional spaces, with both settings showing traits characteristic of the mainstream curriculum at primary levels (see 5.5.1, 6.2.2.4, and 6.2.2.3). In this regard, mixed-abilities grouping adopted as a means of managing diversity in the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting yields additional instructional variations, especially input and interaction affordances associated with mixing both CAL and ethnic Chinese students together, as well as use of differentiated materials. That CAL provision has ramified at the local level is not surprising in that these micro-level negotiations are nested within a structure encouraging school-based management and devolved decision-making. This laissez-faire mode of school governance favours loose coupling between the state and schools (see Weick, 1976; Orton & Weick, 1990), serving to agilely promote novel solutions and local accommodations as a response to CAL needs of minority students at various levels. Yet, one critical dysfunction in a loosely coupled system is that 'people become uncertain, lonely, and captives of local populations to which they make increasingly large accommodations that undercut educational aims' (Weick, 1982, p.676).

In what follows, three noticeable threads running through the three investigative domains of the present inquiry are highlighted in greater depth with reference to the prevailing mode of CAL provision within a decentralised school governance structure: (i) instructional alignment with overseas ACL at secondary levels (8.3), (ii) the manifestation of mainstreaming (8.4), and (iii) CAL provision as a social justice

concern (8.5), followed by concluding remarks on the limitations (8.6) and implications (8.7) arising out of the present inquiry.

8.3. Instructional alignment with overseas Alternative Qualifications in Chinese (ACL) at secondary levels

As noted earlier, the present phase of CAL provision is retaining and expanding the preferential assessment policy, which allows CAL students who have met either one of the two specified requirements to opt for overseas ACL in lieu of sitting the mainstream high-stakes HKDSE Chinese Language examination, for the purposes of promoting university admission and enabling multiple pathways. Those two requirements are: (i) having learnt Chinese for less than 6 years while receiving primary and secondary education (e.g., new arrivals or returnees); and (ii) having learnt Chinese for 6 years or more in schools but having been taught an adapted and simpler curriculum not normally applicable to Chinese-fluent peers in local schools (e.g., locally-born CAL students). The broad applicability of the latter requirement of the ACL policy, as the policy analysis has illustrated (see 4.3), is incongruent with existing CAL policy efforts on mainstreaming. This finding is in keeping with a burgeoning literature that points to the intertwinement between a sound assessment-cum-accountability policy and educational attainments of minority students (Jacob, 2005; Heilig & Darling-Hammond, 2008; Jennings & Beveridge, 2009; Robinson-Cimpian, Thompson, & Umansky, 2016). Particularly, given CAL teachers' training and previous work in Chinese-as-a-first-language (CFL) settings historically influenced by a heavily examination-oriented culture (see 6.2.4.1; see also R. Berry, 2011), their agentive action may be strategically directed towards aligning their instructional practices with overseas ACL sanctioned and subsidised by the government, thereby eventuating in CAL learning trajectories and experiences that run counter to grade-appropriate CAL progression.

Existing evidence from the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains suggests that CAL provision at secondary levels is associated with a more restricted range of instructional features corresponding to UK-based language assessments in Chinese (see 5.6), with data suggesting that, although CAL students at secondary levels are more proficient in Chinese speaking and reading in research-administered measures than counterparts at primary levels (see 5.2.1), CAL instruction at secondary levels are found to be less demanding (see 5.5.1) and experienced as such (see 7.2.2.5). These findings on instructional alignment with overseas ACL are further corroborated by phenomenological findings on curriculum orientation (see 6.2.2.4) and content modularisation (see 6.2.3.3) at secondary levels. These instances of local CAL enactments are taking place against the backdrop of school-based management (see

Education Bureau, 2017b; Cheng & Chan, 2000) and school self-evaluation (see Education and Manpower Bureau, 2003). In this connection, schools in postcolonial Hong Kong are governed under principles of decentralisation and loose coupling, with implementational and interpretative freedom given to frontline practitioners at key schooling levels. It is therefore not surprising that local actions at secondary CAL settings may be tightly coupled to the government-approved policy measure of ACL, which further supports the observation that schools in Hong Kong are 'facing a paradox of centralization within a decentralization paradigm' (Ng & Chan, 2008, p.498). It can be inferred that CAL schools at secondary levels may be on a collective trajectory to align curricular and instructional practices with overseas ACL as a short-term CAL goal, which may adversely impact the longer-term CAL goal of mainstreaming.

Aside from adding to existing literature on the ACL policy (e.g., Loh & Tam, 2016), these signs of instructional alignment as early as junior secondary levels may be symptomatic of the wider issue of not having an age-appropriate, second-language assessment for CAL students in post-1997 Hong Kong. The reality of having to choose between first-language (i.e., HKDSE) and foreign-language (e.g., GCSE) exit-point assessments means that the route of least effort is usually prioritised, giving rise to instructional alignment as a coping and/or gaming strategy especially at secondary levels (see also metrics fixation in Muller, 2018). This process makes plain the unintended instructional consequences (i.e., goal displacement) of not having an appropriate assessment-cum-accountability system, while compounding the state of 'systemic ignorance' about the general state of CAL attainment even after 15 years of free education and some form of school-based CAL instruction (Cummins, 2000, p.146). Existing evidence of instructional alignment also raises the possibility of attending to a neglected area (i.e., primary-secondary transition) in the LPP process by intervening somewhere between HKDSE-based standards and GCSE-based ones, the excluded middle ground that holds potential for raising CAL students' Chinese proficiency and, by implication, narrowing the Chinese language proficiency gap between CAL students and ethnic Chinese counterparts.

8.4. The manifestation of mainstreaming

The existing phase of CAL provision is characterised by the policy shift towards mainstreaming minority students with CAL needs, as evidenced by the funding schemes open to all K-12 schools admitting CAL students (see 4.2.1.3 and 4.2.2.3), as well as the oft-articulated goal of enabling minority students to 'bridge over to mainstream Chinese Language classes' (Hong Kong Hansard, 30 November 2016, p.1537; see also Education Bureau, 2017c, 2018). Yet, as visualised in Figure 34,

mainstreaming as a policy outcome is subject to influences of wider education policies such as school-based management, fine-tuned medium-of-instruction (MOI) arrangements, and school admission policies. As such, mainstreaming arrangements for ethnolinguistic minority students are diversified along multiple intersecting continua: the continua of MOI arrangements (from English as the MOI to Chinese as the MOI), schools' ethnic composition (from schools densely populated with minority students to ethnically integrated ones), and school-based policies on Chinese Language classes (from separating minority students from ethnic Chinese students to mixing them), to name a few. What further complexifies the manifestation of mainstreaming is the legacy of designated schooling. Although 'designated schooling' is no longer part of prevailing CAL policies, the effects of 'de facto racial segregation' are still palpable (Hong Kong Unison, 2016, p.4; see also Hong Kong Unison, 2018). Findings from the 'Policy' domain suggest that, instead of resorting to regulatory measures such as imposing a cap on the percentage of minority students in a given school (see Hong Kong Unison, 2017), the government is only pursuing suasion-based measures — i.e., information dissemination and exhortation (see 4.2.15 and 4.2.2.6), as well as parental education (see 4.2.3.1) — to counter the phenomenon of the overcrowding of minority students in formerly-designated schools across K-12 levels. Yet, in absence of other inducements, this cluster of policy instruments remains too passive and weak to effect the desired and focused outcome of mainstreaming (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003; see also Edelman, 1964).

Against this backdrop, the contextual factor of ethnic concentration — i.e., ethnic composition of a given CAL school — was explored in this study via a purposive sample of four CAL settings to investigate the manifestation of mainstreaming practices within the existing structure of CAL policies. Findings from the 'Practice' and 'Phenomenology' domains demonstrated the relation between mainstreaming (as manifested at both school and class levels), and language use and/or instruction patterns. First, in relation to mainstreaming at the school level (i.e., grouping minority and ethnic Chinese students together at a school level), CAL students from ethnically integrated settings (i.e., Grade 5 (Integrated) and Grade 8 (Integrated) settings) reported higher proficiency in Chinese (except writing) (see 5.2.1), with subgroups of CAL learners from both integrated settings remarking on more opportunities to interact with Chinese-fluent peers, and to be exposed to and use Chinese (see 7.2.2.3). This is in line with a recent research study commissioned by the Equal Opportunities Commission, which finds a link between higher perceived host receptivity and ethnically integrated schooling (i.e., low-concentration schools) (Chan et al., 2020). Second, as regards mainstreaming at the class level (i.e., access to the mainstream curriculum alongside ethnic Chinese peers, see 6.2.3.2), the

present inquiry finds that the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting — i.e., where CAL students learn Chinese as a language subject alongside ethnic Chinese students — is associated with a range of instructional affordances: heightened dialogicality and classroom interaction (see 5.3.1 and 5.3.2), student-centredness (see 5.3.3), a higher proportion of literacy-oriented tasks (see 5.4), and more opportunities to seek help from, model after, and form closer bonds with Chinese-fluent peers (see 7.2.2.4). Third, the manifestation of mainstreaming depends also on school-based curriculum development. For example, although the Grade 5 (Concentrated) setting adopted a policy of separating CAL students from ethnic Chinese ones, it aligned its curriculum with the mainstream curriculum for ethnic Chinese students (i.e., access to the mainstream curriculum without ethnic Chinese peers, see 6.2.2.4 and 6.2.3.2), which could further diversify CAL learning experiences especially in schools where minority students are overrepresented. Given these school-based differences, as well as the inherent ambiguity in the term 主流 /zyu2 lau4/ (mainstream), the integration of minority students into the mainstream environment and curriculum is characterised by a high degree of contextual contingency.

Particularly, findings on the affordances of adopting mixed-abilities grouping and using differentiated materials in the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting make an original impact to the milieu of post-1997 Hong Kong where separate CAL provision — i.e., withdrawal and pull-out classes — remains common, pointing to a viable way forward for future policy efforts on mainstreaming CAL students. After all, mixed-abilities grouping is the modus operandi through which language minority students gain access to majority languages and content knowledge, especially in Anglophone and European settings (see Clegg, 1996; Bunch, 2009; Chen, 2007, 2009). Classroom and interview data on the associations between mixed-abilities grouping and instructional affordances add to a growing literature on mainstreaming minority students, indicating that it is possible to reap the benefits of a target-language-rich instructional space without being left in swim-or-sink situations. With reference to the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting, mainstreaming via mixed-abilities grouping does not come about through a simplistic physical grouping of CAL students with ethnic Chinese counterparts, but entails instructional strategies and modifications (e.g., more differentiation) to enable equitable access to Chinese oracy and literacy. Taken together, findings germane to the Grade 5 (Integrated) setting enrich existing CAL literature (notably, Shum, Gao, & Ki, 2016) that the current shift away from segregation should concern not only school-level integration, but also class-level integration. That is a promising move beyond mere desegregating at the school level yet re-segregating students by their CAL status at the class level (e.g., Grade 8 (Integrated) lessons), promoting not merely equality of presence, but also equality of access to quality Chinese Language instruction.

	Separate CAL provision	Semi-mainstream CAL provision		Mainstream CAL provision	
Medium of instruction	English	English	English	English	Chinese
School ethnic composition	Concentrated	Concentrated	Integrated	Integrated	Integrated
Class-based diversity management	Streamed	Streamed	Streamed	Non-streamed	Non-streamed
Access to the mainstream curriculum	Non-mainstream	Mainstream	Non-mainstream	Mainstream	Mainstream
Manifestation of mainstreaming	Exposure to non-mainstream, streamed CAL instruction in concentrated, English-medium schools	Exposure to mainstream, streamed CAL instruction in concentrated, English-medium schools	Exposure to non-mainstream, streamed CAL instruction in integrated, English-medium schools	Exposure to mainstream, non-streamed CAL instruction in integrated, English-medium schools	Exposure to mainstream, non-streamed CAL instruction in integrated, Chinese-medium schools
Empirical cases in the present study	Grade 8 (Concentrated)	Grade 5 (Concentrated)	Grade 8 (Integrated)	Grade 5 (Integrated)	N/A

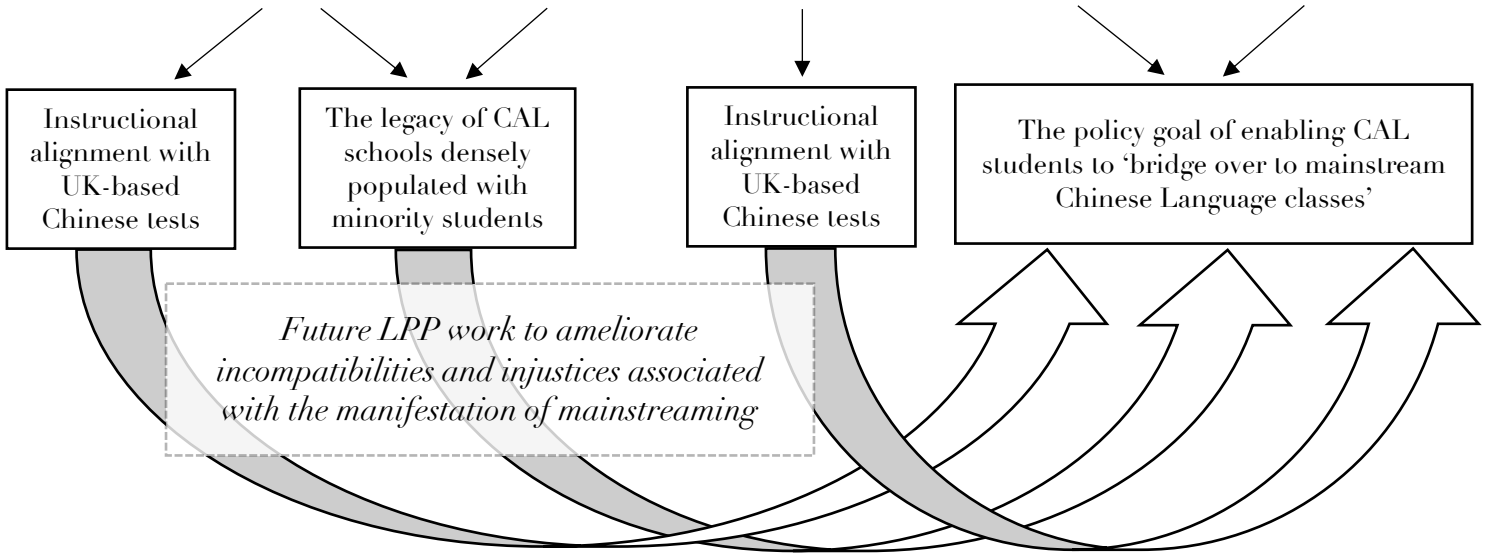


Figure 34 | An illustration of the manifestation of mainstreaming and the implications

8.5. CAL provision as a social justice concern

In light of the above, as well as the observation that largely positivistic, rationalist LPP research may run the risk of aiding and abetting 'social repression in the interests of state and class' (Lo Bianco, 2004, p.747; see also Luke, McHoul, & Mey, 1990), it is crucial to engage the critical dimension of CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong by approaching it as a social justice concern (see Flyvbjerg, 2001; Lo Bianco, 2008). After all, as Clegg (1996, p.2) has put it, formal schooling for minority students is at bottom a double-edged experience

> …coming to school means entering a new culture, learning a new language and most significantly learning to use it for the purposes of cognitive and academic as well as social development. It may also mean learning to face prejudice and experience powerlessness, and perhaps embarking on the process of losing fluency in the language of the home…

In the present study, all three strands of empirical data suggest that certain policy elements institutionalised as part of the current phase of CAL provision are presenting competing goals (e.g., the prioritisation of ACL) and exerting constricting influences on the manifestation of the mainstreaming imperative (e.g., the use of half measures to reverse the legacy of segregated schooling). Against the wider backdrop of laissez-faire education policies and sociolinguistic forces, these incompatibilities create the conditions for injustices germane to majority language acquisition. In particular, CAL students' access to the full Chinese Language curriculum is blocked to varying extents owing in part to the absence of an appropriate assessment-cum-accountability system throughout the K-12 stages. These in turn shape the material realities of minority students with language learning and social integration needs and begs the question of efficient and effective use of public funds to bring about social justice.

In this respect, policy evidence depicts a picture of an assimilationist (see also J. Berry, 2017) and depreciative model of CAL provision with scant regard for ethnolinguistic minority students' unique multilingual and multicultural profiles (see also funds of knowledge from Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). Exemplifying 'an explicit form of subtractive trilingualism' (Adamson & Feng, 2015, p.249), this depreciative orientation of CAL provision in Phase 3 is characterised by the absence of 'concrete provisions… in terms of employing the minority language as the medium of instruction, or offering it as a subject or even encouraging its use as a language of daily discourse in the school' (pp. 249 250). In other words, the existing

programmes of CAL support measures chiefly intend to effect CAL students' assimilation into the normative expectation of 'biliteracy and trilingualism' in post-1997 Hong Kong. Notably, the official referent, *non-Chinese speaking students*, which has been routinely used in public discourses ranging from policy documents to course prospectuses, offers a glimpse of the extent to ethnolinguistic minority students are positioned in relation to their Chinese-fluent peers, while evincing the pervasion of deficit thinking within the existing structure of CAL policies and measures (see also Swadener, 1995; Valencia, 1997). That said, policy evidence suggests that, especially in view of increased and enhanced CAL provision over the years, CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong is more a case of 'benign neglect' (Cummins, 2019, p.3), rather than malicious suppression.

Although phenomenological data indicate that CAL students' lived experiences of the current policy ecology are subject to demographic and contextual influences, recurring patterns are emerging from their accounts of learning CAL and becoming multilingual in post-1997 Hong Kong, revealing their responses to the structural issues of minoritisation (e.g., experiences of curricular discontinuities, deficit framing, discrimination etc.; see also Cummings, 2017). First, CAL students in Grade 8, who have experienced the primary-secondary transition as a crucial watershed in their respective CAL learning trajectories, tend to describe their lived experiences with racial/ethnic discrimination and the circulation of the general deficit framing (see 7.2.4.1), with most of them manifesting an English-oriented multilingual identity position in their experiential recounts (see 7.2.3.3). These emerging insights, albeit gleaned cross-sectionally from a small sample, offer a glimpse of the possible ramifications of coming to terms with a learning environment where minority students' unique linguistic profiles are neglected and/or they are interpellated as proficient English users to practise English with (see 7.2.3.2). Second, CAL students in Grade 8 tend also to approach CAL learning with an instrumentalist framing, whereas Grade 5 counterparts exhibit a more integrative orientation (see 5.2.3 and 7.2.4.2). The differences between primary and secondary CAL students, which may suggest a shift in CAL learning motivation relative to age, may be attributed to their sensemaking processes vis-à-vis the accumulation of more experiences across CAL contexts, which rings the alarm bell about the existing mode of CAL provision.

Despite the challenges, the present study also identifies favourable conditions with implications for a socially just mode of CAL provision. The first conducive condition concerns the centrality of CAL provision to the education policy agenda of the HKSAR government. As the policy analysis has demonstrated, CAL policymaking has considerably evolved since the 1997 handover with substantive policy commitments (i.e., CAL provision at kindergarten levels, increased and diversified

funds earmarked for CAL purposes, infrastructural investment, etc.) over the years. These signify an incrementalist manner of policymaking and planning at the confluence of (i) the bounded rationality of policy actors and (ii) the indeterminacy of the CAL phenomenon in postcolonial Hong Kong (see Lindbolm, 1959, 1979; see also Cairney, 2012). Secondly, the present study finds that CAL teachers are developing CAL professional identities (see 6.2.5.1) and critical consciousness of their work with ethnolinguistic minority students (see 6.2.5.2), with phenomenological evidence pointing also to the emergence of CAL teaching communities of practice across Hong Kong (see 6.2.4). These may be related to existing policy efforts on professional and school-based support (see 4.2.2.4), which could help enhance local teachers' readiness and capabilities to serve minority students, and form CAL-oriented professional networks both within K-12 schools serving minority students and across the territory. In particular, under laissez-faire conditions of loose coupling, CAL provision as a social justice issue is greatly shaped by street-level policymaking (Lipsky, 1980; Moore, 1990), which dovetails with CAL teachers' lived experiences of practice leading research and policy (see 6.2.4.4). That said, as another research study commissioned by the EOC has shown, in relation to the changing policies, novel challenges are emerging for principals and teachers in mainstream schools to cater equitably for the needs of minority students, especially in areas relating to their professional readiness, resource availability, as well as structural issues of not having an appropriate curriculum in place (Hong Kong Oxfam, Loh, & Hung, 2020).

8.6. Limitations

The present study contributes to the limited understanding of the current state of CAL provision from 2014 onwards, especially instructional enactments within a decentralised structure, as well as the lived experiences of key participants across four CAL settings. However, it has several noteworthy limitations. First, owing to resource constraints, the study has only adopted a rather small yet purposive sample of four CAL classrooms — with 101 CAL students and four CAL teachers — to make inferences about CAL policy enactments in primary and secondary schools. This may reduce the generalisability and utility of findings emerging from the present study. In the future, a more nuanced and larger sample could be adopted to examine instructional enactments across CAL settings of high, medium, and low ethnic concentration, as well as the lived experiences of key participants in them. Also, CAL schools adopting Chinese as the medium of instruction could be recruited in future studies, which may offer additional insights into the manifestation of mainstreaming vis-à-vis CAL provision in postcolonial Hong Kong. Second, existing interpretations of the present inquiry are based on cross-sectional data across the primary-

secondary interface, which does not cast any light on the longitudinal nature of CAL students' language development or their additional language learning experiences, or CAL teachers' coping and/or gaming strategies in tension with their unique circumstances. Also, given the evolving nature of local responses to CAL policies and measures, as well as the agility of a loosely-coupled system, instructional realities captured at one time point may not reflect those in the near future. Third, the investigative scope of the present study is limited to the primary-secondary transition with little attention to CAL provision in other settings. Although these settings — for instance, kindergartens and special schools serving minority students, and nonformal CAL support programmes (e.g., after-school, bridging, and summer programmes, etc.) — are major policy foci and have been developing apace, lack of access and resource has kept the researcher from broadening the investigative scope of the present study.

8.7. Implications

Despite the limitations, the present study has the following implications for future research and policymaking in CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students in Hong Kong.

Implications for future research. As a predominantly hypothesis-generating endeavour, the present inquiry has pointed the way to several future research avenues. First, the exploratory findings of the present study have identified associations between CAL provisions and overseas ACL and, by extension, curricular discontinuities within CAL students' respective K-12 learning trajectories. This justifies the use of a large-scale survey to investigate the territory-wide instructional trends and patterns across K-12 schools, with a focus how the policy imperative of mainstreaming has been manifested, as well as the extent to which mainstreaming has been prioritised in schools serving CAL students. Second, in tandem, more research can attend to the classroom-level CAL provision in a more diverse range of K-12 schools of varying ethnic composition, as well as their schooling experiences (i.e., inter-ethnic social contact). Not only can this corroborate self-report findings from the survey, but it can also further enrich an understanding of the pedagogical and social realities of CAL students from an emic perspective. In this connection, the emerging yet increasingly mature method of social network analysis (see Christina, 2012; Carolan, 2013; Grunspan, Wiggins, & Goodreau, 2014) may be of use to complement existing methods, yielding a multiscalar picture of classroom interaction, and the dimensions of inter-ethnic network formation and socialisation in diverse settings (see also Duff, 2019). Third, longitudinal tracking studies remain necessary to fill an important

knowledge gap in how CAL transitions across key educational stages are being manifested within a laissez-faire policy ecology. Importantly, interfacing across levels can be tracked among CAL students of varying natures (e.g., locally-born, newly-arrived, recently-returned students) alongside ethnic Chinese groups as the control. This will offer important insights that guide future LPP efforts on optimising the education of minority students. Importantly, for these longitudinal efforts to come, the present study has also established the importance of incorporating an overtly critical and reflexive dimension into the research design (e.g., Bourdieu's (1986, 1990, 1991) theory of linguistic capital, social reproduction, and symbolic violence; and the theory of figured worlds by Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, & Cain (1998)), such that the mechanisms and nature of minority students' experiences of minoritisation vis-a-vis Hong Kong's assimilationist and depreciative model of language education can be theoretically and empirically captured. Internationally, the present inquiry also contributes original insights to the teaching and learning of a major non-phonetic language in non-Anglophone settings, while adding to research on the acquisition planning and additional language learning experiences in multilingual settings where official/elite multilingualism (i.e., the acquisition of more than one majority language) is a prerequisite for social mobility and later-life opportunities. Particularly, more lines of empirical work can be pursued to deepen and yield an understanding of additional language learning in diverse locales vis-à-vis the unfolding of globalisation in the new millennium (Lo Bianco, Orton, & Gao, 2009; Higgins, 2011; Kramsch, 2014).

Implications for future CAL policy work. Exploratory findings from the present study have raised questions about how CAL provision can be implemented in a temporal-spatial manner that facilitates CAL students' equitable access to the mainstream Chinese Language curriculum, as well as their age-appropriate progression across the grades. The first implication concerns the necessity to reform the existing ACL policy whose broad applicability, as the present inquiry has shown, shapes CAL instruction especially at secondary levels. Given the pervasiveness of the ACL policy, it is crucial to put in place LPP measures (e.g., phasing out, reclassification of CAL students, test accommodation made to the mainstream HKDSE examination, etc; see also Rivera & Collum, 2006; Robinson-Cimpian & Thompson, 2015) to ensure that the preferential policy of test exemption will not adversely impact the existing phase of CAL provision with mainstreaming as a principal goal. Succinctly, the worthy goal of 'multiple pathways' should not be in competition with the equally worthy goal of enabling CAL students to 'bridge over to mainstream Chinese Language classes'. Second, considering the complexities of the manifestation of mainstreaming as a desired policy outcome, it is important for policymakers and practitioners to institute further policy measures (e.g., promotion of good practices,

and the setting up of a more specified second language learning framework) that maximise the effectiveness of existing CAL provision for minority students. As findings of the present study reveal, it is not clear how the gap between CAL students and ethnic Chinese counterparts can be narrowed on a satisfactory scale without further optimising existing CAL policy mixes. In tandem, considering that mainstreaming can be a double-edged sword and is often associated with new forms of disadvantages and inequalities in western contexts (see Tomlinson, 1999; Foley, Sangster, & Anderson, 2013), policymakers in Hong Kong should closely monitor the manifestation of mainstreaming under the current policy ecology, especially when Hong Kong schools with no prior experience in catering for minority students are now admitting and educating more and more CAL students under the new funding policy. Lastly, it is important for policymakers and practitioners to heed the importance and relevance of socially just and evidence-informed pedagogical approaches such as, Cummins's (2010) model of collaborative empowerment, Gay's (2000) culturally responsive teaching, or the application of Content and Language Integrated Learning principles to integrate minority students (see Somers, 2017), etc. to further strengthen school support and build professional capacities in diverse contexts. Taken together, much remains necessary to bring an effective and just model of CAL provision from rhetoric to reality.

8.8. Conclusion

In conclusion, based upon evidence emerging from a multi-dimensional and mixed-methods design, the present study offers exploratory insights into the most recent phase of CAL provision as intended, enacted, and experienced in post-1997 Hong Kong. Notably, it finds that CAL instructional spaces at secondary levels are exhibiting signs of curricular alignment with overseas ACL based in the UK, while casting light on mainstreaming as differentially manifested at school and classroom levels and in relation to the legacy of designated schooling. Aside from these major findings, prevailing CAL provision is also characterised by a largely assimilationist orientation that neglects minority students' unique multilingual profiles as potential resources for their language and academic development. Overall, notwithstanding increased governmental commitments intending to put in place a resource-rich ecology for policy implementation, the general effectiveness of existing CAL LPP measures in helping narrow the Chinese proficiency divide between ethnolinguistic minority students and ethnic Chinese counterparts within a laissez-faire and loosely-coupled macrosystem remains uncertain. Despite the limitations, the present study is one of the first steps to understand CAL provision as an LPP challenge facing post-1997 Hong Kong, with implications for future research and policymaking. Considering that 'every five years lost is one generation of students entering and

exiting high school' (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2019, p.1), the grave urgency of future research and policymaking in ushering in an evidence-based and socially just model of CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority groups in postcolonial Hong Kong is more palpable than ever.

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Zhang, J. (2016). Understanding Chinese as a foreign language from the perspective of second language acquisition. In J. Ruan, J. Zhang, & C. B. Leung (Eds.), *Chinese Language Education in the United States* (pp. 63 82). Switzerland: Springer.

Zhang, J., & Zhang, X. (2018). Concept-based instruction of Chinese as a second language. In J. P. Lantolf, M. E. Poehner, and M. Swain (Eds), *The Routledge Handbook of Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Development* (pp.197 210). New York: Routledge.

Zhao, H., & Huang, J. (2010). China's policy of Chinese as a foreign language and the use of overseas Confucius Institutes. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 9(2), 127 142.

Zhu, Z. (2007). Ethnic identity construction in the schooling context: A case study of a Tibetan Neidi boarding school in China. *Chinese Education and Society*, 40(2), 38 59.

Zong, J., & Batalova, J. (2015). *The limited English proficient population in the United States*. Migration Policy Institute. Retrieved from https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/limited-english-proficient-population-united-states on 7th November 2017.

Appendix 1 Supplements to the 'Introduction' chapter

1.1. Historical documents considered for an account of CAL policies since 1997

The following official documents submitted to the Panel on Education of the Legislative Council of Hong Kong SAR, which can be retrieved from https://www.legco.gov.hk/database/english/data_ed/ed-ethnic-minorities.htm#cq05123, were considered to synthesise a historical account of CAL policies from 1997 to the present.

Date	Title
Jun 2004	Secondary School Places Allocation Arrangement for Children of Ethnic Minorities. LC Paper No. CB(2)2786/03-04(02).
Dec 2005	Education for Children of Ethnic Minorities. LC Paper No. CB(2)779/05-06(01).
Jul 2006	Education for Children of Ethnic Minorities. LC Paper No. CB(2)2642/05-06(04).
Jan 2007	Providing Non-Chinese Speaking Students with an Appropriate Chinese Language curriculum. LC Paper No. CB(2)757/06-07(02).
Feb 2008	Progress of Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students including Ethnic Minorities. LC Paper No. CB(2)1180/07-08(05).
Jun 2008	Progress of Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students including Ethnic Minority Students. LC Paper No. CB(2)2164/07-08(02).
Jan 2009	Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(2)579/08-09(06).
Mar 2011	Progress of Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(2)1213/10-11(01).
Dec 2011	Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(2)486/11-12(07).
Nov 2012	Extension of Examination Fee Remission Scheme for Needy Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(4)111/12-13(03).
Jul 2013	Progress on Enhancing the Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(4)852/12-13(05).
Jun 2015	Progress on Enhancing Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(4)1098/14-15(03).
Jun 2017	Progress on Supporting Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students. LC Paper No. CB(4)1165/16-17(01).
Jul 2018	Supplementary Information provided by the Education Bureau. LC Paper No. CB(2)1880/17-18(01).

Appendix 2 Supplements to the 'Systematic Review of the Literature' chapter

2.1. Plain language summary/Abstract

Plain language summary/ Abstract

Background

Since the transfer of sovereignty over Hong Kong from the United Kingdom to the People's Republic of China on 1 July 1997, several de-colonising language policies have been instituted in Hong Kong schools with Mother Tongue Education (Education Department, 1997) being a signature initiative with far-reaching consequences. One consequence is that language-minority students have been struggling to acquire Chinese as an additional language (CAL), which has escalated into a social justice issue under local and international scrutiny. This review aims to systematically map the research landscape of Chinese language provision for linguistically diverse populations in primary and secondary classrooms in Hong Kong from 1997 to 2017.

Methods

A protocol for systematic reviews has been observed. Before the beginning of the search, relevant systematic reviews were located to help set the scope of the existing review. Subsequent planning involved the development of search terms and inclusion/exclusion criteria in consultation with a certified librarian and other research colleagues. Five databases have been searched together with techniques of snowballing and citation chaining. A two-tiered exclusion procedure was conducted to locate both CAL-specific and non-CAL research pertaining to the education of language-minority students in primary and secondary settings in Hong Kong. Information regarding topical interests and research methods was extracted from included CAL studies.

Results

Upon abstract and full-text analyses, 31 studies were identified. In terms of topical interests, 86 topical tokens were coded from 31 studies. Of all 86 topical tokens, 3 broad categories emerged: quantitative interests (49%), qualitative interests (40%), and other interests (11%). Most topical occurrences were researched only once except a few repeated ones: repeated quantitative interests were proficiency-related topics, whereas repeated qualitative interests were identity-related topics. Repeated occurrences signify ongoing research activity on such topics. As regards methodological trends, of 31 studies included, there are 10 (32%) quantitative, 16 (52%) qualitative, and 5 (16%) mixed-methods studies. In terms of research tools adopted, 90 methodological tokens were recorded with psycholinguistic measures (34%) and interviews (31%) being prominent tools.

Conclusion

Although CAL knowledge production is still in its infancy, as characterised by the number of topical interests researched only once (78%), there was evidence of growing research production with respect to CAL issues in Hong Kong. There are two other preliminary observations: first, there is a bifurcation of existing empirical attempts into either quantitative (49%) or qualitative (40%) interests; second, mixed-methods are a minority (16%). Taken together, since both quantitative and qualitative interests are concerned with micro-systemic factors, insufficient research attention has been paid to meso- and macro-systemic structures in included studies reviewed. Implications for future research direction are drawn.

2.2. Data extraction grid for the systematic review

Data Extraction Grid for the Systematic Review of CAL studies from 1997 to 2017

This data extraction grid was developed with the review questions mind, with a view to extracting information relating to (i) the general characteristics of the included studies, (ii) their topical interests, as well as (iii) methodological features, including research approaches adopted and instruments used.

<table>
<tr><td>General</td><td>Year
Title
Author
Name of journal
<table>
<tr><th>Student-specific</th><th>Teacher-specific</th><th>Parent-specific</th></tr>
<tr><td>Age group
Level
Population
School type/Setting
First languages
Ethnic backgrounds</td><td>Subject
School type/Setting
Level</td><td>Socio-economic status
District
School type/Setting
First languages
Ethnic backgrounds</td></tr>
</table></td></tr>
<tr><td>Specific</td><td>Topical interests (inductive coding on the research topics examined vis-à-vis the type of participants being engaged)
<table>
<tr><th>Student-specific</th><th>Teacher-specific</th><th>Parent-specific</th><th>Others</th></tr>
<tr><td>e.g., motivation</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table>
Research approaches (predominantly deductive coding with predetermined categories set, with the possibility of accepting new categories as they come up)

• Predetermined nature: Qualitative vs Quantitative vs Mixed-methods
• Predetermined time: Cross-sectional vs Longitudinal

Instruments (inductive coding on the research instruments declared as part of the empirical studies)</td></tr>
</table>

2.3. Descriptive tables of the final sample

List of CAL Studies Included in the Final Sample

No.	*Title*	*Author(s)*	*Year*	*Type*
1	香港少數族裔小學生的中文能力水平	黃, 汝嘉 蕭, 寧波	2009	Article
2	Access to Majority and Educational Outcomes: South Asian Background Students in Postcolonial Hong Kong	Tsung, L.; Zhang, Q.; Cruickshank, K.	2010	Article
3	Investigating the Role of Bilingual Teaching Assistants in Hong Kong: An Exploratory Study	Gao, F.; Shum, M. S.	2010	Article
4	Acquisition of Chinese Literacy by Ethnic Minority Children in Hong Kong Primary Schools	Wong, Y. K.	2010	Thesis
5	South Asian Students' Chinese Language Learning in Hong Knog: Motivations and Strategies	Shum, M. S.; Gao, F.; Tsung, L.; Ki, W. W.	2011	Article
6*	中文作為第二語言：教學誤區與對應教學策略之探究	關, 之英	2012	Article

7	A Critical Review on the Provision of Chinese Language Education for NCSS in Hong Kong	Ullah, R.	2012	Thesis
8	Supporting Ethnic Minority Students Learning the Chinese Language in Multilingual Hong Kong	Tse, S.K.; Hui, S. Y.	2012	Article
9*	Student Motivation for Learning Chinese as a Second Language in Hong Kong International Schools	Zhang, B.	2012	Article
10	Imagined Community, Identity, and Chinese Language Teaching in Hong Kong	Gao, F.	2012	Article
11	Teacher Identity, Teaching Vision, and Chinese Language Education for South Asian Students in Hong Kong	Gao, F.	2012	Article
12	Heritage and Identity: Ethnic Minority Students from South Asia in Hong Kong	Gu, M.; Patkin, J.	2013	Article
13	Equity and Ethnicity in Hong Kong: Implications for Teacher Education	Connelly, J.; Gube, J.	2014	Article

14	香港中國語文教學（非華語學生）的迷思	關, 之英	2014	Article
15	Classroom, Identity and Diversity: Ethnic Identity Negotiation of Filipino Students in Hong Kong Multiethnic Classrooms	Gube, J. C. C.	2015	Thesis
16	Ideology, Identity and Linguistic Repertoires Among South Asian Students in Hong Kong	Kathleen, K.	2015	Thesis
17	Bicultural Orientation and Chinese Language Learning among South Asian Ethnic Minority Students in Hong Kong	Lai, C.; Gao, F.; Wang, Q.	2015	Article
18	Academic and Career Expectations of Ethnic Minority Youth in Hong Kong	Cheung, F.; Lai, B. P.; Wu, A. M.; Ku, L.	2015	Article
19*	South Asian Students' Needs for Cantonese and Written Chinese in Hong Kong: a Linguistic Study	Li, DCS; Chuk, J. Y. P.	2015	Article
20	Learning Chinese in Multilingual Contexts: Cases of Ethnic Minority Learners with High Attainment in Chinese	Lau, K. C.	2015	Thesis
21	The Effectiveness of Using 'Reading to Learn, Learning to Write' Pedagogy in Teaching Chinese to non-Chinese speaking students in Hong Kong	Shum, M. S.; Shi, D.; Tai, C. P.	2016	Article
22	Towards a Bourdieuian Understanding of the South Asian Language Minorities' Language Acquisition in Hong Kong	Wong, K. Y.	2016	Thesis

23	Mission and Challenge: A Case Study on Supporting the Non-Chinese Speaking Students Integrate into the Local Education System in an Aided Multiethnic School in Hong Kong	Wong, M. L. E.	2016	Thesis
24	School Desegregation in Hong Kong: Non-Chinese Linguistic Minority Students' Challenges to Learn Chinese in Mainstream Schools	Shum, M. ; Gao, F.; Ki, W. W.	2016	Article
25	Struggling to Thrive: The Impact of Chinese Language Assessments on Social Mobility of Hong Kong Ethnic Minority Youth	Loh, E. K. Y.; Tam, L. C. W.	2016	Article
26	Ideal L2 Self, Acculturation, and Chinese Language Learning among South Asian Students in Hong Kong: A Structural Equation Modelling Analysis	Gu, M.; Cheung, D.	2016	Article
27*	Meeting South Asian Hongkongers' Needs for Chinese Literacy	Li, D. C. S.	2017	Chapter
28	Role of Decoding Competence in the Chinese Reading Comprehension Development of Ethnic Minority Students in Hong Kong	Wong, Y. K.	2017	Article
29	Ethnicity, Language-in-education Policy and Linguistic Discrimination: Perspectives of Nepali Students in Hong Kong	Thepa, C. B.; Adamson, B.	2017	Article
30	Biculturalism and Segregated Schooling in Hong Kong	Gao, F.; Lai, C.	2017	Article

31	Ethnic Minority Students from South Asia in Hong Kong: Language Ideologies and Discursive Identity Construction	Gu, M. M. ; Mak, B.; Qu, X.	2017	Article
32	Understanding Chinese Language Teachers' Language Ideologies in Teaching South Asian Students in Hong Kong	Gu, M.; Kou, Z.; Guo, X.	2017	Article
33	Relationships between Reading Comprehension and its Components in Young Chinese-as-a-Second-Language Learners	Wong, Y. K.	2017	Article
34	Becoming literate in Chinese: A Comparison of Native-speaking and Non-native-speaking Children	Wang, Y.; McBride, C.; Zhou, Y.; Joshi, R. M.; Farver, J. A. M.	2017	Article
35	The Role of Radical Awareness in Chinese-as-a-Second-Language Learners' Chinese Character Reading Development	Wong, Y. K.	2017	Article

** Upon full-text analysis, these studies are excluded from the final sample.*

General Characteristics of the Final Sample

No.	*General Characteristics*									
	Year of publication	*Students' No*	*Students' Age*	*Students' Education Level***	*Students' School Type****	*Students' First Language*	*Students' Ethnic background#*	*Teachers' No*	*Teachers' Education Level*	*Parents' Education Level*
1	2009	97 (55M; 42F)	10.55	P4	4P (4D)	n/a	I = 17; P = 28; N = 37; F = 12; T = 1; In = 1; O = 1	n/a	n/a	n/a
2	2010	189	n/a	S3 + S4	5S (5D)	n/a	P = 35.75% (67.5); N = 36.5% (68.9); I = 12.25% (23); F = 8.5% (16); the rest = T + B	31 (20F; 11M)	9 (5~7 yrs); 12 (3~5 yrs); 7 (less than 3); 3 (new) | only 2 = CSL-trained	n/a
3	2010	30	Range 11 - 19	S	1S (1M)	n/a	n/a	2 (bilingual assistants, Pakistani); 13 (teachers, 4 Chinese; 9 non-Chinese subject teachers)		n/a
4	2010	97 (55M; 42F)	10.55	P4	4P (4D)	Hindi (5); Punjabi (11); Urdu (28); Nepalese (37); Filipino (12); Thai (1);	I = 17; P = 28; N = 37; F = 12; T = 1; In = 1; O = 1	n/a	n/a	n/a

						Indonesian (1); Others (2)				
5	2011	300	range 11-19	S	9S (9D)	n/a	N; P; F; I; B (unknown proportion)	n/a	n/a	n/a
6*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*									
7	2012	45	n/a	S4 + S5	3S (3D)	n/a	P = 19; F = 11; I = 9; N = 4; O = 3	2 Teachers (1 Parent; 2NGOs; 3EDBs)	n/a	n/a
8	2012	n/a	n/a	S	4S (4D)	n/a	n/a	yes, but not specified	n/a	n/a
9*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*									
10	2012	n/a	n/a	S	2S (1D + 1M)	n/a	n/a	14	n/a	n/a
11	2012	n/a	n/a	S	2S (1D + 1M)	n/a	n/a	16	n/a	n/a
12	2013	10	n/a	S5 + S6	1S (1D)	Punjabi (3); Nepalese (3); Urdu (4)	I = 3; N = 3; P = 4	n/a	n/a	n/a
13	2014	n/a	n/a	P + S	2P (1D + 1M); 1S (1D)	n/a	n/a	31 Teachers (6 school representatives; 4 government officials)	n/a	n/a
14	2014	n/a	n/a	P + S	1S (U) + 1P (U) + 1SC	n/a	n/a	4	n/a	n/a

15	2015	17	n/a	S	1S (1D)	Filipino (17)	F = 17	2 (1 Chinese + 1 English) (Principals)	n/a	n/a
16	2015	24	n/a	S1	1S (1D)	n/a	18 (EM) + 6 (Chinese)	n/a	n/a	n/a
17	2015	111	16	S4	1S (1D)	n/a	P = 37%; F = 25%; I = 19%; N = 17%	n/a	n/a	n/a
18	2015	632	13.92	S	4S (4D)	n/a	P= 37.4%; N = 25.4%; I = 17.1%; F = 13.3%	n/a	n/a	n/a
19*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*									
20	2015	6	n/a	S5 + S6	2S (1D + 1M)	n/a	P = 2; N = 2; I = 2	n/a	n/a	n/a
21	2016	13	N/a	S1 + S2	1S (1M)	n/a	NCS = 13 (undefined)	n/a	n/a	n/a
22	2016	3 (and 3 graduates)	n/a	S	1S (1D)	n/a	O = 2; I = 1	n/a	n/a	n/a
23	2016	43	n/a	S1 + S4 + S6	1S (1D)	n/a	n/a	7 Teachers (1 Chinese; 1 English; 1 Mathematics; 1 LS; 1 Guidance Teacher; 1 Career Teacher; 1 Principal)	n/a	n/a
24	2016	18	aged 11 - 15	S1 - 3	14S (14M)	n/a	P = 5; I = 5; F = 5; N = 3	n/a	n/a	n/a
25	2016	8	aged 19 - 21	sub-degree students/ O	3S (3M)	n/a	P = 6; I = 2; (N = 1)	n/a	n/a	n/a
26	2016	390	n/a	S	1S (1D)	n/a	P = 140; I = 77; N = 66; O = 25	n/a	n/a	n/a

27*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*									
28	2017	121	12.21	P6	6P (6D)	n/a	I = 12; P = 47; N = 47; F = 9; O = 6	n/a	n/a	n/a
29	2017	28	n/a	S2 - S5	2S (2D)	Nepalese (28)	N = 28	n/a	n/a	n/a
30	2017	16	aged 15 - 17	S	1S (1D)	n/a	P = 9; I = 4; F = 2; N = 1	n/a	n/a	n/a
31	2017	22	n/a	S5 + S6	2S (1D + 1M)	n/a	P = 7; I = 6; N = 9	n/a	n/a	n/a
32	2017	n/a	n/a	S	2S (2D)	n/a	n/a	11 teachers	n/a	n/a
33	2017	142	11.24	Senior P	6P (6D)	n/a	I, P, N (undefined)	n/a	n/a	n/a
34	2017	63	7.8	P2 + P3	U	n/a	P = 16% of 34; I = 22% of 34; N = 16% of 34; C = 29	n/a	n/a	n/a
35	2017	142	11.24	Senior P	6P (6D)	I, P, N (undefined)	I, P, N (undefined)	n/a	n/a	n/a

** Upon full-text analysis, these studies are excluded from the final sample.*
*** P stands for 'Primary' and S stands for 'Secondary.*
**** P stands for 'Primary'; S stands for 'Secondary; D stands for 'a Designated School or an Ethnically Concentrated School'; and M stands for 'a Mainstream School or an Ethnically Integrated School'.*
 # I stands for 'Indian'; P stands for 'Pakistani'; N stands for 'Nepalese'; F stands for 'Filipino'; T stands for 'Thai'; In stands for 'Indonesian'; B stands for 'Bangladeshi'; C stands for 'Chinese'; and O stands for 'Others'.

Topical Interests of the Final Sample

No.	*Topical Interests*					
	Interest 1	***Interest 2***	***Interest 3***	***Interest 4***	***Interest 5***	***Interest 6***
1	Chinese Proficiency (Listening)	Chinese Proficiency (Reading)				
2	Chinese Proficiency (Listening)	Chinese Proficiency (Reading)	Chinese Proficiency (Writing)	Chinese Proficiency (Speaking)	Teachers' Perception (why low proficiency)	Teachers' Perception (challenges in teaching CSL)
3	Teachers' Perception (Role of Bilingual Assistants)					
4	Chinese Proficiency (Listening)	Chinese Proficiency (Reading)	Measurement (Chinese Character Recognition Skills)	Measurement (Chinese Orthography Awareness and Knowledge)		
5	Students' (Chinese Language Motivation)	Students' (Self-report language proficiency)	Students' (Chinese Language Learning Strategies)			
6*	Excluded upon full-text analysis					
7	Chinese Proficiency (Writing)	Chinese Proficiency (Reading)	Stakeholders' Perception (concerns they	Implementation of school-based curricula		

			have for non-Chinese speaking students learning Chinese)			
8	Chinese Proficiency (Chinese Learning Progress)	Curriculum (Catering for Learner Diversity)	Curriculum (Pedagogical Materials)			
9*	Excluded upon full-text analysis					
10	Teachers' Perception (Imagined Community)	Teachers' Perception (Aims of Chinese Language Teaching)	Teachers' Perception (Integration of South Asian Cultures into Language Teaching)			
11	Teachers' Perception (Self-identity)	Teachers' Perception (Cultural Transmission)				
12	Students' Perception (Language Ideologies/attitudes)	Students' Perception (Language Practices)	Students' Perception (Self-identity)			
13	Policy (Evaluation of Governmental Support Measures)					
14	Policy (Primary-Secondary Linkage)	Policy (Assessment)	Curriculum (Catering to Learner Diversity)	Curriculum (teaching materials)	Policy (how inspection should be done)	

15	Students' Perception (Self-identity)					
16	Students' Perception (Self-identity)	Sociolinguistics (Language Ideology)				
17	Students' (Acculturation Orientation)					
18	Students' (Efficacy in Learning Chinese)	Students' (Ethnic Identity)	Students' (General Learning Experience)	Students' (Academic Expectations)	Students' (Career Expectations)	
19*	Excluded upon full-text analysis					
20	Students' Perception (Self-identity)	Students' (Efficacy in Learning Chinese)	Students' (Chinese Language Motivation)			
21	Intervention (Reading to Learn)	Students' Perception (R2L Pedagogy)				
22	Students' Perception (Language Practices)					
23	Students' (Major Challenges in learning Chinese)	School's (Strategies in helping students learn Chinese)	School's attempt at (Culturally suitable environment)			
24	Students' Perception (Academic Experiences in	Students' Perception (Social Experiences in				

	Mainstream Settings)	Mainstream Settings)				
25	Policy (Assessment)	Social mobility of Hong Kong ethnic minority youth				
26	Parental Encouragement in Learning Chinese	Students' (Ideal L2 Self)	Students' (Acculturation Orientation)	Students' (Intended Effort to Learn Chinese)		
27*	Excluded upon full-text analysis					
28	Chinese Proficiency (Reading)	Chinese Proficiency (Listening)	Measurement (Chinese Character Recognition Skills)	Measurement (Chinese Orthography Awareness and Knowledge)		
29	Students' Perception (Self-identity)	Students' Perception (Academic Experiences in Designated Settings)	Students' Perception (Social Experiences in Designated Settings)	Students' Perception (Heritage Language)		
30	Students' Perception (Self-identity)					
31	Students' Perception (Self-identity)	Students' Perception (Language Ideologies/attitudes)				
32	Teachers' Perception					

	(Language Ideologies)					
33	Chinese Proficiency (Reading)	Chinese Proficiency (Listening)	Measurement (Chinese Character Recognition Skills)			
34	Intervention (copying)	Intervention (radical knowledge)	Intervention (phonological knowledge)	Intervention (look-say method)	Comparison (CS VS NCS)	
35	Chinese Proficiency (Chinese Character Reading Development)	Measurement (Radical Awareness)				

** Upon full-text analysis, these studies are excluded from the final sample.*

Methodological Features of the Final Sample

No.	*Research Approaches*			*Tools/Instruments*				
	Nature	*Time*	*Type***	*Tool 1*	*Tool 2*	*Tool 3*	*Tool 4*	*Tool 5*
1	Quantitative	Cross-sectional	Measurement	Assessment (Listening)	Assessment (Reading)			
2	Mixed Methods	Cross-sectional	Measurement + Interview	Assessment (Reading)	Assessment (Writing)	Assessment (Listening)	Assessment (Speaking)	Semi-structured Interviews
3	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview + Observation	Semi-structured Interviews	Lesson Observation			
4	Quantitative	Cross-sectional	Measurement	Assessment (Listening)	Assessment (Reading)	Assessment (Chinese Orthography Awareness & Knowledge)	Assessment (Chinese Character Recognition)	
5	Mixed Methods	Cross-sectional	Survey + Interview	Questionnaire	Semi-structured Interviews			
6*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*							
7	Mixed	Cross-sectional	Ethnography	Semi-structured Interviews	Assessment (Writing)	Assessment (Reading)	Questionnaire	Observation
8	Mixed	Longitudinal	Comparative	Class Observation	Semi-structured Interviews	Assessment (Chinese Orthography Awareness & Knowledge)	Assessment (Mental Lexicon)	Assessment (Chinese Character Recognition)

9*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*							
10	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Ethnography	Class Observation	Semi-structured Interviews			
11	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview	Class Observation	Semi-structured Interviews			
12	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview	Focus Group	Semi-structured Interviews			
13	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Evaluative	Focus Group	Semi-structured Interviews	Questionnaire		
14	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Mixed	Content analysis (Pedagogical Materials)	Class Observation	Interviews		
15	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Ethnography	Semi-structured Interviews	Content analysis (institutional materials, pedagogical materials)	Class Observation	Photography	
16	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Ethnography	Observation	Class Observation	Semi-structured Interviews	Textual Analysis (Media)	Textual Analysis (Blog)
17	Quantitative	Cross-sectional	Model-testing	Questionnaire				
18	Quantitative	Cross-sectional	Model-testing	Questionnaire				
19*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*							
20	Qualitative	Longitudinal	Ethnography + Multiple Case Study	Observation	Semi-structured Interviews			
21	Mixed	Pre/post	Intervention-based	Pre/post tests	Class Observation	Semi-structured Interviews		

22	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Life history	Semi-structured Interviews	Smartphone/email correspondences	Photography		
23	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Mixed	Content analysis (institutional documents)	Context analysis (Pedagogical materials)	Class Observation	Activity Observation	Semi-structured Interviews
24	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview	Semi-structured Interviews				
25	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview, CDA	Focus Group				
26	Quantitative	Cross-sectional	Model-testing	Questionnaire				
27*	*Excluded upon full-text analysis*							
28	Quantitative	Longitudinal	Model-testing	Assessment (Listening)	Assessment (Reading)	Assessment (Chinese Orthography Awareness & Knowledge)	Assessment (Chinese Character Recognition)	
29	Quantitative	Longitudinal	Interview	Semi-structured Interviews	Observation			
30	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview	Focus group	Semi-structured Interviews			
31	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview	Focus group	Semi-structured Interviews			
32	Qualitative	Cross-sectional	Interview	Semi-structured Interviews				
33	Quantitative	Longitudinal	Model-testing	Assessment (Listening)	Assessment (Reading)	Assessment (Chinese Character Recognition)		

34	Quantitative	Cross-sectional	Intervention-based	Measurement (nonverbal IQ)	Measurement (verbal knowledge)	Measurement (Chinese word reading)	Measurement (Chinese word writing)	
35	Quantitative	Longitudinal	Model-building	Measurement (Simple & Compound Character Reading) --> same as Chinese word reading	Measurement (Chinese Radical Awareness) --> Orthography awareness			

** Upon full-text analysis, these studies are excluded from the final sample.*
*** This is noted for researcher's reference only.*

Appendix 3 Supplements to the 'Methodology' chapter

3.1. Research questions vis-à-vis overarching research aims and rationales

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Domains</th><th colspan="2">Research questions</th><th>Rationales</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">The overarching explorative aims of this study are to problematise CAL provision as the central LPP phenomenon through examining various constitutive components of the LPP process and engaging various stakeholders, and to particularise a cross-section of various CAL contexts by exploring instructional practices locally situated at the classroom and the lived experiences of teachers and students in their respective settings.</td><td>Policy</td><td colspan="2">What policy intensions are articulated in policy documents pertaining to CAL provision for ethnolinguistic minority students at K-12 levels from 2014 onwards (i.e., Phase 3)?</td><td>To identify CAL policy intentions relating to the provision of Chinese as an additional language to students from ethnolinguistic minority backgrounds in K-12 settings</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Practice</td><td rowspan="3">What instructional practices are observed over the delivery of a thematic module in a cross-section of CAL settings? With reference to learner characteristics, how do these instructional practices differ as a function of educational levels and/or ethnic concentration?</td><td>What learner characteristics constitute CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by language proficiency, language use and exposure, and motivation and affect?</td><td>To describe learner-internal characteristics and their Chinese language proficiency in CAL contexts observed, which shape instructional practices</td></tr>
<tr><td>What interactional patterns are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by code, speaker, turn, and function?</td><td>To describe interactional patterns in various CAL contexts observed and explore how they vary by code, turn, and function</td></tr>
<tr><td>What assessment practices are present across CAL settings observed? Specifically, how do they differ by location, technology use, differentiation, and type?</td><td>To describe assessment practices in various CAL contexts observed and explore how they vary by location, technology, differentiation, and type</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Phenomenology</td><td colspan="2">What are the lived experiences of teaching CAL for Chinese Language teachers observed?</td><td>To explore how CAL teachers from the observed CAL settings have experienced the phenomenon of teaching Chinese to CAL students in their respective settings</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">What are the lived experiences of learning CAL for ethnolinguistic minority students from CAL classes observed?</td><td>To explore how CAL students from the observed CAL settings have experienced the phenomenon of learning Chinese under the current policy ecology</td></tr>
</table>

3.2. A transformative-pragmatic orientation adopted in the present study

Based on a series of reflexive practices and advisory group meetings, issues that arise out of the adoption of a transformative-pragmatic orientation are considered with respective risk factors highlighted and corresponding strategies devised to minimise the negative effect. The purposes of such practices prior to data collection are to ensure a fuller incorporation of a transformative-pragmatic orientation, and to demonstrate rigour of the data collection processes.

Orientation	Potential risk factors	Macro-strategies adopted
Transformative	Power differences	A research attitude of 'collaborative empowerment', a pedagogical model advocated by Cummins (2000), was adopted to affirm the identity of subordinated individuals, and amplify – rather than silencing – 'their power of *self*-expression' (emphasis in original) (p.44). Such an attitude was considered as part of *epoché* (or researcher reflectivity in its contemporary sense) as a preparatory methodological precondition.
	Assumptions of deficiency	Chinese-as-an-additional-language (CAL) was adopted as a unifying referent to replace non-Chinese-speaking (NCS), which has been criticised as a term implying deficiency. A research journal was also kept to promote reflexivity through the processes of data collection and analysis.
	Cultural inappropriateness	The researcher availed himself of opportunities to serve as a part-time research assistant in large-scale projects to familiarise himself with issues pertaining to cultural inappropriateness. Useful contents were recorded in the research journal. Furthermore, ethnic minority (EM) advisors were invited to review documents distributed to EM parents and students, which helped to avoid questionable culturally inappropriate language and symbols.
	Linguistic barriers	Explicit considerations of how language may form an obstacle to data collection were made, which included consulting language teachers (both Chinese and English), conducting informal chats with students in the medium of data collection (English or a mix of Cantonese and English), pilot-testing documents and interview protocols used with groups similarly aged, simplifying language to promote comprehension, and guaranteeing the presence of the researcher to tackle language-related issues.
Pragmatic	The potential pitfall of methodological eclecticism degrading into an 'anything goes' approach (see Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995)	Three strategies were taken to ensure the rigour of mixed-methods research (MMR) in the present study: 1) Articulating and justifying an overall strategy for MMR (i.e. making sure that the design is logically linked yet ensures a multidimensional exploration of the phenomenon being problematised); 2) Developing quality assurance strategies for quantitative (QUAN) and qualitative (QUAL) components of the design (i.e. devising a separate list of quality assurance strategies specific to the QUAN and QUAL processes, which means the present study takes the stance that epistemological differences demand different considerations of sampling logic, data collection, and data analysis); 3) Receiving feedback from meetings from academics, academic conferences, and other research activities in the department.

3.3. Piloting schedule

Data collection domains	Components	Instruments	Instrument development					
			Conceptualisation	*Consultation*	*Construction*	*Quality assurance**	*Pilot-testing*	*Revision*
Measurement	Decoding (word recognition)	**LA**	Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Late Nov 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Decoding (orthographic knowledge)		Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Late Nov 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Discourse comprehension (listening)		Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Late Sept 2018	Early Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Discourse comprehension (reading)		Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Late Sept 2018	Early Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Discourse production (speaking)		Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Late Sept 2018	Late Sept 2018	Early Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Discourse production (writing)		Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Late Sept 2018	Late Sept 2018	Early Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Background information	**LBQ**	Mid Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Early Sept 2018	Early Sept 2018	Late Nov 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Self-report language assessment		Mid Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Early Sept 2018	Early Sept 2018	Late Nov 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Language use		Mid Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Early Sept 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Late Nov 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Affect and motivation (CLLAMS)		Mid Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Early Sept 2018	Mid Sept 2018	Late Nov 2018	Late Dec 2018
Observation	CAL lesson observation field notes**	**LO**	Early Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	n/a	Mid Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Coding framework for CAL interaction		Early Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Mid Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
	Coding framework for CAL assessment		Early Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Mid Dec 2018	Late Dec 2018
Textual analysis	Coding framework for CAL curricular documents	**QCA**	Mid Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Early Sept 2018	Mid Sept 2018
	Coding framework for other CAL documents		Mid Aug 2018	Mid Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Late Aug 2018	Early Sept 2018	Mid Sept 2018
Interview	Preparatory reflections for phenomenology	**PIS + PIT**	Sept 2018	Sept 2018	Early Jan 2019	n/a	Early Jan 2019	Late Jan 2019
	CAL student interview guide	**PIS**	Sept 2018	Sept 2018	Mid Jan 2019	Mid Jan 2019	Early Feb 2019	Mid Feb 2019
	CAL teacher interview guide	**PIT**	Sept 2018	Sept 2018	Mid Jan 2019	Mid Jan 2019	Early Feb 2019	Mid Feb 2019

** Quality assurance strategies specific to each instrument were developed.*

*** This is not part of the study's focus and it serves as a general checklist for the researcher to elicit uniform background information of all the schools within which CAL classes were observed, as well as general remarks of instructional features of potential relevance to the present study.*

3.4. Language Background Questionnaire



Language Background Questionnaire

Student Survey

Name:_____ **Class:** _____ **Date:** _____

School: _____ **Chinese Teacher:** _____

Part 1 | Background Information

Put a check mark (√) in the box that corresponds to your response and/or fill the blank where necessary.

1. **Sex:** ☐ Male ☐Female

2. **Age:** ☐ 9 ☐ 10 ☐11 ☐12 ☐13 ☐14 ☐15

3. **Place of birth:** _____

   (if you were not born in HK, specify your year of arrival: _____)

4. **Length of stay in Hong Kong (years):** ☐ 0 – 3 ☐ 4 – 6 ☐ 7 – 10 ☐ 11 – 13 ☐ 14 – 16

5. **Ethnicity:** ☐ Indian ☐ Pakistani ☐ Bangladeshi ☐ Chinese ☐ Nepalese ☐ Filipino ☐ Indonesian ☐ Thai ☐ Vietnamese ☐ Others (please specify: _____)

6. **Native language:** ☐ Hindi ☐ Urdu ☐ Bengali ☐ Cantonese ☐ Nepali ☐ Filipino (Tagalog) ☐ Indonesian ☐ Thai ☐ Vietnamese ☐ English ☐ Others (please specify: _____)

Native Language (NL)

1. Formal education:

☐ Yes, I've been receiving formal education on my NL **from school**.
☐ Yes, I've been receiving formal education on my NL **from an organisation**.
☐ Yes but only in the past; it no longer applies now.
☐ No, I learn my native language through informal use with family and relatives.

(please tick)	Low		Basic		Independent		Proficient
	U	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
2. Ability to speak:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Ability to listen:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ability to read:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Ability to write:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

English Language

1. Years of learning: _____

(please tick)	Low		Basic		Independent		Proficient
	U	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
2. Ability to speak:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Ability to listen:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ability to read:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Ability to write:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Chinese Language

1. Years of learning: _____

(please tick)	Low		Basic		Independent		Proficient
	U	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
2. Ability to speak:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Ability to listen:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ability to read:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Ability to write:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Other Language (_____)

1. Years of learning: _____ (Formal Education: Yes/No/Not anymore)

(please tick)	Low		Basic		Independent		Proficient
	U	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
2. Ability to speak:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Ability to listen:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ability to read:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Ability to write:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 3 | Language Use Profile

Reflect on how you use your native language, English, Chinese (Cantonese) when you are living in Hong Kong. Put a check mark (✓) in the box that corresponds to your response.

		0%		50%		100%
Interpersonal communication		**Never**	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Always**
Talking with classmates	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking with friends	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking with class teacher(s)	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking with parents	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking with siblings/cousins	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking with other relatives from the extended family	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Media exposure		**Never**	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Always**
Watching TV	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Watching movies/YouTube clips	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Listening to songs/singing	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Browsing Facebook/Instagram/ similar social networking sites	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Print exposure		**Never**	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Always**
Reading newspaper	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reading magazines	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reading books	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Religious purposes		**Never**	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Always**
Attending events in the church/mosque	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Other language (_____)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking with people from the church/mosque	*Native language*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Chinese	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Other language (_____)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 4 | Chinese language learning affect and motivation scale (CLLAMS)

Following are 20 statements related to your learning of Chinese language in Hong Kong. Read each statement and put a check mark (✓) in the box that corresponds **to the extent to which it is true of you**. Do not answer how you think you should be. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements.

For example, ***I enjoy speaking Chinese with my classmates.***	**Not very true of me** ☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	**Very true of me** ☐

		Not very true of me					**Very true of me**
1.	**I enjoy being in Chinese classes.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	**I get bored in Chinese classes.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	**I feel hopeless when thinking about Chinese classes.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	**Studying Chinese, as well as learning to speak Cantonese, is important to me because I think it will allow me to gain good friends more easily in Hong Kong.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	**Studying Chinese, as well as learning to speak Cantonese, is important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	**Thinking about Chinese classes makes me feel uneasy.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	**I feel hopeless when thinking about learning Chinese.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	**Studying Chinese, as well as learning to speak Cantonese, is important because it will allow me to be more at ease with Chinese people in Hong Kong.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	**Studying Chinese is important because, with a high level of Chinese proficiency, I will be able to make a lot of money.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	**I enjoy learning new words and phrases in Chinese classes.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	**I have to learn Chinese because, without passing the Chinese course, I cannot graduate.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	**I get tense and nervous while studying Chinese.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	**Studying Chinese is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of Chinese, I'll be considered a weaker student.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	**Studying Chinese, as well as learning to speak Cantonese, is important because it will allow me to meet and converse with more people in Hong Kong.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	**I feel panicky when writing a Chinese examination.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	**The Chinese materials bore me so much.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	**I have lost all hope that I have the ability to do well on the Chinese examination.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	**Studying Chinese, as well as learning to converse in Cantonese, is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the Hong Kong way of life.**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	**For me, Chinese tests and examinations are challenges that are enjoyable.**						
20.	**I feel bored while writing a Chinese examination.**						

Domains	**Items**
Enjoyment	**1, 10, 19**
Integrative motivation	**4, 8, 14, 18**
Instrumental motivation	**5, 9, 11, 13**
Anxiety	**6, 12, 15**
Hopelessness	**3, 7, 17**
Boredom	**2, 16, 20**

Self-assessment: My Language Learning Profile

How good are you at your native language (first language)? How about English? Or Chinese? Can you do a **self-assessment**?

	Basic Users			Independent Users		Proficient Users	
	U	**A1**	**A2**	**B1**	**B2**	**C1**	**C2**
Reading	I have **very low** abilities in reading.	I can understand **familiar** names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read **very short**, **simple** texts. I can find information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that **mainly** have common, everyday language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with current events (e.g., news) in which the writers show particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand modern literary prose (e.g., poems, novels).	I can understand long and complex texts, appreciating different styles. I can understand technical articles and longer technical instructions, **even when they do not relate to my area that I know a lot about.**	I can **easily** read all forms of the written language, from technical reports to long novels! You name it – I can read it in that language!
Writing	I have **very low** abilities in writing.	I can write a **short**, **simple** postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write **short**, **simple** notes and messages. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	For topics which I am interested in, I can write **simple** texts with paragraphs. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write **clear**, **detailed** text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters describing events and experiences.	I can express myself in **clear**, **well-structured** text, expressing points of view in detail. I can write about **complex subjects** in a letter, an essay or a report. I can choose the right style for the reader I have in mind.	I can write **clear**, **smoothly-flowing** text in a suitable style. I can write **complex** letters, reports or articles which present a case with a logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember important points.
Listening	I have **very low** abilities in listening.	I can understand familiar words and very basic phrases about myself, my family and my surroundings when people speak **slowly** and **clearly**.	I can understand phrases and **the commonest words** related to my life (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area). I can catch the main point in **short**, **clear**, **simple** messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters in school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal interest when the speaker is relatively **slow** and **clear**.	I can understand long speech and follow even complex lines of argument if the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand **most** TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand **the majority of films**.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly organised and when the meaning may be hidden. I can understand television programmes and films **without too much effort**.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, **even when the speaker talks fast** if I have some time to get familiar with the way that person talks.
Speaking	I have **very low** abilities in speaking.	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know. I can talk with other people in a **simple** way **if they talk slowly** and help me express what I'm trying to say.	I can use a series of **simple phrases and sentences** to describe my family and other people, where I live, and my school. I can handle very short conversations, **even though I can't usually understand enough** to keep the conversation going.	I can connect phrases **in a simple way** in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams and hopes. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can **narrate a story**. I can join a conversation on topics that are familiar and related to my everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, travel).	I can present **clear**, **detailed** descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options. I can talk **quite fluently** with native speakers.	I can present **clear**, **detailed** descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. I can talk **fluently and naturally** with native speakers without much obvious searching for expressions.	I can present a **clear**, **smoothly-flowing** description or argument in a style suitable to the context and with a logical structure which helps the recipient to understand and remember significant points. I can take part **effortlessly** in any conversation or discussion **with accuracy and naturalness**.

附加資訊

共同語言能力量表

歐洲共同語言參考框架將學習者劃分為三等六級，並指出每一級學習者在聽說讀寫方面應具有的能力：

階段	等級	說明
A：初學階段	A1：入門級	能理解並運用每天熟悉、與自己喜好有關且具體的表達方式和非常基礎的語句，可以介紹或詢問、回答自己或他人有關個人的訊息，例如居住地、人際關係、所有物，對於他人緩慢而清晰的對談，只能以簡單的方式產生反應。
	A2：初級	能理解在最貼近自己的環境中經常被使用的表達方式或語句，例如非常基本的個人和家庭資料、購物、區域地理、和就業，能與人溝通簡單而例行性的工作，這類工作通常只需要簡單而直接的日常訊息，另外，這個等級的學習者，能夠用粗淺的詞語描述自身背景、以及最貼近自己的環境之中的事物。
B：獨立階段	B1：中級	能理解自己在工作、學習環境、休閒環境等等遇到熟悉的事物做出理解，能在該語言使用地區旅遊時對應各種可能的狀況，也可以對於自己感興趣或熟知的的事物提出簡單的相關資訊，另外還能夠描述經驗、事件、夢境、願望和雄心大志，並能對自己的意見或計劃做出簡略的解釋。
	B2：中高級	能理解複雜文章段落的具體和抽象主旨，包括技巧地討論自己專門的領域，可自然而流暢地和該語言的母語使用者進行例行互動。可以針對廣泛的主題說出清晰、細節性的文字，並且可對於一個議題提出解釋與利弊分析或是各式各樣的想法。
C：精通階段	C1：高級	能理解包括要求、長篇文章、或意義含蓄的廣泛訊息，自然而流暢的表達，而沒有明顯的詞窮狀況發生，懂得彈性並有效率的運用語言在社交、學術、專業目的之上，對於複雜的主題能產生清晰且架構良好、細節性的文字，展現收放自如的組織形式、連結和精巧的策略。
	C2：精通級	能夠輕易理解任何吸收到的訊息，並且針對不同書面或口語來源做出大綱、重新架構不同的論點，提出的表達，自然而非常流暢，緊緊地抓住語言最唯妙唯肖的部分，更能在較為複雜的場合上辨別專業上細微的意涵

3.5. Chinese character recognition measure

Chinese Character Recognition Assessment
漢字識別評估

Name: _____ Class:_____ Date:_____
School Name: _____

Instructions to students
學生須知：

1. You have 5 minutes for the task.
   評估時限為 5 分鐘。

2. Follow the instructions of the assessor and read aloud the Chinese character.
   按照評估員的指示，並大聲朗讀漢字。

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

未通知之前，請勿翻閱試卷

This project is initiated by a doctoral student at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. This project has been reviewed by and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford.

Please read aloud the following Chinese characters and words.
請讀出以下漢字及詞。

我	要	家	能	發
同	高	二	從	點
位	頭	知	平	山
每	百	愛	門	六
邊	南	林	片	且
具	石	古	支	晚
雨	細	米	升	良
免	田	拍	登	雪
封	吹	尾	斤	豆
飽	鴨	亭	兌	乞

這裏	說話	十分
起床	美麗	物件
做工	女人	口水
信件	帶領	居住
英文	功課	思念
河流	金魚	兒童
穿著	北京	耳朵
樹枝	松鼠	幼苗
毛巾		

THE END
完

3.6. Chinese orthographic knowledge measure

Chinese Orthographic Knowledge Assessment

漢字知識評估

Name: _____ Class:_____ Date:_____

School Name: _____

Instructions to students

學生須知：

1. You have 10 minutes for the task.
   評估時限為 10 分鐘。

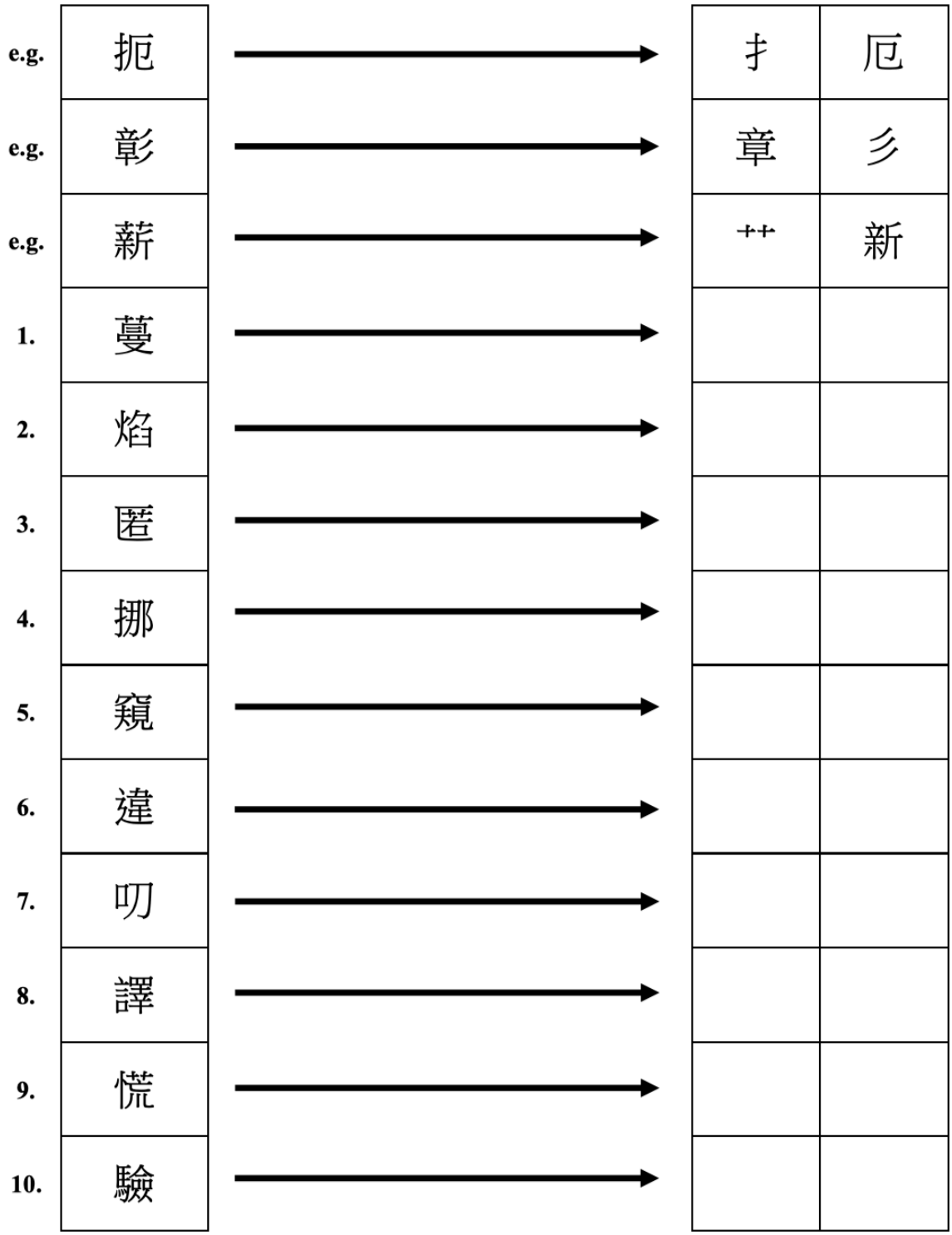
2. Follow the instructions of and finish all sections of the assessment.
   按照評估指示，並完成所有評估部分。

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

未通知之前，請勿翻閱試卷

This project is initiated by a doctoral student at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. This project has been reviewed by and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford.

Section 1 | Break the following Chinese characters into two parts as the examples below.
第一部份：根據例子，將下列的中文字分拆為兩部份。



Section 2 | Make a guess of the meaning of the part of the following Chinese characters. Follow the examples given.

第二部份：根據例子，猜猜下面漢字偏旁的意思。

e.g. 涯 “氵” = “?”

		
water	fire	wood
A	B	C

1. 鑲 “釒” = “?”

		
metal	wood	water
A	B	C

2. 茁 “艹” = “?”

		
grass	fire	stone
A	B	C

3. 哮 “口” = “?”

		
water	mouth	wood
A	B	C

4. 抒 “扌” = “?”

		
hand	mouth	heart
A	B	C

5. 愉 “忄” = “?”

		
stone	heart	mouth
A	B	C

Section 3 | Choose the Chinese character that matches with the picture with the English illustration. One example has been done for you.
第三部份：根據例子，選擇最能與圖畫及英文說明相配的中文字。

e.g.



waiter

A	B	C
恃	峙	侍

1.



boat

A	B	C
艇	庭	誕

2.



sunrise

A	B	C
曦	羲	犧

3.



sad

A	B	C
萋	悽	嗆

4.



gate

A	B	C
侶	宮	閭

Section 4 | Guess about the pronunciations of the following unknown Chinese characters. For each item, you will hear three possible ways of saying that word and choose the one that you think is the character's pronunciation. An example is given below.

第四部份：猜猜以下一些你不認識的中文字的讀音。在每一題中，你會聽到三個可能的讀音，選擇你認為是那個字的讀音。下面附有一個例子。

e.g.	酮	**A**	**B**	**C**
1.	胱	**A**	**B**	**C**
2.	鞍	**A**	**B**	**C**
3.	舺	**A**	**B**	**C**
4.	殃	**A**	**B**	**C**
5.	抖	**A**	**B**	**C**
6.	疤	**A**	**B**	**C**
7.	銥	**A**	**B**	**C**
8.	芊	**A**	**B**	**C**
9.	叨	**A**	**B**	**C**

THE END

完

Marking Scheme
Chinese Orthographic Knowledge Assessment

Instructions to examiners/markers

Score the student based on the following marking scheme adapted from the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA). The total score for this decoding assessment is **28**.

部份	題號	答案	給分	備註
1	1	蔓→艹、曼	1	--
	2	焰→火、臽	1	--
	3	匿→匚、若	1	--
	4	挪→扌、那	1	--
	5	窺→穴、規	1	--
	6	違→辶、韋	1	--
	7	叨→口、刀	1	--
	8	譯→訁、睪	1	--
	9	慌→忄、荒	1	--
	10	驗→馬、僉	1	--
2	1	A	1	--
	2	A	1	--
	3	B	1	--
	4	A	1	--
	5	B	1	--
3	1	A	1	--
	2	A	1	--
	3	B	1	--
	4	C	1	--
4	1	C	1	--
	2	B	1	--
	3	B	1	--
	4	A	1	--
	5	A	1	--
	6	C	1	--
	7	B	1	--
	8	A	1	--
	9	C	1	--

3.7. Discourse comprehension (reading) measure

Reading Assessment
閱讀評估

Name: _____ Class:_____ Date:_____
School Name:_____

Instructions to students
學生須知：

1. You have 15 minutes for the task.
   評估時限為 15 分鐘。

2. You must write your answers on the space provided.
   必須在答題簿內的適當位置作答。

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

未通知之前，請勿翻閱試卷

This project is initiated by a doctoral student at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. This project has been reviewed by and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford.

Part 1 第一部分

Read the following story carefully. Arrange the pictures on the next page in the right order. Match pictures by putting alphabets (A – F) to a sequence of 1 to 6. The answers to the first and the sixth boxes have been provided.

細心閱讀以下的故事。將有關故事內容的圖片，按故事發生的順序排列。把圖片的代號（A - F）按順序寫於 1 - 6 的位置上。第 1 個及第 6 個位置的代號已經寫上。

昨天，媽媽帶我和妹妹到超級市場去。

我們到了超級市場後，拿了一部手推車購物。我們揀了一些食物和日用品，妹妹則嚷著要買五顏六色的水果糖，於是，媽媽讓她自己去揀。妹妹個子不高，當她嘗試拿高處的糖果時，意外地把架上的糖果翻倒。那時候，糖果架旁一位理貨員正望著她，妹妹感到十分不好意思，臉也紅起來。於是，媽媽便吩咐我和妹妹一起把地上的糖果放回架上。妹妹連忙向我和媽媽道歉，並說以後會加倍小心。

最後，我們到收銀處付款，然後帶著幾袋物品回家去。

(215 字)



C					B
1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 2 第二部分

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow.
閱讀下面的文字，然後回答問題。

阿餅是一隻小怪獸，今年八歲。他頭上有兩隻短角，臉圓圓的，有三隻小眼睛。他有一張大嘴巴，嘴裏有 251 顆牙齒，又白又亮。他全身長滿了金黃色的毛，還有一條長長的尾巴。

怪獸的任務就是要把人類嚇倒。只有這樣，才可以在怪獸學堂升班。可是，阿餅從一歲到現在，從未升過班。人們看見阿餅跑出來嚇人，總笑着說：「這隻怪獸真可愛啊！」

上個月，阿餅的爸爸說：「你別洗澡，別刷牙，把自己弄得髒一些，可怕一些。」阿餅沒理會爸爸的話，繼續做一隻清潔的怪獸。「你說話要兇一些，動作要粗魯一些。」阿餅的媽媽道。可是他不以為然，依然做一隻彬彬有禮的怪獸。

阿餅很喜歡閱讀和畫畫。上星期，他在街上想嚇倒一個小妹妹，結果竟和那個小妹妹聊天，還一起到圖書館借書。昨天，他在學校附近遇到一位老伯伯。阿餅一心要把他嚇倒，最後卻高高興興地跟老伯伯一起到公園寫生。

今天，阿餅在屋邨尋找「目標人物」。他看見一個小男孩瑟縮街角，於是跳過去大叫一聲，露出 251 顆牙齒。小男孩忍不住哭了，阿餅歡呼：「我終於把人嚇倒啦！」小男孩哭着說：「才不是呢，我……我哭……是因為默書不及格，爸媽責罵我，妹妹取笑我……」阿餅想了一想，走上前擁抱小男孩，真誠地說：「別傷心，我做你的朋友，陪你溫習。你下次成績一定會進步的，你的家人一定會原諒你的。」

父母希望阿餅成為一隻超級怪獸，但他卻喜歡和人類做朋友。小朋友，你喜歡阿餅嗎？他是不是一隻出色的怪獸？假如你是阿餅的家人，你會怎樣做？



請勿在此書寫。

請勿在此書寫。

從文中**第一段至第三段**找出適當的詞語，填在第 1—2 題的橫線上，使句子的意思完整。

1. 妹妹胖乎乎的，好像一個洋娃娃，十分_____。

2. 流感高峰期到了，老師提醒我們要注意個人衛生，保持課室_____。

3. 下列哪一段描寫阿餅的外貌？

○ A. 第一段。
○ B. 第二段。
○ C. 第三段。
○ D. 第四段。

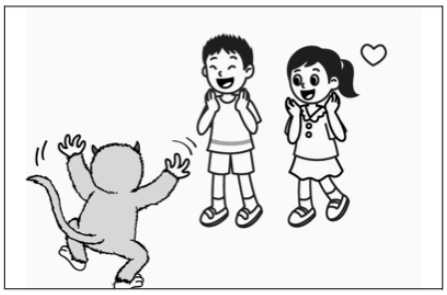
4. 怪獸的職責是什麼？

怪獸的職責是_____。

請勿在此書寫。

請勿在此書寫。

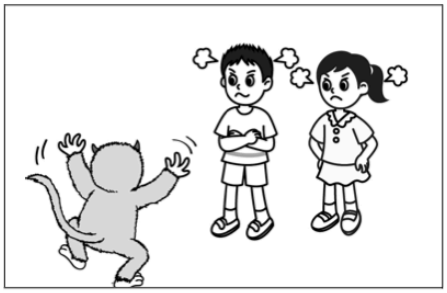
5. 下列哪一幅圖畫符合文章的情景？



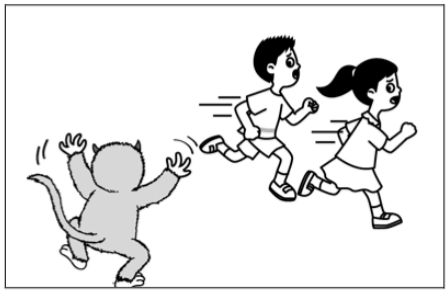
○ A



○ B



○ C



○ D

6. 下列哪**兩項**是阿餅昨天所做的事情？
(請選擇**兩個**答案)

○ A. 他把小妹妹嚇倒了。
○ B. 他陪小妹妹到圖書館借書。
○ C. 他嘗試嚇倒老伯伯。
○ D. 他約老伯伯在學校門口見面。
○ E. 他和老伯伯到公園畫畫。

請勿在此書寫。
請勿在此書寫。

7. 阿餅是一隻怎樣的怪獸？
（請選擇**兩個**答案）

○ A. 喜歡打扮。
○ B. 斯文有禮。
○ C. 說話兇惡。
○ D. 富同情心。
○ E. 行為粗魯。

8. 下列哪一項符合對阿餅的描述？

○ A. 阿餅取笑小男孩默書不及格。
○ B. 阿餅把小男孩嚇倒了。
○ C. 阿餅主動安慰小男孩，並鼓勵他努力學習。
○ D. 阿餅責怪小男孩默書成績差，並督促他溫習。

9. 根據文章內容，按**事情發生的先後次序**排列下面各項。
（請把英文字母填在方格內）

A. 阿餅沒聽從父親的話
B. 阿餅向小男孩露出 251 顆牙齒
C. 阿餅和小妹妹聊天
D. 阿餅在屋邨尋找「目標人物」

□ → □ → □ → □

請勿在此書寫。

請勿在此書寫。

THE END
完

Marking Scheme
Reading Assessment

Instructions to examiners/markers

Score the student based on the following marking scheme adapted from the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA). The total score for this reading assessment is **14**.

題號	答案	給分	備註
1	可愛	1	--
2	清潔	1	--
3	A	1	--
4	把人類嚇倒 / 嚇(倒)人(類)	1	--
5	A	1	--
6	C、E	2	每個答案佔 1 分
7	B、D	2	每個答案佔 1 分
8	C	1	--
9	A→C→D→B	4	每個答案佔 1 分

簡化字的處理：

本卷接受學生使用標準的簡化字作答。規範的簡化字以 1986 年國家語言文字工作委員會發表的《簡 化字總表》為依據。

3.8. Discourse comprehension (listening) measure

Listening Assessment
聆聽評估

Name: _____ Class:_____ Date:_____
School Name:_____

Instructions to students
學生須知：

1. You have 15 minutes for the task.
   評估時限為 15 分鐘。

2. Recording will only be played ONCE. You may take notes while listening.
   話語內容只播一次，播放時可以一邊聆聽，一邊填寫答案。

3. After the recording is over, questions and options will be read ONCE.
   話語完結後，會讀出題目及選項。

4. You must write your story on the space provided.
   必須在答題簿內的適當位置作答。

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

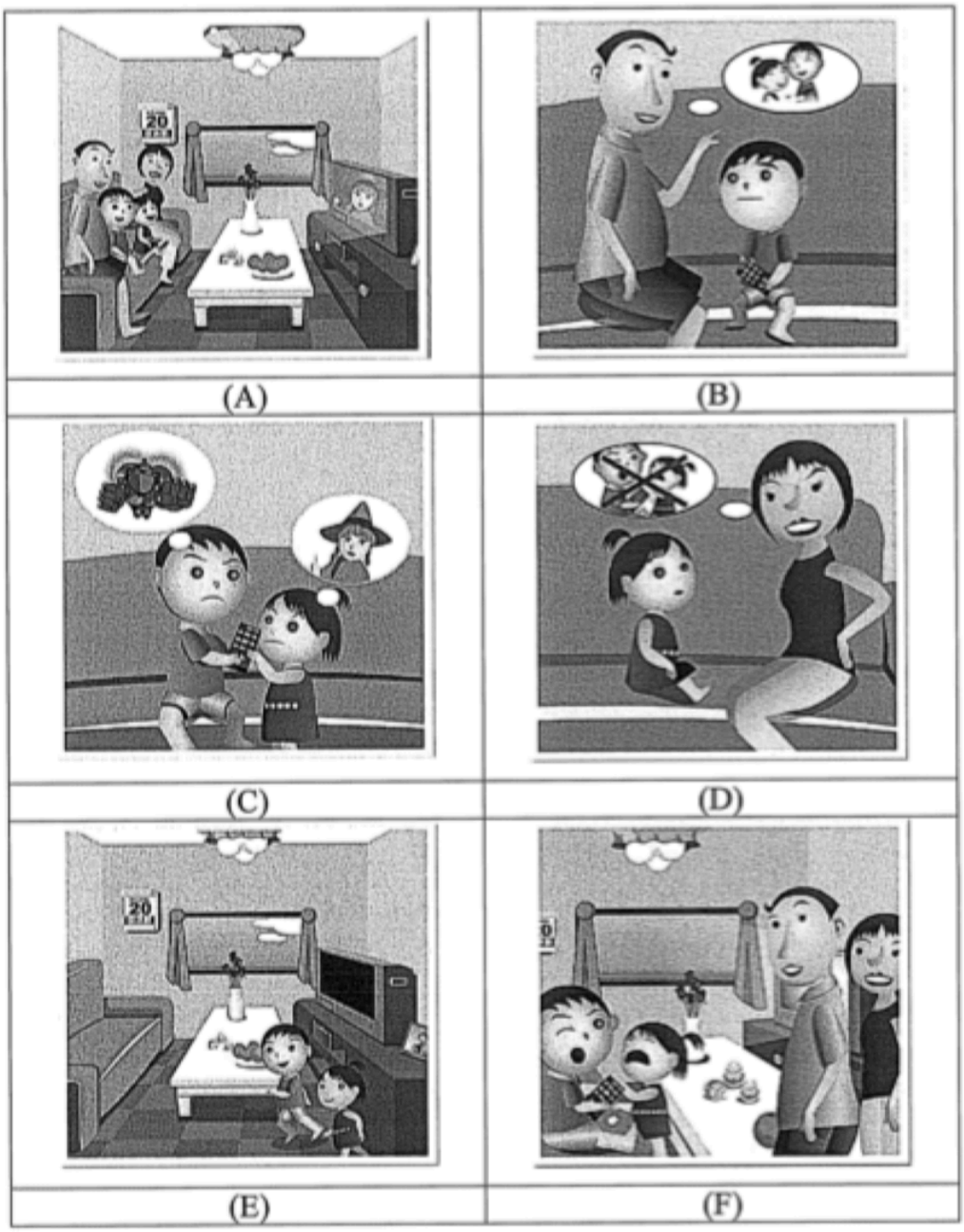
未通知之前，請勿翻閱試卷

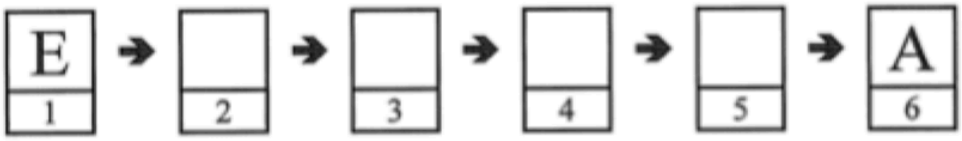
This project is initiated by a doctoral student at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. This project has been reviewed by and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford.

Part 1 第一部分

Listen to the following story carefully. Arrange the pictures on this page in the right order. Match pictures by putting alphabets (A – F) to a sequence of 1 to 6. The answers to the first and the sixth boxes have been provided.

細心聆聽以下的故事。將有關故事內容的圖片，按故事發生的順序排列。把圖片的代號（A – F）按順序寫於 1 – 6 的位置。第 1 個及第 6 個位置的代號已經寫上。





Part 2 第二部分

Listening to the recording carefully and answer questions 1 – 7.

細心聆聽話語內容，回答第 1 – 7 題。

1. 下列哪一項符合對威威的描述？

○ A. 他取笑小冰沒有運動天份。
○ B. 他喜歡幫助同學解決數學難題。
○ C. 他經常邀請同學跑步和游泳。
○ D. 他邀請小冰擔任「開心校園」主持。

2. 為什麼小冰感到開心？

○ A. 因為威威陪伴她主持電台節目。
○ B. 因為她默書取得高分。
○ C. 因為她游泳考試及格。
○ D. 因為她邀請了陳老師上電台節目。

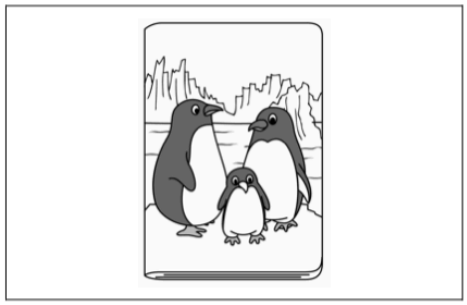
3. 下列哪**兩項**是今年圖書館的活動？
(請選擇**兩個**答案)

○ A. 「閱讀護照計畫」。
○ B. 「武林高手讀書會」。
○ C. 「齊來做個小書蟲」。
○ D. 「午間說故事」。
○ E. 「兒童故事創作比賽」。

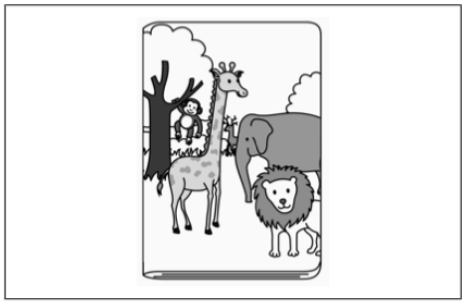
4. 下列哪**兩項**是小冰得到的「閱讀護照」？
(請選擇**兩個**答案)



○ A



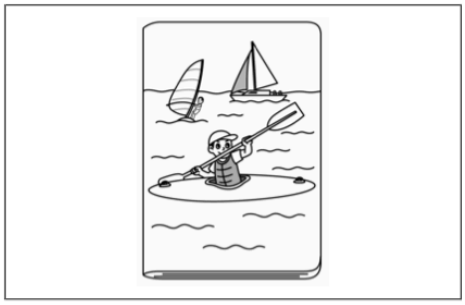
○ B



○ C



○ D



○ E

5. 「閱讀護照計畫」的主要目的是

○ A. 引導同學閱讀不同種類的書。
○ B. 增加同學的課外知識。
○ C. 鼓勵同學多閱讀。
○ D. 刺激同學腦部的發展。

請聆聽以下話語內容，然後回答第 6 題。

6. 下列哪一項符合威威說話的語氣？

○ A. 興奮。
○ B. 驚訝。
○ C. 羨慕。
○ D. 妒忌。

請聆聽以下話語內容，然後回答第 7 題。

7. 下列哪一項符合威威說話的語氣？

○ A. 無奈。
○ B. 驚奇。
○ C. 不滿。
○ D. 疑惑。

THE END

完

Marking Scheme
Listening Assessment

Instructions to examiners/markers

Score the student based on the following marking scheme adapted from the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA). The total score for this listening assessment is **9**.

題號	答案	給分	備註
1	B	1	--
2	D	1	--
3	A、E	2	每個答案佔 1 分
4	A、C	2	每個答案佔 1 分
5	A	1	--
6	C	1	--
7	D	1	--

3.9. Discourse production (writing) measure

Writing Assessment
寫作評估

Name: _____ Class:_____ Date:_____
School Name:_____

Instructions to students
學生須知：

1. You have 20 minutes for the task.
   評估時限為 20 分鐘。

2. You must write your story on the space provided.
   必須在答題簿內的適當位置作答。

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

未通知之前，請勿翻閱試卷

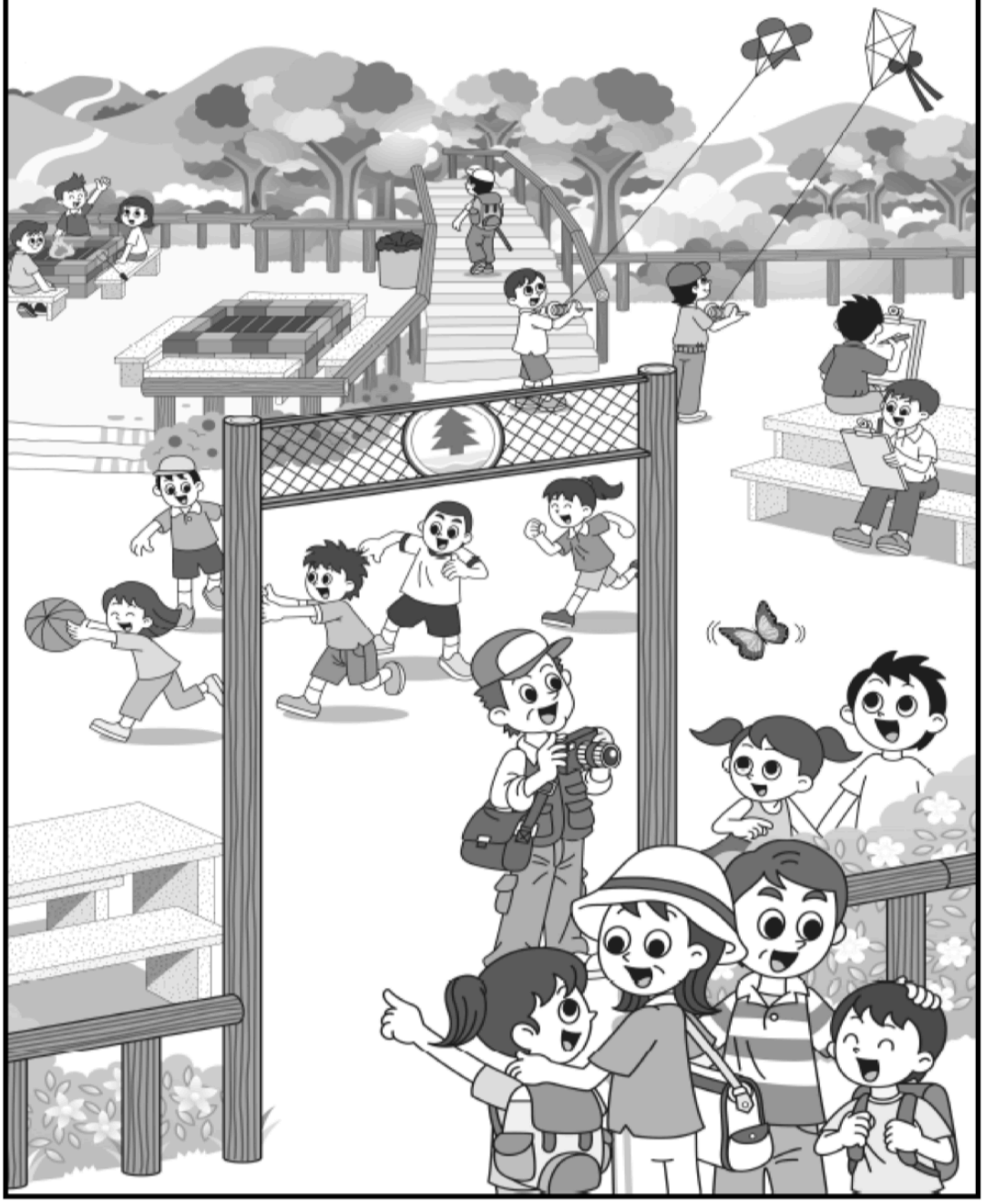
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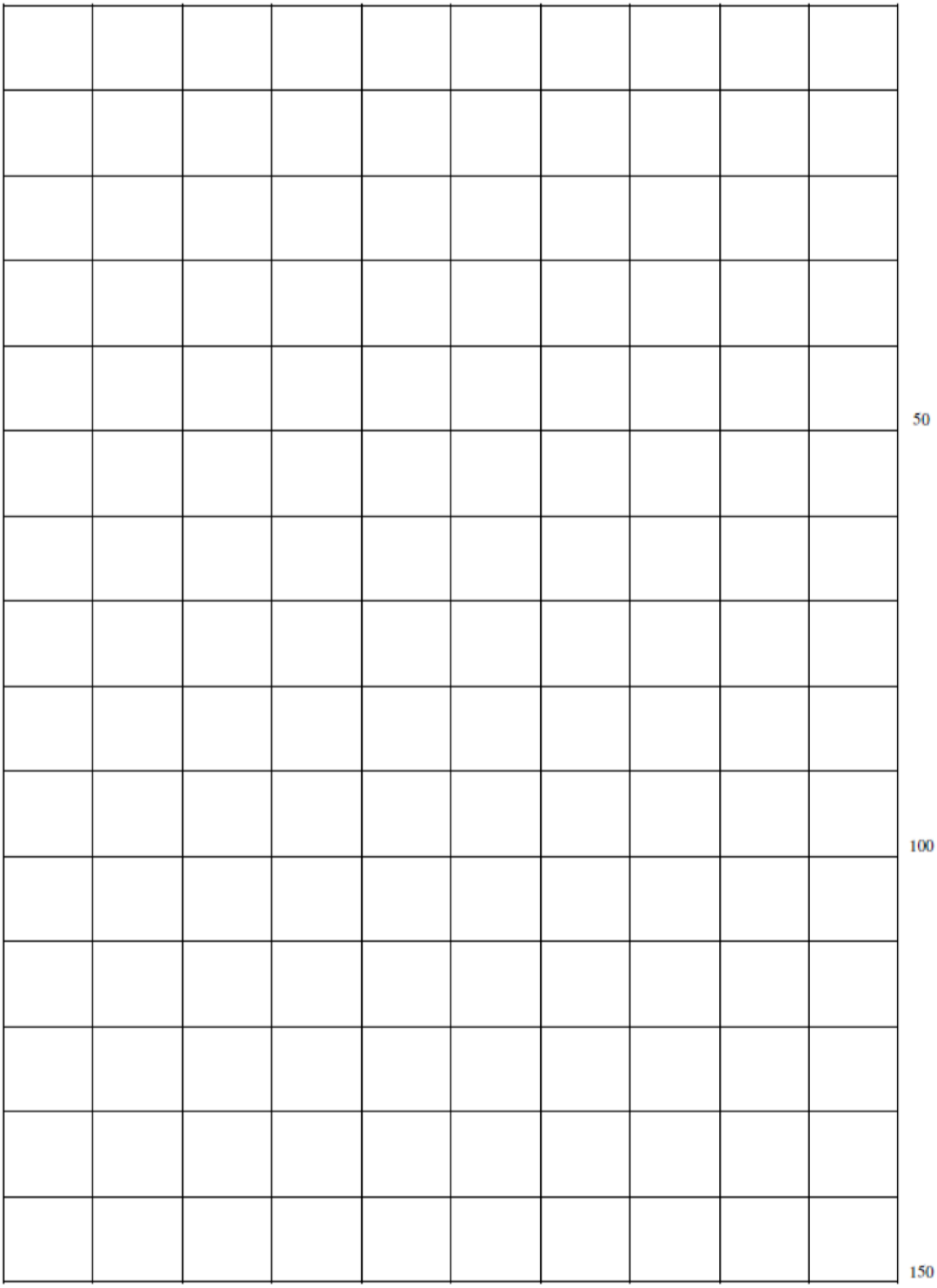
請寫一篇文章，記述你和家人到郊野公園遊玩的**情形**和**感受**。（字數不限）

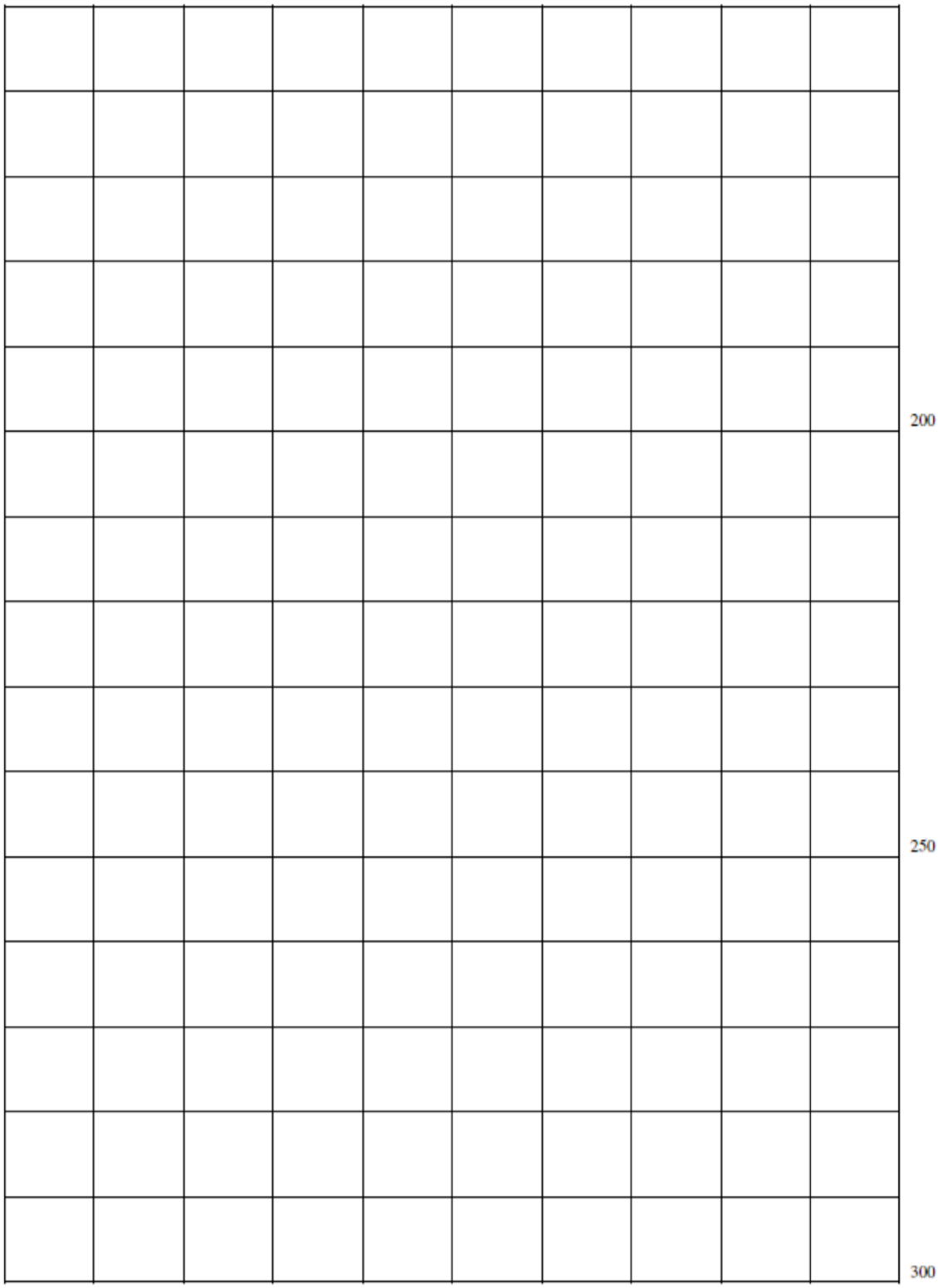
圖畫只供參考



請勿在此書寫。

請勿在此書寫。


50
100
150



THE END

完

3.10. Scoring guide for discourse production (writing) measure

Scoring Rubric
Writing Assessment

Instructions to examiners/markers

Score the student based on the following marking rubric adopted from the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA). Circle the descriptors that best describe the student's writing abilities. Write the total score in the space provided.

學生名字：_____ **學校代號：**_____ **日期:**_____

	一等	二等	三等	四等	五等
內容	離題/內容貧乏且文意不完整。	不切題/內容空泛。	切題，內容一般。	切題，內容較充實。	切題，中心明確，內容充實、豐富。
結構	分段錯誤或沒有分段。	未能按內容重點適當分段。	大致能按內容重點分段，條理一般。	能按內容重點分段，條理較清晰。	能按內容重點分段，條理清晰。
文句	文句不通。	大致能運用句子寫作，文句尚可。	能運用完整的句子寫作，文句一般。	能運用完整的句子寫作，文句通順、流暢。	
詞語運用	用詞不當/用詞貧乏。	大致能運用書面字詞寫作，用詞尚可。	能運用書面字詞寫作，用詞一般。	能運用書面字詞寫作，用詞豐富。	
錯別字	錯別字很多。	偶有錯別字。	錯別字很少。		
標點符號	誤用標點符號頗多。	偶爾誤用標點符號。	較少誤用標點符號。		

*沒有寫作或只抄寫題目者，將「不予評級」。
*凡「內容」離題者，「結構」將評予一等。

總分
/24

Translation of the rubric

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Content	Off topic, or poorly developed content	Unable to address the question adequately	Has addressed the question with average content	Has addressed sufficiently the question with details	Has addressed sufficiently the question with rich details
Organisation	No paragraphing	Some arbitrary forms of paragraphing	Satisfactory paragraphing with occasional gaps	Clear, meaningful paragraphing	Clear paragraphing leading to cohesion and coherence
Grammar	Unable to form grammatical sentences	Able to form comprehensible sentences, despite occasional mistakes	Can convey meaning using complete and grammatical sentences satisfactorily	Can convey meaning using complete and grammatical sentences smoothly	
Vocabulary	Unable to use words appropriately, or poor lexical range	Able to show a range of lexical items and use them appropriately	Can demonstrate skills in expressions in standard written Chinese	Can demonstrate a mastery of expressions in standard written Chinese	
Word accuracy	A lot of wrong words	Occasional wrong words	Wrong words are kept to a minimum		
Use of punctuation marks	A lot of mistakes pertaining to the use of punctuation marks	Occasional mistakes pertaining to the use of punctuation marks	Mistakes pertaining to the use of punctuation marks are kept to a minimum		

3.11. Discourse production (speaking) measure

Speaking Assessment
說話評估

Name: _____ Class:_____ Date:_____
School Name: _____

Instructions to students
學生須知：

1. You have 3 minutes to prepare for the task.
   請用三分鐘時間準備。

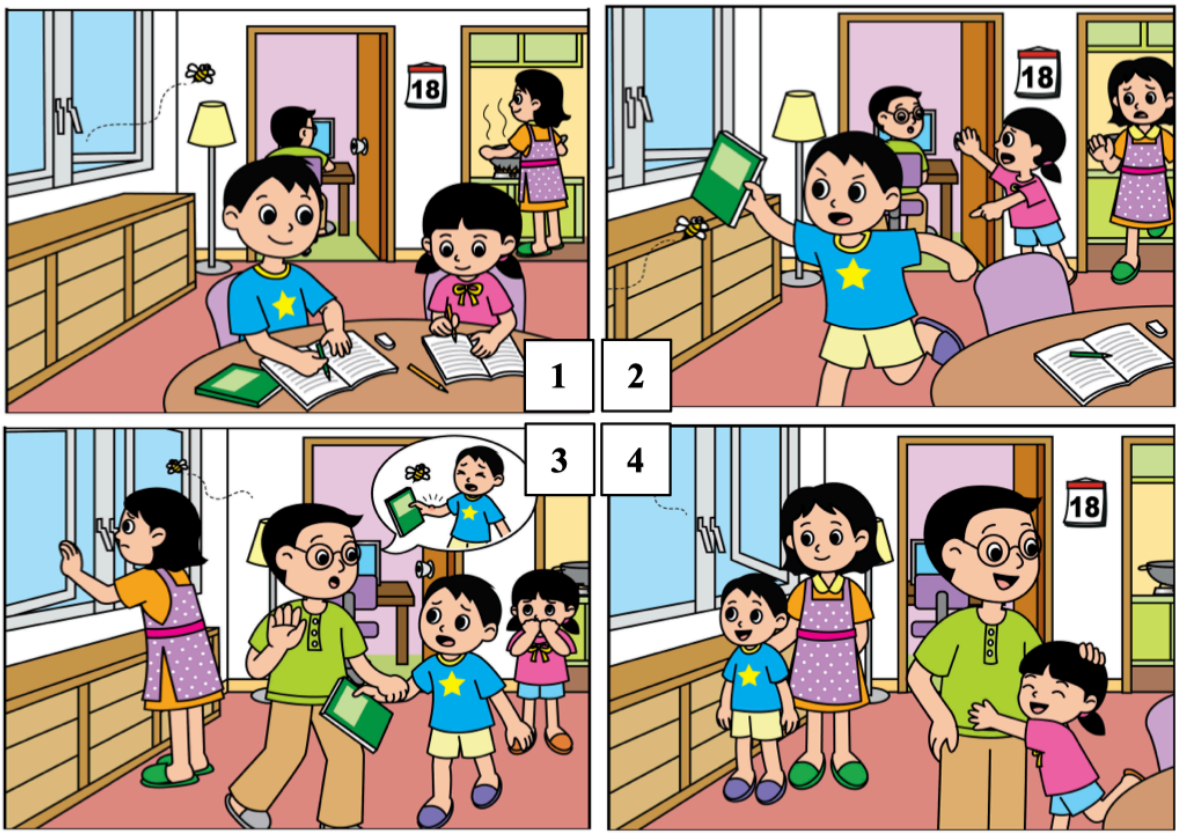
2. Based on the pictures, you will have 1 minute to tell a complete story.
   細心閱讀題目，然後用一分鐘時間，依圖畫的內容說出一個完整的故事。

DO NOT TURN OVER THE PAGE
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

未通知之前，請勿翻閱試卷

This project is initiated by a doctoral student at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. This project has been reviewed by and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford.

Pay attention to the following pictures and tell a complete story.
請細心觀察下面的圖畫，然後說出一個完整的故事。



Notes
記錄

THE END
完

3.12. Scoring guide for discourse production (speaking) measure

Scoring Rubric
Speaking Assessment

Instructions to examiners/markers
Score the student based on the following marking rubric adapted from the Territory-wide System Assessment (TSA). Circle the descriptors that best describe the student's speaking abilities. Write the total score in the space provided.

學生名字：_____ 學校代號：_____ 日期:_____

	一等	二等	三等	四等	五等
能清楚講述故事	未能按圖意講述故事。	尚能按圖意講述故事，但內容有疏漏。	大致能按圖意講述故事，內容一般。	能按圖意講述完整的故事，內容較充實。	能按圖意講述完整的故事，內容豐富。
能順序講述事件的大概	未能按事件發生的先後次序講述故事。	尚能順序講述故事，但連貫性欠佳。	大致能順序講述故事，連貫性一般。	能順序講述故事，有連貫性，並較有條理。	能順序講述故事，有連貫性，條理清晰。
能運用日常生活的詞語表情達意	詞不達意。	尚能運用簡單的詞語表情達意。	大致能運用日常生活的詞語表情達意，意思尚算清晰。	能運用日常生活的詞語表情達意，意思較清晰。	能運用日常生活的詞語表情達意，意思清晰，用詞恰當。
能掌握所學字詞的發音*	吐字欠清晰，經常有音系性的錯誤或讀音錯誤。	吐字大致清晰，發音準確，間中有音系性的錯誤或讀音錯誤。	吐字清晰，發音準確。		

*廣州話：
字音可參照《香港小學學習字詞表》（2007）及香港教育署語文教育學院中文系所編的《常用字廣州話讀音表》經常出現的發音錯誤有兩種：
第一種是音系性錯誤，例如把韻尾的「ng」全部誤為「n」以致「恆」、「痕」同音；
第二種是個別字音的誤讀(受字形的部件影響讀音)，例如把「忽然」讀作「勿然」。

總分
/18

Translation of the rubric

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Content	Unable to form a story	Can tell a story based on the pictures, despite gaps in the content	Can tell a satisfactory story based on the pictures	Can tell a complete story based on the pictures, with details	Can tell a complete story based on the pictures with rich details
Organisation	Unable to tell a story in logical order	Can organise a story, despite a lack of continuity between pictures	Can organise a story in satisfactory logical order	Can tell a story logically and with continuity between pictures	Can tell a story logically and with smooth continuity between pictures
Language	Unable to express meaning satisfactorily	Can use a range of elementary expressions to express meaning	Can use daily expressions to communicate	Can use daily expressions to communicate precisely	Can use daily expressions to communicate precisely and appropriately
Delivery	Unable to enunciate and pronounce words clearly with systemic mistakes	Can enunciate and pronounce words satisfactorily with occasion mistakes	Can enunciate and pronounce words well		

3.13. Intra- and inter-reliability forms (for language assessment measures)

Part 1 – Please fill in the following information before marking.

Unique identification number: _____ **Rater's name:**_____

Nature: Intra-rater reliability **Date:** _____

(please circle) Inter-rater reliability

Test-retest reliability

Assessment: Reading Writing Listening Speaking Word recognition

(please circle) Chinese orthographic knowledge

Part 2 – Obtain the relevant marking rubrics and mark the script assigned. Fill in the following form as appropriate.

Reading	
Q1	/1
Q2	/1
Q3	/1
Q4	/1
Q5	/1
Q6	/2
Q7	/2
Q8	/1
Q9	/4
Total	/14

Listening	
Q1	/1
Q2	/1
Q3	/2
Q4	/2
Q5	/1
Q6	/1
Q7	/1
Total	/9

Writing	
Content	/5
Organisation	/5
Grammar	/4
Vocabulary	/4
Word accuracy	/3
Punctuation marks	/3
Total	/24

Speaking	
Content	/5
Organisation	/5
Language	/5
Delivery	/3
Total	/18

Word recognition	The total number of correct one-character words: _____/50 The total number of correct two-character words: _____/50 **Total:** _____/100
Chinese orthographic knowledge	**Part 1** /10 · **Part 2** /5 · **Part 3** /4 · **Part 4** /9 **Total:** _____/28

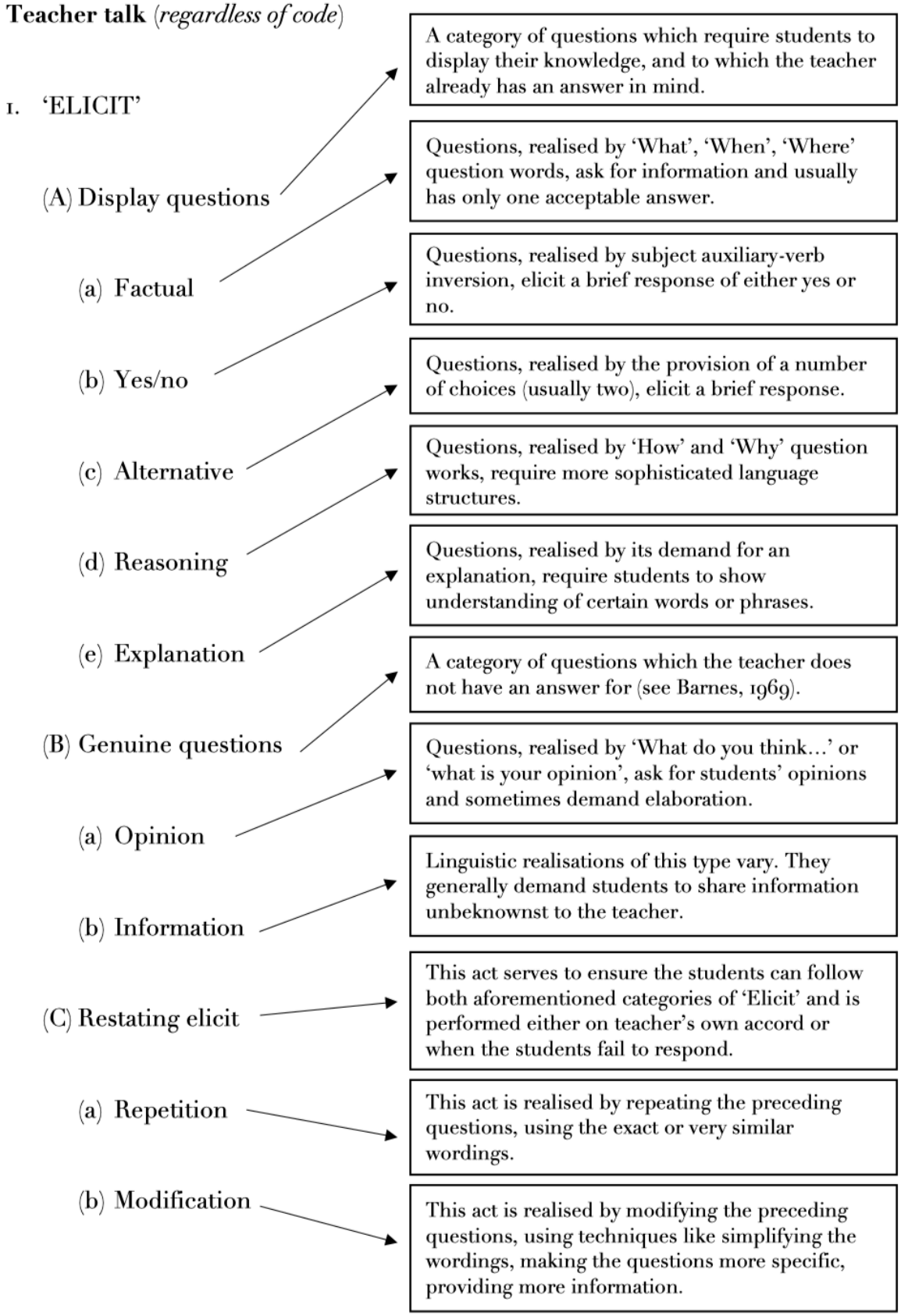
3.14. Structured-coding grid (Function)

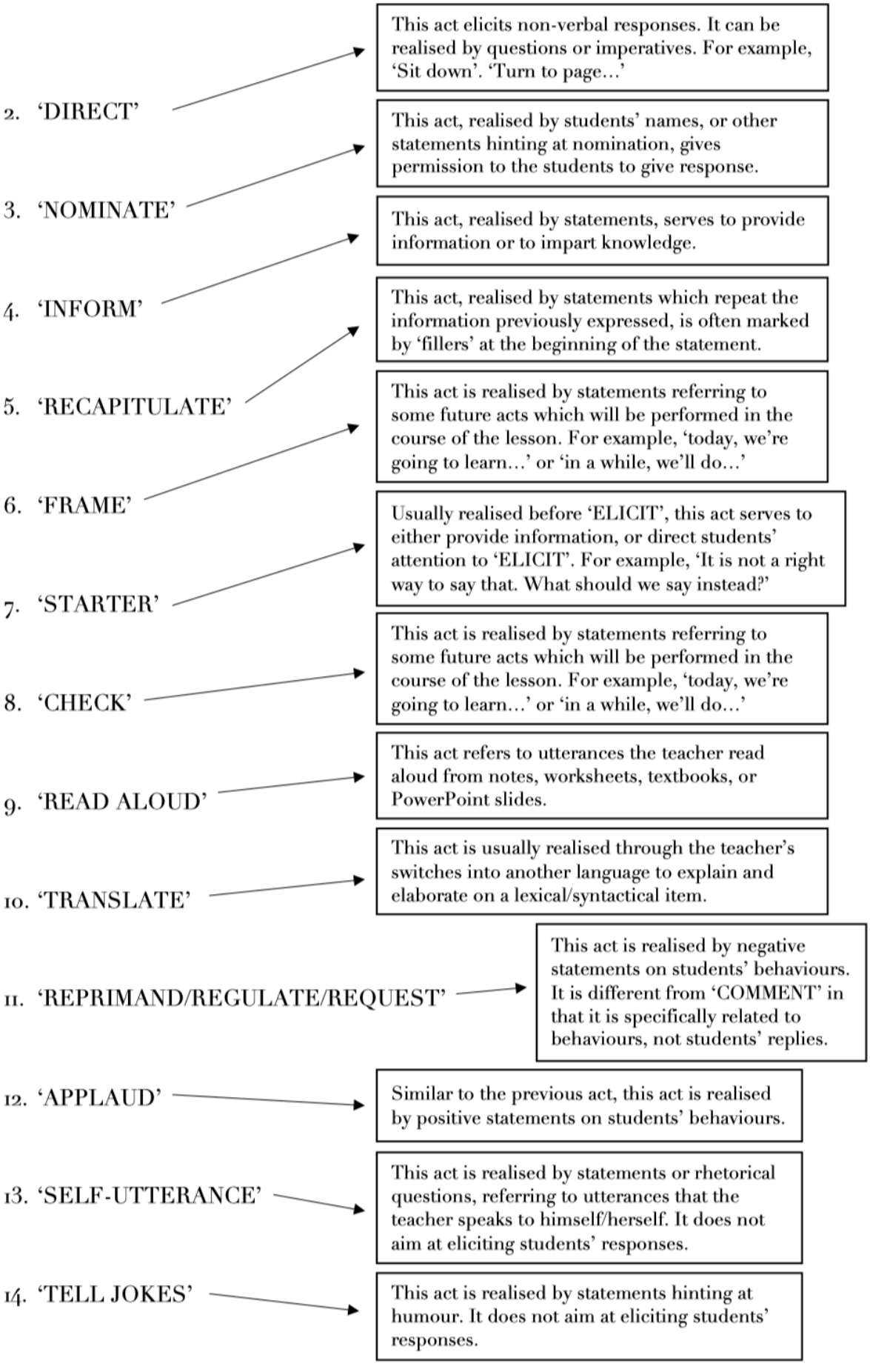
Structured coding framework for functions of talks in CAL lessons

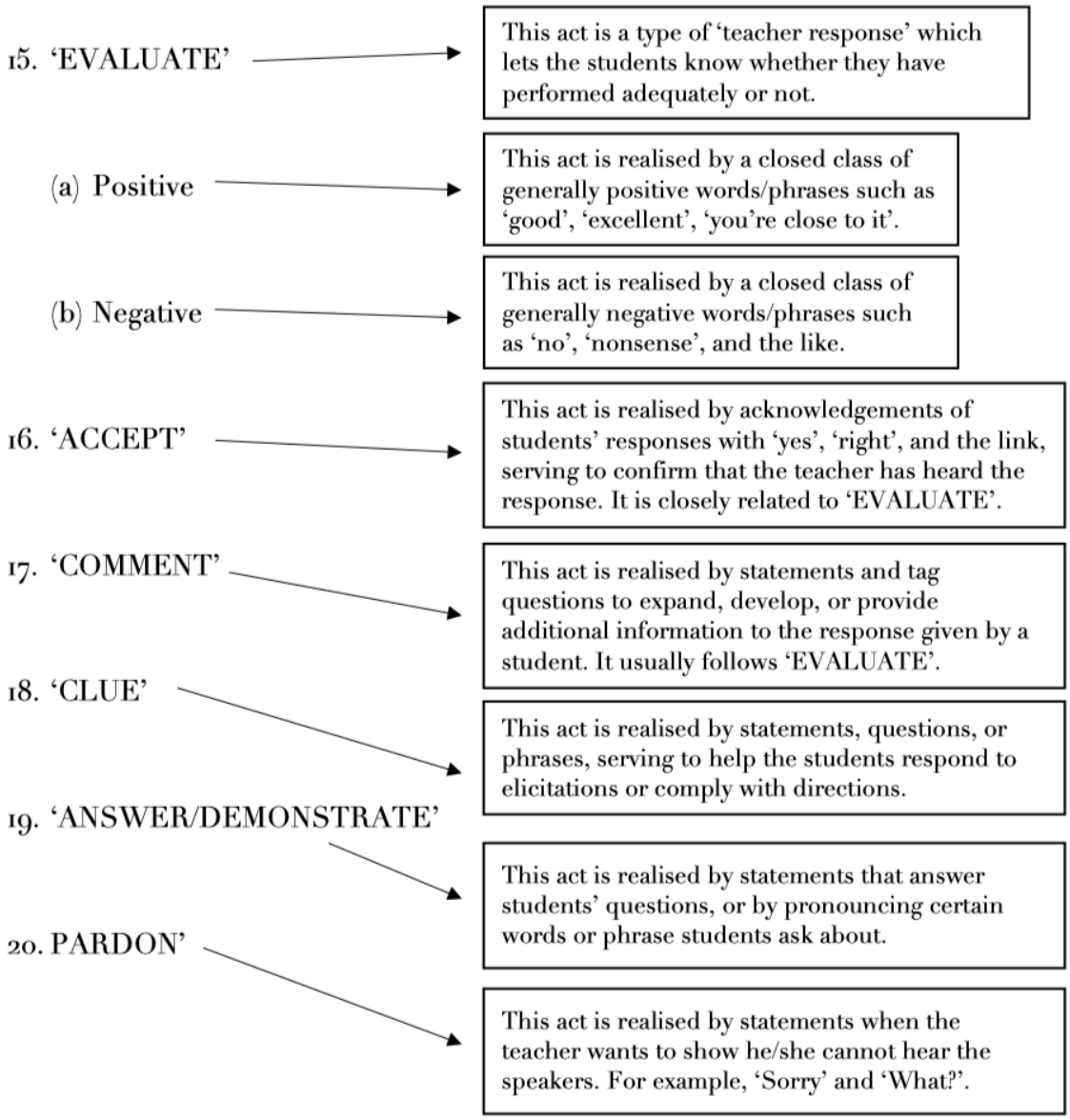
		Acts	Sub-categorisation
Teacher Talk *(either in Chinese or English)*	Initiate	1. Elicit	(A) Display questions (a) Factual (b) Yes/no (c) Alternative (d) Reasoning (e) Explanation (B) Genuine questions (a) Opinion (b) Information (C) Restating elicit (a) Repetition (b) Modification
		2. Direct	
		3. Nominate	
		4. Inform	
		5. Recapitulate	
		6. Frame	
		7. Starter	
		8. Check	
		9. Read aloud	
		10. Translate	
		11. Reprimand/regulate/request	
		12. Applaud	
		13. Self-utterance	
		14. Tell jokes	
	Respond	15. Evaluate	(a) Positive (b) Negative
		16. Accept	
		17. Comment	
		18. Clue	
		19. Answer/demonstrate	
		20. Pardon	
Student talk *(either in Chinese or English)*	Respond	21. Reply	(a) Restricted (b) Expanded
		22. Apologise	
		23. Repeat after T's (9)	
		24. Perform/dramatise	
	Initiate	25. Request	
		26. Elicit	
		27. Interrupt	
		28. Express opinions	(a) informational (b) emotional (c) tell jokes

The following detailed description of speech acts is drawn from Tsui's (1985) original conceptualisation of speech acts/functions in language classroom, as well as from Lo's (2010) further expansion on the old structured-coding framework.

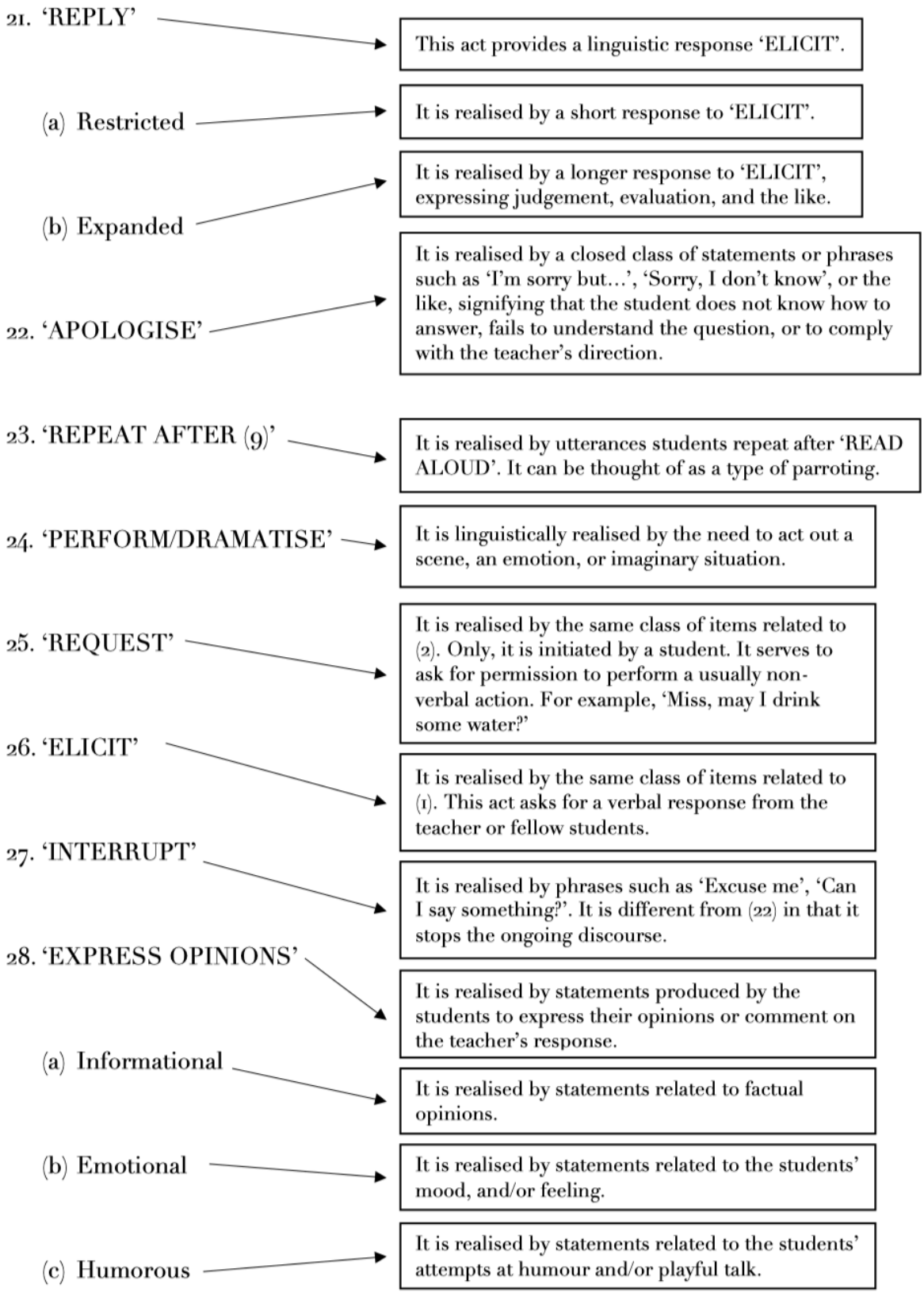
Teacher talk (*regardless of code*)




2. 'DIRECT'
This act elicits non-verbal responses. It can be realised by questions or imperatives. For example, 'Sit down'. 'Turn to page…'
3. 'NOMINATE'
This act, realised by students' names, or other statements hinting at nomination, gives permission to the students to give response.
4. 'INFORM'
This act, realised by statements, serves to provide information or to impart knowledge.
5. 'RECAPITULATE'
This act, realised by statements which repeat the information previously expressed, is often marked by 'fillers' at the beginning of the statement.
6. 'FRAME'
This act is realised by statements referring to some future acts which will be performed in the course of the lesson. For example, 'today, we're going to learn…' or 'in a while, we'll do…'
7. 'STARTER'
Usually realised before 'ELICIT', this act serves to either provide information, or direct students' attention to 'ELICIT'. For example, 'It is not a right way to say that. What should we say instead?'
8. 'CHECK'
This act is realised by statements referring to some future acts which will be performed in the course of the lesson. For example, 'today, we're going to learn…' or 'in a while, we'll do…'
9. 'READ ALOUD'
This act refers to utterances the teacher read aloud from notes, worksheets, textbooks, or PowerPoint slides.
10. 'TRANSLATE'
This act is usually realised through the teacher's switches into another language to explain and elaborate on a lexical/syntactical item.
11. 'REPRIMAND/REGULATE/REQUEST'
This act is realised by negative statements on students' behaviours. It is different from 'COMMENT' in that it is specifically related to behaviours, not students' replies.
12. 'APPLAUD'
Similar to the previous act, this act is realised by positive statements on students' behaviours.
13. 'SELF-UTTERANCE'
This act is realised by statements or rhetorical questions, referring to utterances that the teacher speaks to himself/herself. It does not aim at eliciting students' responses.
14. 'TELL JOKES'
This act is realised by statements hinting at humour. It does not aim at eliciting students' responses.


15. 'EVALUATE'
This act is a type of 'teacher response' which lets the students know whether they have performed adequately or not.
(a) Positive
This act is realised by a closed class of generally positive words/phrases such as 'good', 'excellent', 'you're close to it'.
(b) Negative
This act is realised by a closed class of generally negative words/phrases such as 'no', 'nonsense', and the like.
16. 'ACCEPT'
This act is realised by acknowledgements of students' responses with 'yes', 'right', and the link, serving to confirm that the teacher has heard the response. It is closely related to 'EVALUATE'.
17. 'COMMENT'
This act is realised by statements and tag questions to expand, develop, or provide additional information to the response given by a student. It usually follows 'EVALUATE'.
18. 'CLUE'
This act is realised by statements, questions, or phrases, serving to help the students respond to elicitations or comply with directions.
19. 'ANSWER/DEMONSTRATE'
This act is realised by statements that answer students' questions, or by pronouncing certain words or phrase students ask about.
20. PARDON'
This act is realised by statements when the teacher wants to show he/she cannot hear the speakers. For example, 'Sorry' and 'What?'.

Student talk (*regardless of code*)



3.15. Structured-coding grid (Task)

Structured coding framework for task in CAL lessons

Procedure: Each task recorded is coded for

1) ***Location*** *(A – in-class; B – out-of-class)*
2) ***Technology use*** *(A – involvement of technology; B – no such involvement)*
3) ***Differentiation use*** *(A – task is differentiated; B – only one version used)*
4) ***Type and subtype*** *(see below)*

Task Types	Subtypes
1. Speaking	(a) individual presentation
	(b) pair oral tasks
	(c) group oral tasks (discussion)
	(d) drama (imitation)
	(e) drama (improvisation)
	(f) read aloud
2. Listening	(a) tape
	(b) dictation
3. Reading	(a) sentence reading
	(b) discourse comprehension
4. Writing	(a) sentence making
	(b) discourse production
5. Translation	
6. Penmanship/copying	(a) character-level
	(b) word-level
	(c) sentence-level
	(d) text-level
7. Decontextualised drills	(a) lexical
	(b) syntactical
8. Audiovisual tasks	
9. Game	

3.16. Normality checks

What with the sample size and the nature of variables being explored, only data from LBQ and LA will be considered for parametric procedures. Only data sets found to fit a normal distribution will be tested for homogeneity of variance.

	Z scores of skewness and kurtosis on language proficiency variables							
	Grade5 (Concentrated) n = 15		**Grade 5 (Integrated) n = 19**		**Grade 8 (Concentrated) n = 35**		**Grade 8 (Integrated) n = 24**	
Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
Self-assessed language proficiency								
Native language (listening)	.18	-.11	1.54	.72	.70	.68	.51	-.60
Native language (speaking)	.44	-.45	-.14	.76	-.50	.82	.00	1.03
Native language (reading)	1.18	-1.17	1.98*	-.05	1.60	-.69	1.17	-1.31
Native language (writing)	1.24	-1.11	1.29	-1.15	2.07*	-.81	1.58	-1.01
English language (listening)	-.24	-.76	-1.32	1.24	3.74*	2.63*	-.35	-.34
English language (speaking)	.91	-.54	2.17*	.98	1.13	-.74	.27	-.52
English language (reading)	.62	-67	1.27	2.10*	1.53	1.89	-1.32	0.33
English language (writing)	.52	-.86	.32	-.15	.65	-1.13	-1.05	-.30
Chinese language (listening)	.13	-.1.18	.11	-1.32	.42	-.94	-.43	-.85
Chinese language (speaking)	0.17	-.95	-.57	-.35	1.64	-.66	.15	-.95
Chinese language (reading)	1.8	.44	1.05	-.64	1.61	-.81	-.38	-.53
Chinese language (writing)	2.12*	.37	1.09	-.51	1.19	-1.17	-.55	-1.29
Researcher-assessed language proficiency in Chinese								
Decoding (word recognition)	1.86	.42	1.09	-.50	-.86	-.91	.58	-1.22
Decoding (orthographic knowledge)	1.47	-.30	.21	.09	-1.89	-1.03	-.66	-1.33
Discourse comprehension (listening)	.41	-17	1.59	-.41	.01	-.66	-.51	-1.39
Discourse production (speaking)	1.44	.40	1.16	-.33	-1.80	.65	-.03	-1.39
Discourse comprehension (reading)	1.54	.02	.49	-.91	-.53	-.54	1.08	-.69
Discourse production (writing)	-.44	-.45	.02	-.48	-1.46	.46	.54	-.86

**Skewness or kurtosis outside the acceptable range*

	Z scores of skewness and kurtosis on language use and exposure variables							
	Grade5 (Concentrated) n = 15		Grade 5 (Integrated) n = 19		Grade 8 (Concentrated) n = 35		Grade 8 (Integrated) n = 24	
Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interpersonal communication								
Native language	-.55	-.83	3.08*	2.50*	5.12*	4.14*	2.24*	.33
English language	1.06	-.39	2.11*	1.23	2.87*	1.01	1.61	-.26
Chinese language	1.71	.75	1.77	-.12	2.36*	.70	1.85	.09
Media exposure								
Native language	1.41	-.10	3.35*	2.75*	1.19	-1.16	2.36*	-0.05
English language	1.58	.43	1.72	.32	-.42	-.95	1.09	-.91
Chinese language	1.04	0.12	1.77	-.19	2.67*	.07	2.06*	-.01
Print exposure								
Native language	.59	-1.17	3.27*	2.08*	5.89*	5.33*	3.91*	1.91
English language	1.56	.32	-.71	-.46	.74	-1.02	-.96	-1.05
Chinese language	1.90	.43	2.01*	.89	2.71*	-.46	1.27	-1.04
Religious activities								
Native language	0.14	-.98	-.54	-.23	.56	-1.86	-.47	-1.57
English language	2.59*	1.39	2.18*	-.60	2.92*	.27	2.77*	1.28
Chinese language	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Other languages	.06	-1.93	1.79	-1.14	2.92*	.89	1.17	2.03*

**Skewness or kurtosis outside the acceptable range*

	Z scores of skewness and kurtosis on affective and motivational variables							
	Grade5 (Concentrated) n = 15		Grade 5 (Integrated) n = 19		Grade 8 (Concentrated) n = 35		Grade 8 (Integrated) n = 24	
Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
Motivation								
Integrative motivation	-.09	-1.43	1.16	-.99	.60	-1.54	.33	-1.42
Instrumental motivation	.76	-.72	.66	-.96	1.69	-.85	.36	-.91
Affect								
Enjoyment	.08	-1.13	1.90	-.82	.76	-.78	-.05	-1.58
Anxiety	-1.22	-.06	-.43	-1.16	.27	-1.32	-.20	-1.12
Hopeless	1.7	-.67	-.27	-.99	1.47	-.75	.88	-.56
Boredom	-1.28	-.59	1.21	-.47	1.03	-1.14	-1.81	1.24

**Skewness or kurtosis outside the acceptable range*

Only data from researcher-administered proficiency measures (LA) and the affective-motivational scale in LBQ were found to be within the acceptable range of skewness and kurtosis, which meant they fitted the normality requirements required of parametric procedures. These two strands of data were tested for homogeneity of variance.

3.17. Homogeneity of variance tests

Variables	Levene statistics (3, 89)	Sig.
Researcher-assessed language proficiency in Chinese		
Decoding (word recognition)	.349	.790
Decoding (orthographic knowledge)	1.828	.148
Discourse comprehension (listening)	.649	.586
Discourse production (speaking)	.598	.618
Discourse comprehension (reading)	.209	.890
Discourse production (writing)	.795	.500
Motivation		
Integrative motivation	.624	.601
Instrumental motivation	1.328	.270
Affect		
Enjoyment	.352	.788
Anxiety	1.261	.293
Hopeless	1.930	.130
Boredom	2.923	.038*

**Homogeneity of variance violented*

Parametric procedures ANOVA in this specific case were proceeded, despite a violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption for the variable 'boredom', because ANOVA is generally robust in the face of a minor violation.

3.18. Interview guide (Student)

Part 1 – Research Question & Objective			
Research question		What is the lived experience of learning CAL for linguistic minority students in observed CAL classes?	
Research objective		To obtain an experiential account of what it is like to learn CAL from selected linguistic minority students from observed classes	
Duration		40 – 60 minutes	
Part 2 – Interview Schedule (Students)			
Stage 1	***Warm-up & Life History***	*Hello, my name is Samuel and I'm very happy to have this chat with you. I'm going to ask you something about how you learn Chinese. You can share anything you wish with me and what you will share will be handled with care – your name and personal information will not be exposed. Is that clear? [wait for verbal assent] Are you willing to take part in this study? [wait for verbal assent] Thank you so much for participating in this study.* ▪ Can you tell me more about yourself? Name? Age? Were you born in Hong Kong? Where did you go for kindergarten/primary school? ▪ How would you describe yourself as a learner? *[probe: motivation, learning style, study habit, personality]* ▪ How many languages would you say you're learning right now? What are they? What do you think/feel about that? ▪ What's a typical day like for you? Do you use Chinese with your parents and friends?	<u>*Purposes*</u> To introduce the researcher and obtain verbal assent (in addition to parental consent) To serve as warm-up questions To understand the participant as a learner To understand the participant's lifeworld
Stage 2.1	***Learning CAL***	▪ What is it like for you to learn Chinese in your current school? ***With following prompts which can be repeated if need be:*** ***Prompting*** *Can you tell me a bit more about X?* ***Probing*** *What do you mean by 'X'?* ***Evaluative*** *How do you feel about X?* ***Contrast*** *What are the differences between X and Y?* ***Conditional*** *How do you think learning Chinese would be if you studied somewhere else?*	To allow an open-ended question to explore the essential structure of learning CAL in Hong Kong schools To solicit description
Stage 2.2	***Funneling to specific areas***	*[note: some specific areas may have been touched upon and effort can be directed to unmentioned areas at this stage]* ▪ Can you tell me more about how it is like for you to learn to listen to and speak Cantonese? *[Tool 1]* ▪ Can you tell me more about how it is like for you to learn to read and write Standard Written Chinese (SWC)? *[Tool 2]* ▪ Why do you think you learn Chinese? Do you like to study Chinese? Do you think it is important to study Chinese? Why? *[probe: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning environment; integrative, instrumental; intrinsic, extrinsic]* ▪ Do you learn or use Chinese at all outside school? How much time do you spend in learning Chinese outside school?	[Chinese language and literacy development] [Chinese learning motivation] [Chinese use outside school]
Stage 3	***Coda***	*This interview is approaching the end.* ▪ Do you have any other things you would like to share with me? *Thank you so much, (name of the interviewee), for your participation. If you do have any other things you wish to share, please feel free to contact me via email. Thank you.*	

Tool 1 | Interview (Students)




Writing 寫作
Reading 閱讀
我 嘅 志 願
其 實 我 諗 咗 嫩
個 問 題 好 耐 ， 但 係
係 就 真 係 唔 知 點 答
愛
TRADITIONAL
愛
SIMPLIFIED
漢字

3.19. Data gathering procedures for student interviews

Data Gathering Procedures* *for* Phenomenological Interviews
(for student participants)

*this manual mainly addresses quality assurance strategies in the pan-PI, pre-PI, and during-PI stages. The manual for data analysis covers quality assurance strategies in the post-PI stage

	Procedures	Dates of commencement	Dates of completion	Done?
Pre-PI	Pilot-testing interview procedures (Pre-PI quality assurance strategy)			
	Practising interview procedures (Pre-PI quality assurance strategy)			
	Reflection			
	Finalising the interview guide (with a focus on content)			
	Finalising the supplement to the interview guide (with a focus on delivery)			
	Reflection			
	Scheduling of interviews			
During-PI	**Data gathering** For each participant, data gathering is achieved through (i) re-reading the interview guide and its supplement before the scheduled interview, (ii) seeking verbal assent before data gathering, (iii) interviewing the relevant participant while engaging in memoing, and (iv) reflecting on that particular interview.			
	S1			
	S2			
	S3			
	S4			
	S5			
	S6			
	S7			
	S8			
	S9			
	S10			
	S11			
	S12			
	S13			
	S14			
	S15			
Post-PI	Tidying up qualitative data (including tagging field notes and reflections)			
	Transcription			
	Double-checking anonymisation			

Perceived data saturation

After interviewing all participants, I think that…

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Participants begin to repeat similar information/accounts.					
Further data will enrich my knowledge of the phenomenon.					
Overall, there is a degree of data saturation from this sample.					

Date of completion: _____

3.20. Interview guide (Teacher)

Part 1 – Research Question & Objective			
Research question		What is the lived experience of teaching CAL for observed Chinese language teachers under the current CAL policy?	
Research objective		To obtain an experiential account of what it is like to teach CAL to linguistic minority students from observed classes	
Duration		50 – 60 minutes	
Part 2 – Interview Schedule (Teachers)			
Stage 1	***Warm-up & Professional background***	*Hello, I'm very happy to have this chat with you. I'm going to ask you something about how you teach Chinese. You can share anything you wish with me and what you will share will be handled with care – your name and personal information will not be exposed. Thank you so much for participating in this study.* ▪ How would you describe yourself as a teacher? *[probe: teacher expectation, teaching style, language ideology, personality]* ▪ What's a typical work day like for you? ▪ I have observed your (class) earlier in the term. Can you tell me more about the class? Some of the characteristics? What are some of the challenges – if any – you are facing?	<u>*Purposes*</u> To serve as warm-up questions and explore the teacher's lifeworld
Stage 2.1	***Teaching CAL***	▪ What is it like for you to teach Chinese in your current school? ***With following prompts which can be repeated if need be:*** ***Prompting*** *Can you tell me a bit more about X?* ***Probing*** *What do you mean by 'X'?* ***Evaluative*** *How do you feel about X?* ***Contrast*** *What are the differences between X and Y?*	To allow an open-ended question to explore the essential structure of teaching CAL in Hong Kong schools To solicit description
Stage 2.2	***Funneling to specific areas***	*[note: some specific areas may have been touched upon and effort can be directed to unmentioned areas at this stage]* ▪ Can you tell me more about how it is like for you to teach your students to listen to and speak Cantonese? What are some of the teaching strategies you've used? How effective are they? ▪ Can you tell me more about how it is like for you to teach your students to read and write Standard Written Chinese (SWC) in traditional script? What are some of the teaching strategies you've used? How effective are they? ▪ Do you think learning Chinese (Cantonese coupled with Standard Written Chinese) is important for your students? Ideally, how proficient do you expect your students to be? Can this be realistically achieved? Why yes/no? ▪ How familiar are you with the existing curricular documents? Do you adopt any of the curricular suggestions by Education Bureau? Or do you adopt any other approaches? Why?	[Teaching strategies pertaining to Chinese language and literacy] [Teacher expectation] [Curricular knowledge & agency]
Stage 3	***Coda***	*This interview is approaching the end.* ▪ Do you have any other things you would like to share with me? *Thank you so much, (name of the interviewee), for your participation. If you do have any other things you wish to share, please feel free to contact me via email. Thank you.*	

3.21. Data gathering procedures for teacher interviews

Data Gathering Procedures* *for* Phenomenological Interviews
(for teacher participants)

*this manual mainly addresses quality assurance strategies in the pan-PI, pre-PI, and during-PI stages. The manual for data analysis covers quality assurance strategies in the post-PI stage

	Procedures	Dates of commencement	Dates of completion	Done?
Pre-PI	Pilot-testing interview procedures (Pre-PI quality assurance strategy)			
	Practising interview procedures (Pre-PI quality assurance strategy)			
	Reflection			
	Finalising the interview guide (with a focus on content)			
	Finalising the supplement to the interview guide (with a focus on delivery)			
	Reflection			
	Scheduling of interviews			
During-PI	Data gathering For each participant, data gathering is achieved through (i) re-reading the interview guide and its supplement before the scheduled interview, (ii) seeking verbal assent before data gathering, (iii) interviewing the relevant participant while engaging in memoing, and (iv) reflecting on that particular interview.			
	T1			
	T2			
	T3			
	T4			
	Data saturation After interviewing all participants, I think that…			
Post-PI	Tidying up qualitative data (including tagging field notes and reflections)			
	Transcription			
	Double-checking anonymisation			
	Translation of primal quotes	*- after analysis -*	*- after analysis -*	

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Participants begin to repeat similar information/accounts.					
Further data will enrich my knowledge of the phenomenon.					
Overall, there is a degree of data saturation from this sample.					

Date of completion: _____

3.22. Supplement to the interview guides

Supplement to the Interview Guide
(Principles pertaining to Delivery)

Aims of phenomenological interviews (descriptive)

1. To gather evidence, in as nondirective a manner as possible, shedding light on the experiential structure of having taught and learnt CAL in settings observed in the 'Practice' domain;
2. To ensure that participants give an account of their lived experiences in the natural attitude *(i.e., a prereflective and pretheorised understanding of the phenomenon, for example, descriptions of lived-through moments, experiential anecdotal accounts, narrative fragments; cf. opinions, interpretations, views, or explanations of events)*;

Principles and techniques to follow

- Striving for nondirectiveness (Rogers, 1945), and minimizing researcher reactivity (Giorgi, 1997, 2009)
  - ✓ *Assure the participants that the researcher's here to listen and clarify where necessary*
  - ✓ *Assure the participants that they have maximal autonomy in expressing what they want*
  - ✓ *Make sure that the researcher does not make comments on participants' accounts*
  - ✓ *Reduce unnecessary responses like 'Ummm', 'OK', 'uh-huh', and leading questions like 'Really?'*
  - ✓ *Avoid reinforcing participants' responses*
  - ✓ *Avoid interrupting the interviewees (it's fine to go for clarification at a later time)*
  - ✓ *Avoid a therapeutic relationship (Seidman, 2006)*
- Focusing on the elicitation of concrete particulars of the lived experience (Adams & van Manen, 2008)
  - ✓ *Engage in prompts that lead the participants to describe moments and anecdotes concretely*
  - ✓ *Focus on open-ended questions (e.g. 'grand tour' questions) leading to in-depth interviews*
  - ✓ *Invite the interviewee to share what it was like (rather than if they remember) (reconstruction>remember)*
  - ✓ *Allow the participants to give their self-interpretations of such moments and anecdotes*
- *It's PERFECTLY OK TO…*
  - ✓ *Politely keep participants focused on the phenomenon being explored*
  - ✓ *Answer questions related to the interview itself*
  - ✓ *Tolerate silence (Seidman, 2006)*
  - ✓ *Explore/note down non-verbal elements (e.g. laughter, gesture) in the interviews*

Interviewing language minority students

- ✓ *Maintain a pluralistic attitude of 'Collaborative Empowerment' (i.e. affirmation of identities)*
- ✓ *Assure student participants that they can treat me as their friends (alongside rapport built in sustained observation)*
- ✓ *Allow fluid use of language to convey meaning*
- ✓ *Use 'Tools' to help convey meanings and/or keep participants focused*

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3.23. Data analysis procedures for phenomenological interviews

Data Analysis Procedures *for* Phenomenological Interviews
(Individually – Phases 1&2)

Type: □ Teacher PI □ Student PI

Case: □T1 □T2 □T3 □T4

□S1 □S2 □S3 □S4 □S5 □S6 □S7 □S9 □S9

□S10 □S11 □S12 □S13 □S14 □S15

	Procedures	Dates of commencement	Dates of completion	Done?
Phase 1 – WHOLE	Transcription			
	Preliminary reading (unmarked)			
	Preliminary reading (marked)			
	Considerations of field notes and other materials			
	Reflection			
Phase 2 – PART	Forming into units/key words (unitisation)			
	Horizontalization of units (reflexivity)			
	Forming into categories (categorisation)			
	Horizontalization of categories (reflexivity)			
	Forming into emergent themes			
	Reflection			

NOTES

Data Analysis Procedures *for* Phenomenological Interviews

(Holistically – Phase 3; Post-PI quality assurance – Phase 4)

Type: □ Teacher PI □ Student PI

	Procedures	Dates of commencement	Dates of completion	Done?
Phase 3 – WHOLE	Reading categories and emergent themes across cases			
	Systematising and harmonising categories and emergent themes across cases			
	Forming into superordinate themes			
	Reflection			
	Comparison across cases (scan 1)			
	Refinement			
	Comparison across cases (scan 2)			
	Final refinement			
	Reflection			
Phase 4 – POST-PI	Peer debriefing (where necessary)			
	Reliability check – Intra-coder Reliability			
	Reliability check – Inter-coder Reliability			
	Member checking (if applicable)			
	Reflection			
	Final adjustments			

NOTES

Appendix 4 A supplement to 'reflexivity' in the present study

This manuscript is submitted as part of Routledge Studies in Applied Linguistics series, with the working title 'Reflexivity in Applied Linguistics Research: Opportunities, Challenges and Suggestions' edited by Sal Consoli (The Hong Kong Polytechnic University) and Sara Ganassin (Newcastle University). It documents my journey of practising reflexivity via journaling as a doctoral student at the Department of Education, University of Oxford.

TITLE

"There would be no project if I were to disregard my own self!": An Autoethnography of Becoming Reflexive as a Doctoral Student in Applied Linguistics

ABSTRACT

This chapter explores my journey towards conceptualising and practising reflexivity in my doctoral project, a language policy and planning study of Chinese language provision for ethnolinguistic minority learners across primary and secondary schools in post-1997 Hong Kong. Positioning my doctoral project as an exploratory study that took a pragmatic-transformative stance uniting mixed methods and social justice, I deemed the practice of reflexivity integral to such a research stance and operationalised it as a dynamic and intentional process of striving for 'ongoing self-awareness' (Finlay, 2012a, p.317). Reflexivity was practised not as a mere formality, but as a quality assurance strategy essential to various stages of knowledge production, and as part of an agentive system that interacted with a developing researcher identity. Drawing upon autoethnographic data from regular journaling, I argue that taking a more comprehensive approach to operationalising and practising reflexivity, in lieu of relying singularly upon an autobiographic approach, unleashes the potential of reflexivity to applied linguistics research, while presenting opportunities to examine and embrace the researcher's subjectivities and the self, and to respond to methodological and socio-emotional issues throughout different stages of empirical research. Implications are discussed with an appeal for more systematic research training valorising the role of reflexivity in applied linguistics at large.

BIO

Samuel C. S. Tsang is a final-year doctoral student at the Department of Education of the University of Oxford. His doctoral project is premised upon a policy-practice-phenomenology framework exploring the language planning and policy pertinent to the complexities of the teaching and learning of Chinese as a majority language to ethnolinguistic minority students of South(east) Asian origins in Hong Kong. The phenomenological focus on the lived experiences of these learners has afforded him a unique glimpse of the role of reflexivity in acknowledging the nuanced complexities and politics behind undertaking research in low-conflict, postcolonial, and multilingual urban settings. He had worked as a language teacher in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. He holds a Master of Science in Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition from the Department of Education of the University of Oxford. His publications can be found in *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *Journal of Education Policy*, and *Language in Society*.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to explore the role of reflexivity in my doctoral project which pursues issues of language policy and planning (LPP) relating to the provision of Chinese-as-an-Additional-Language (CAL) to ethnolinguistic minority learners in primary and secondary schools in postcolonial Hong Kong (see also Tsang, 2020). Through autoethnographic data from regular journaling, I seek to illustrate my personal transition from having been socialised into a positivist mode of research to becoming cognisant of and later committed to alternative theoretical traditions founded on a 'commitment through which researchers uncover their respective roles as key social actors shaping the very social processes they intend to study and analy[s]e' (Pérez-Milans, 2016, p.2). This uncovering of one's embeddedness in the process of doing research, to me, is important not only from an onto-epistemological standpoint, but also from methodological, axiological, and self-regulatory perspectives.

Relatedly, it bears mentioning that this transformation is in large part driven by my engagement in the LPP project, which investigates the multi-layered phenomenon of CAL provision in post-1997 Hong Kong. As a subfield in applied linguistics (AL), LPP serves to examine the macro-, meso-, and micro-levels of policy implementation and negotiation, which often necessitates the use of multimethodology. Specifically, my doctoral project was theoretically informed by Lo Bianco's (2010) language planning framework combined with a descriptive-phenomenological component (see Giorgi, 1985a, 1985b, 2009), with a view to producing knowledge about the intended, enacted, and lived dimensions of extant CAL policies and their potential ramifications. In this chapter, I will show how conducting a mixed-methods LPP study more reflexively destabilised my paradigmatic thinking, enabling me to be 'formed and reformed at each intersection at which my knowledge, subject positions and identities were reconfigured and so continually transformed as an individual-subject' (Forbes, 2008, p.458).

Taken together, I argue that the pursuit of reflexivity has implications for AL research, especially in areas relating to quality assurance, renewal of the researcher self(ves), and doctoral research training. In what follows, I will elaborate on my journey towards conceptualising and practising reflexivity in relation to my doctoral project.

CONCEPTUALISING REFLEXIVITY

Becoming reflexive is a defining feature of the wider 'reflexive turn' sweeping across the social sciences (see Foley, 2002; Archer, 2010, 2012; Venkatesh, 2013), and has been frequently invoked as an essential aspect in interpretivist approaches (Pillow, 2003). Despite its recent 'explo[sion] into academic consciousness' (Finlay & Gough, 2003, p. ix), the practice of reflexivity can be traced back to early philosophical schools of thought across the East (e.g., Confucianism) and West (e.g., Socratism) where reflection and self-examination had been extolled as a humanising virtue (see Kim, 2003), and to some latter developments from Descartes and Dewey who put forward more recent theories germane to the application of reflective practice in the educative process (see Fender, 2003). Given the influences from various intersecting schools of thought and scholarly traditions over the years (Mortari, 2015), the current literature on reflexivity is characterised by such terminological richness that there are subtle definitional nuances which make it 'far from straightforward to define and deploy' (Blasco, 2012, p.476; see also Lynch 2000; Maton, 2003).

Existing theoretical debates have tended to juxtapose reflexivity with reflection, attempting to reify the onto-epistemological distinctness between these two related concepts (see Finlay, 2012a; Mann, 2016). For example, *reflexivity* is defined as a cognitive act of a subject 'turning back onto' itself[35] (Steier, 1995, p.163), with a kind of '*subject-object-subject* gaze' (Blasco, 2012, p.476), whereas *reflection* is understood as a subject engaging in 'in-depth consideration of events or situations outside of' itself (Bolton, 2000, p.13; see also Archer, 2010). Alternatively, along a temporal continuum, *reflection* may be defined as consideration after the event, whereas *reflexivity* entails an "ongoing self-awareness" (Finlay, 2012a, p.317). Other theorists conceptualise reflexivity on its own, albeit vis-à-vis earlier works relating to reflection (e.g., Schön, 1983). For example, Attia and Edge (2017) approach reflexivity from a directional framing, distinguishing between *prospective* and *retrospective* reflexivity (see also Edge, 2011). The former concerns 'the effect of the whole-person-researcher on the research' whereas the latter grapples with 'the effect of the research on the researcher' (Attia & Edge, 2017, p.35). To summarise, what Lynch (2000, p.27) observed almost two decades ago as a 'confusing array of versions of reflexivity' still rings true today, with the jury still out on how reflexivity can be pinned down as a theoretical construct, or how it may be positioned vis-à-vis its close cousin (e.g., reflection).

Furthermore, despite the widespread consensus on the importance of operating reflexively across various social-scientific disciplines, it is not uncommon to come across criticisms of the reflexivities thus far advocated and theorised. First, the tendencies to romanticise reflexivity as a 'source of superior insight, perspicacity or awareness' (Lynch, 2000, p.27), as well as the assumption of 'a self-accessible and self-transcendable self' (Blasco, 2012, p.480), are noted as problematic. Second, reflexivity as a form of introspection of the self is subject to the extent and range of one's experiential repertoire (i.e., experiences upon which reflexivity can be made) and may be merely conducted in a self-assured way that serves to reinforce one's preconceived knowledge. In this manner, reflexivity may run the risk of becoming a form of 'reflex' rather than 'reflection' (Blasco, 2012). Third, reflexivity, when taken to an extreme, may become a form of narcissism where sensitivity towards the external world is disproportionately reduced in favour of hyperreflexivity (see Bleakley, 1999). Fourth, Devis-Rozental (2018, p.132) maintains that the current applications of reflexivity may only scratch the surface of the self without achieving the 'deep reflection' necessary for self-awareness that furthers the cause of social transformation or similar virtues valued in social research.

Mindful of historical and terminological richness associated with the past and present framings of reflexivity, as well as the existing criticisms towards exercising reflexivity in research, I conceptualise 'reflexivity' as (meta)cognitive acts of self-reference and reflection that can be thought of as the bridge connecting the agentive self and the material world, through which (i) consciousness can be intentionally directed towards various entities (e.g., the self and a diverse range of externalities), and (ii) corresponding actions can be subsequently instigated (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1983; Moon, 1999). Through conceptualising

[35] As Mortari (2015, p.1) explains from a phenomenological perspective, '[w]hen the mind thinks on itself, the subject engaged in the reflective practice plays at the same time the role of subject who reflects and object who is reflected, that is, he or she becomes the object of the analysis, and it is precisely through making oneself the object of self-inquiry that a person really becomes the subject of his or her experience.' As such, the practice of reflexivity insures against an unauthentic state where 'the person adopts an unreflective stance that consists in staying passively enmeshed in one's thoughts.'

the embeddedness of the agentive self in tension with external events, I further argue that the distinction between reflection and reflexivity had better be jettisoned in favour of a more *pragmatist* conception of both (meta)cognitive acts as constitutive of 'reflective activity' that promotes 'ongoing self-awareness' in relation to internalities (e.g., positionality, and identification) and externalities (e.g., the research process, and intersubjectivities) (Finlay, 2012a, p.317) along a temporal dimension (i.e., past, present, and future). In this vein, reflexivity is operationalised as (i) a bricolage of (meta)cognitive acts aimed at self-awareness in acknowledgement of the complexities of the human psyche with 'very many human beings cop[ing] with complex, contradictory, and shifting judgments about their selves often asking themselves which self-image, which self-feeling to trust' (Flam, 2010, p.198); and (ii) a process of aligning with a power-conscious and affirmative stance that not only goes beyond mere self-assurance, but has also implications for self-acceptance and -development.

PRACTISING REFLEXIVITY

The study

The study under focus concerns an exploratory LPP investigation of Chinese language provision for ethnolinguistic minority learners across primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. Specifically, after the historic handover of Hong Kong from the United Kingdom to the People's Republic of China in 1997, de-colonising language policies have been introduced, notably Mother Tongue Education (Education Department, 1997) and using Putonghua to teach Chinese (Curriculum Development Council, 1999; SCOLAR, 2003, 2008). These initiatives stress the growing importance of the Chinese language to rebrand the city as a cosmopolitan 'biliterate and trilingual' financial hub in Asia. One unintended consequence, however, is that linguistically and culturally diverse students are struggling to learn CAL[36], which has been a notable concern both internationally and locally[37]. It is against this backdrop that the study adopts a mixed-methods approach to problematise CAL provision in post-1997 Hong Kong through examining different constitutive dimensions of language education provision and engaging key stakeholders in the LPP process. The study explores three principal dimensions (i.e., intended CAL policy at the macro level, enacted CAL policy at the meso level, and lived CAL policy at the micro level) adopting the following data collection methods

Policy	(1)	policy analysis
	(2)	expert interviews
Practice	(3)	sustained lesson observation
	(4)	language assessment *(administered to CAL students)*
	(5)	language background questionnaires *(administered to CAL students)*
Phenomenology	(6)	phenomenological interviews *(with CAL teachers)*
	(7)	phenomenological interviews *(with CAL students)*

All in all, this study was positioned as a multidimensional, mixed-methods case study on the LPP phenomenon of CAL provision for minority students in post-1997 Hong Kong. To yield

[36] Chinese refers here to the combination of Cantonese (as the spoken code) with the use of traditional Chinese characters (as the written code in Standard Written Chinese), which is the usual pairing in post-1997 Hong Kong.

[37] Chinese language education to ethnic minority children and youth has been regularly discussed as an issue in United Nations committees on human and child rights, and the elimination of racial discrimination (see South China Morning Post, 2013a, 2013b, 2018b). Locally, China language education has been repeatedly raised as an educational issue in the Legislative Council since 1997.

representative insights into the situation, multiple sites where CAL provision was enacted were explored. Onto-epistemologically, this present study took a pragmatic-transformative stance that united mixed methods (see Morse & Richards, 2002), with the ethical demands concomitant with centring social justice in empirical research (see Mertens 2009, 2015; APA, 2017). Piloting and access negotiation lasted three months from October 2018 to December 2018, whereas the main data collection phase lasted around eight months from January 2019 to August 2019. In sum, data were collected from local schools, students, teachers, and policy advocates.

Reflexive scope for this study

Given the use of multimethodology and the involvement of ethnolinguistic minority groups as core research participants, there is ample room for reflexivity in my doctoral study. Yet, in this chapter, I will focus on the practice of reflexivity vis-à-vis personal transformations on three major levels: (i) from a language teacher into an AL researcher; (ii) from a rather positivist upbringing into a pragmatic-transformative stance; and (iii) from not realising the value of reflexivity to acknowledging and practising it in my doctoral project. These processes of 'becoming' were in tension with methodological and socio-emotional issues as well as ethical challenges that arose throughout different phases of this study. In this chapter, I will put the spotlight on my personal journey towards reflexivity — i.e., my lived experiences of attaining, sustaining, and taking action in response to 'ongoing self-awareness' throughout the entirety of the LPP project — and use my journey of becoming reflexive as the anchor with which a meta-reflection can be made of this omnipresent yet underrated research constituent. To guide this inquiry, there is one central guiding question

> *How was reflexivity practised and experienced throughout different stages of my doctoral project?*

Sources of reflexivity

To address the guiding question, I took an autoethnographic approach to document my journey of practising reflexivity as a doctoral student. Through what Ellis (2008, p.49) terms a 'wide-angle lens', an autoethnographic approach enabled me to fluidly focus on various dimensions of becoming an AL researcher whose commitment to a reflexive praxis interacted dynamically with the simultaneous generation of expertise and knowledge within an indeterminate zone (see Schön, 1983). To operationalise this approach, I drew on my research diary kept from late 2017 (i.e., the planning phase of my doctoral project) to mid-2020 (i.e., the data analysis phase). As 'a vehicle to explore a dialogue between theory and experience, and identity' (Mann, 2016, p.19), research diary entries consisted mainly of (i) regular, unstructured reflections on methodological issues and ethical dilemmas at various stages of the study; and (ii) sporadic, semi-structured reflections related to positionality, bracketing, and the attitude of 'collaborative empowerment' towards ethnolinguistic minority students. Table 1 outlines the practice of striving for 'ongoing self-awareness' vis-à-vis different phases of the project

(Insert Table 1 About Here)

I analysed both types of diary entries by first reading them holistically with attention paid to recurring keywords and phrases, then coding and categorising them such that emergent

patterns were gleaned from these autoethnographic entries, and finally thematising emergent categories so as to give an integrated perspective on (i) the evolution of reflexivity as the research process unfolded, and (ii) my lived experiences of practising reflexivity as I underwent personal transformations on multiple fronts. Where appropriate, drafts written as part of the research process – for example, research plan and reports – were included to triangulate my experience with becoming reflexive during the research process. Overall, three themes emerge to demonstrate that reflexivity is an evolving process that enables me to navigate doctoral research as an indeterminate zone where personal development, knowledge production, and ethics intersect and interact.

Reflexivity in this study

Transitioning towards a more comprehensive conception of reflexivity

One recurring theme concerns my journey towards a more comprehensive conception of reflexivity. This transition from denying and neglecting the relevance of reflexivity to research to practising it as a dynamic process began with my attempt to understand more about qualitative research

> **Extract 1**
>
> This week's full of my prelim[inary] reading on phenomenology as a philosophical convention. I see the potential of that for my doctoral research. In the main, I think I have understood what phenomenology can yield as a research method yet I'm not sure how its rigor can be ensured. Particularly, more reading needs to be done on the notion of 'bracketing'. What is that exactly? How can I go about that?
>
> *2 December 2017*

In Extract 1, I recorded my attempt to grapple with a dimension of my doctoral project – specifically, the phenomenological component studying the lived experiences of key CAL stakeholders under the current policy ecology – which led me to the phenomenological notion of 'bracketing', also known as 'phenomenological reduction' and '*epoché*' (see Giorgi, 2009; Finlay, 2012b; Vagle, 2018). In my research diary, I noted that I had to probe this notion further. Therefore, additional readings into bracketing enabled me to become aware of the reductionism in my positivist upbringing, and to ponder my role as a knower in the research process

> **Extract 2**
>
> It feels like I've been trained in a rather reductionistic tradition where some sort of clean separation can be comfortably assumed between the knower and the known. Yes, in natural sciences. But is that even possible for social sciences?
>
> *15 December 2017*

> **Extract 3**

> I cannot help but wonder what bracketing may mean for my DPhil project. Surely, it's not just a simple step for the phenomenology chapter! And really can I even operate bracketing in silos? If I am to reflect on my assumptions, prejudices, my embeddedness in the phenomenological part, it's only logical that I extend this to the entire research project.
>
> *21 December 2017*

As shown in both Extracts 2 and 3, my critical engagement with phenomenological literature motivated me to explore the possibility of extending the requirement of bracketing to other dimensions of my LPP study, which evinced my growing awareness of practising reflexivity in research.

Although 'reflection' was a buzzword in my undergraduate days when I trained to become a language teacher, my awareness of its importance to AL research emerged in my first year as a Probationer Research Student (i.e., late 2017 to mid-2018) at the Department of Education, the University of Oxford. During this time, I came across a departmental seminar that referred in passing to Schön's (1988) notion of indeterminate zones of practice, which sensitised me to the potential role of reflective practice, including but not limited to reflecting on the situatedness of the self in knowledge production (i.e., reflexivity), as a clarifying compass while I wandered through an uncharted research area of my choosing

Extract 4

> I was so inspired today by the brief mention of Professor Donald Schön's work and his observation that it is reflective practice that makes all the difference in a practitioner's ability to wade through the unpleasantness of an indeterminate situation. This is absolutely right! Because the very process of entering a community of practice be it teaching, accountancy, law, or research! is immanently indeterminate. It's constantly evolving. It's contextually unique, historically contingent, full of value conflict. What I'm experiencing is, in a manner of speaking, exactly that. And I shall begin my own reflective regime such that I may get past this this period of confusion and conflict.
>
> *2 February 2017*

After this critical encounter, I was determined to operate as a more reflexive researcher and was attempting to devise a framework that would enable me to do so. As highlighted earlier, I framed reflexivity within the larger domain of reflective practice that, given the overlap, seeks to unite both reflectivity and reflexivity. To do this, I pursued both unstructured and semi-structured reflections on certain topics of interest to the research process (e.g., positionality), dispersing them across different stages of my doctoral project, while formalising the role of becoming self-aware as a quality-assuring strategy in my LPP study, as shown below

Figure 1

(Insert Figure 1 About Here)

Digitalised from an unstructured entry dated 10 March 2018[38]

Around early 2018, I came up with a framework (see Figure 1) that I subsequently put on the first page of the research diary to remind myself of the multi-directionality of becoming reflexive in my doctoral project: (i) *introspective* towards the knower who influenced the knowledge construction process, and as an sentient and agentive enquirer; (ii) *extrospective* towards externalities — including but not limited to 'the cultural, historical, linguistic, political, and other forces (Sandelolwski & Barroso, 2002, p.216) — that constituted and shaped the phenomenon under question; (iii) *retrospective* towards the past where self-awareness could be directed towards onto-epistemological and methodological actions thus far taken, and where personal history could be considered; and (iv) *prospective* towards the future where forethought could be made to immediate research action in near future, and where improvement could be striven for (see also anticipatory reflection by van Manen, 1991).

Also, I read with relish some of the landmark pieces (e.g., Dewey, 1933; Steier, 1991; Finlay, 2012a; Mann, 2016) on reflective and/or reflexive practices in social sciences, which opened my mind to the terminological nuances and the role of practising reflectivity-cum-reflexivity in my doctoral project

Extract 5

> Ah, I like the term reflexivity, which Finlay (2012[a]) defines so succinctly as 'ongoing self-awareness' [p.317]. That's precisely what I'm trying to accomplish: a sort of systematic and sustained attention of the self that can be directed towards different directions and dimensions, which has real-life consequences for my DPhil study.
>
> *4 April 2018*

Relatedly, my transition towards a fuller conception of reflexivity at a doctoral level was also contrasted with my experiences at undergraduate and master's levels, as I wrote

Extract 6

> I feel somewhat calmer with Covid with all these journaling. Why didn't I do this earlier when I was doing my master's in applied linguistics? Or more seriously when I was training as a teacher? Reflexivity had been relegated to a mere formality but, when it is given continuous attention over time, it can be — and is — a powerful force forming the overall strength of my study and, more importantly, my well-being as a DPhil student!
>
> *27 March 2020*

[38] As mentioned earlier, although there have been attempts to theorise reflection and reflexivity as separate yet intersecting concepts, my lived experience suggests that reflexivity and reflection cannot be practised in silos, which explains my use of 'reflective practice' as a superordinate term in my research diary to indicate the pragmatist approach I have gravitated towards.

As summarised in Extract 6, practising reflexivity in a more rounded manner effected positive changes in the way I engaged in research. My pre-PhD experiences — when I was in a much less reflexive state — became the frame of reference to make sense of the benefits associated with the reflective practice I am now committed to as a doctoral student. Here, data suggest my journey towards systematising reflexivity was facilitated by a number of pull factors, including but not limited to: (i) my attempt to understand more about 'bracketing' as a methodological technique; (ii) the need to harmonise 'bracketing' across various parts of the doctoral project; (iii) my engagement with literature on reflectivity and reflexivity; and (iv) my perception of doctoral training and research as being in an indeterminate process which shall benefit from some degree of self-awareness and -acknowledgement.

Examining subjectivities and embracing the self

Another prominent theme concerns how practising reflexivity allowed me to examine my subjectivities and embrace various aspects of the self as strengths. As highlighted earlier, my relationship with reflexivity originated from the need to satisfy the methodological demand of 'bracketing', which is essentially a hermeneutic research technique that entails 'a reflective process by which opinion and prejudice [of the researcher] are suspended to focus attention on what is essential in the phenomena' (LeVasseur, 2003, p.411). In my doctoral project, 'bracketing' was operationalised as the development of openness to research questions with a willingness to reflect on my subjectivities vis-à-vis the CAL phenomenon and the central actors therein.

> **Extract 7**
>
> I will fulfil bracketing through regular reflections. I shall reserve a special section in the diary dedicated to bracketing, reflecting on my assumptions, past experiences, and positionality.
>
> *26 January 2018*

From Extract 7, 'bracketing' was implemented as a routinised procedure throughout the entire span of the project. I singled out 'bracketing' as a methodological concern that could be addressed via semi-structured reflections with a focus on interrogating my presuppositions on the CAL phenomenon. One consequence was the emergence of a specific research attitude (i.e., an attitude of openness and curiosity), as suggested in reflective entries before (see Extract 8) and during fieldwork (see Extract 9):

> **Extract 8**
>
> Bracketing-wise, with a couple of focused reflections done, I feel much less certain about the nature of the phenomenon of (mostly HK-born) minority students learning Chinese as an additional language. It's like I'm finally beginning to grasp how complex the issue is. Is it purely a policy and planning issue? Or a combination of policy and something else? The more I reflect on my assumptions, the less sure I am of everything!
>
> *3 August 2018*

Extract 9

> I definitely feel more activated and more aware, as if practising bracketing has inculcated in me some much-needed respect for the indeterminateness or fuzziness of this process of knowledge building, an attitude that opens the door to new meanings and perspectives that would otherwise remain hidden.
>
> *21 March 2019*

Apart from fulfilling the phenomenological requirement of 'bracketing', reflexivity also enabled me to rethink and harmonise my role as a knower in the research process. Notably, reflection on past experiences drew attention to my intersecting memberships to different groups and communities of practice, allowing me to acknowledge and affirm the self and its capitals in the research process (see also life capital in Consoli, 2020), as I reasoned

Extract 10

> For some reason, I had been under the impression that the self should play no role in language research, so much so that anything from the researcher had better be kept at bay. Yet, gradually, as I have been reflecting more and more, I begin to disagree with this silencing of the self. The self and its embodiment through the researcher are important and need to be affirmed. My desire for knowledge guides me through countless hours spent in the libraries and sustains me through those cold walks to the seminar rooms. My knowledge of the field allows me to gather data representatively, and gain access strategically. My experience as a teacher allows me to be close to my groups of interest. My memories of hearing minority students' stories of hurt and discrimination give shape to my empathy and convince me of the necessity of taking a transformative paradigm. In short, there would be no project if I were to disregard my own self!
>
> *9 November 2018*

Apart from underscoring the relevance of the self throughout the research process(es), the practice of reflexivity further highlights how the self, attitudinal factors, and research are intimately connected. For example, heeding leading methodologists' calls against 'unreflective naturalisation' where interviewing is unwittingly set up as a 'natural and unproblematic way of staging human relationships' (Brinkmann, 2013, p.42), I drew on Cummins's (2000) notion of collaborative empowerment, a pedagogical model which I was familiar with as a language teacher, that allowed me to attend reflexively to inter-group relations of power to conduct phenomenological interviews in multilingual research settings more validly.

Extract 11

> If reflections by way of 'bracketing' problematise my inevitable embeddedness in the context and make me more receptive to new meanings, then reflections on 'collaborative empowerment' could be

> the catalyst for my awareness of power relations, and for research action aimed at collaboration and empowerment. I cannot say I'm fulfilling the high demand of a critical paradigm. But I'm willing to begin from Cummins's proposed solution.
>
> *5 April 2019*

Overall, this theme suggests that the practice of reflexivity is an intentional act intimately tied to the self whose various facets (e.g., my identities, memories, attitudes, opinions, values and prejudices) are reflected on such that the relationships between these researcher-internal factors and the research process can be clarified and, if need be, managed. Importantly, the data also point to the pliability of the self in that certain research attitudes were perceived to be nurtured through sustained reflections. Through reflective journaling that denaturalised preconceived notions of and rhetoric surrounding the research phenomenon, I found myself becoming more open with time (i.e., an instantiation of 'bracketing'), as well as more critically conscious of power relations in interethnic and intercultural settings (i.e., an instantiation of 'collaborative empowerment').

Mediating methodological and socio-emotional issues

Methodological and socio-emotional issues throughout different stages of this empirical research were mediated through my commitment to the practice of reflexivity. Particularly, given the technical and emotional demands in the process of becoming an independent researcher (see Inouye & McAlpine, 2017), systematic journaling provided a platform to interrogate, resolve and/or mitigate the challenges throughout the lifetime of the study.

At the beginning stage of research conceptualisation (i.e., late 2017 to mid-2018), apart from attempting to understand 'bracketing', I was also devoting myself to grasping the use of multimethodology

> **Extract 12**
>
> I was grateful to have attended Professor Pam Sammons's seminar on mixed-methods designs in educational research. It's actually related to what I have been thinking about (like, how different research methods can be put together in an equal way) so it's assuring to know that something has been done [in this regard] and I just need to read more on this.
>
> *22 February 2018*

Over time, as I conducted more reflective journaling alongside literature reviews, I developed a more articulated understanding of various mixed-methods potentialities, while delineating and demarcating the relations among dimensions I eventually explored. It was also during this time I read Douglas Fir Group's (2016) call for a transdisciplinary framework in AL research in an increasingly multilingual world, which deepened my resolve to pursue a proposal for an equal-status, multi-dimensional, mixed-methods design for my doctoral project

Extract 13

> I've recently read this cogently argued think piece that reads almost like a manifesto. It's by the Douglas Fir Group comprised mostly of applied linguists from North America… I like that it has outlined a number of key concerns facing the field, while feeling more emboldened to pursue a multimethod, multi-dimensional design that enables [me] to move across the disciplinary/topical boundaries… The books and articles I've had the luck to come across, the ideas and arguments I've thus far 'harvested' from them and all these are inspiring me to carve out this proposal I'm writing right now.
>
> *5 March 2018*

Another methodological issue that received reflexive attention was the issue of researching multilingually in intercultural settings (see Holmes, Andrews, & Attia, 2016). As I was piloting research instruments with CAL students around late 2018, it became clear that although the use of English as the sole medium of research had the veneer of procedural standardisation, such a monolingual mode of data gathering could be challenging and even coercive, as I reflected

Extract 14

> From piloting, it's clear that language is a powerful factor in data gathering, especially for language minority students. First, it's challenging to rely only on English because the targeted students are quite young (being around Grade 5 and Grade 8). Meaning-making modes have to be broadened. Second, while monolingual use of English to administer research instruments may be good for standardisation, it sacrifices quality and ethics. It sacrifices quality because it does not factor in the role of language in their verbalising of their lived experiences. Lived experiences are always mediated by 'language'! It sacrifices ethics because it disregards their fuller meaning-making capacities by demanding them to submit themselves to a 'matter-of-fact' mode of language use! Something must be done.
>
> *29 November 2018*

Subsequently, I further reflected on the issue of researching multilingually, pending advice from an advisory group of subject matter experts[39]. As a reflexive act, reflecting on the challenges and opportunities associated with researching multilingually mediated the process of data collection

[39] The advisory group was formed as a part of the overall strategy of a mixed-methods approach, as recommended by Mertens (2009, 2015).It comprised three subject matter experts: a research advisor with a graduate degree in Chinese as a second/foreign language; a Chinese language teacher with more than 15 years of experience; and a member of the ethnic minority of Pakistani descent. Research issues were raised through regular meetings and emails. The expert advisory group played a crucial role in operationalising a transformative-pragmatic orientation into research practices, formulating quality assurance strategies for methods used, and other ad hoc research issues.

Extract 15

> Just sought the advisors' input today. I know I need to face the reality without downplaying or exaggerating the linguistic challenges posed to qualitative interviewing. Here's what I can do:
>
> 1. to allow the use of multiple languages
> 2. to allow the use of visual prompts during interviewing
> 3. to allow the use of drawing as a means of communication
> 4. to adopt an attitude of care and patience
>
> *17 December 2018*

Here, being self-aware was integral to my trajectory towards more purposeful decision-making pertaining to researching multilingually, leading to research decisions that enabled me to exercise agency in alignment with a pragmatic-transformative orientation, as I later wrote

Extract 16

> This issue [researching multilingually] could have been swept under the carpet, had I been happy with a self-denied mode of doing research. That is, I could have been a robot. I could have just standardised the entire procedure the way I did an experiment in chemistry. But no… that's not the right thing to do…
>
> *8 January 2019*

Extract 17

> Just finished some student interviews this week and I felt great that the weight of having to research multilingually evaporated! It's pleasing how the decision to affirm minority students' funds of knowledge can do to the interview process and me. Having them to share their home languages with me… I honestly look forward to more of these with them! It's such an experience!
>
> *26 March 2019*

Aside from playing a mediational role in methodological issues, reflexivity is also linked to socio-emotional issues that arose in my becoming an independent researcher and field expert. Literature on higher education generally describes the process of pursuing a doctorate — characterised by reading, writing, research, feedback, and editing — as gaining access to a community of practice (Pearson & Brew, 2002; Shacham & Od-Cohen, 2009), a multi-dimensional endeavour that involves a range of specialist, generalist, self-reliant, and team skills (Cryer, 1998). Core to this process is socio-emotional competence (see Bar-On, 2005), which refers to a state where social interactions and emotions are integrated as an indicator of human development and performance (Devis-Rozental, 2018; Devis-Rozental &

Farquharson, 2020). In my journey, handling criticism was a socio-emotional issue that was mediated by the practice of reflexivity

Extract 18

> Regardless of what happened today, I felt that I have been given an opportunity to understand areas where misunderstandings may arise. That means I may need to be extra careful in the tightness of my definitions and language use. It may seem intuitive to me as someone who knows so much about the area, but not necessarily so for people unfamiliar with the context. And honestly, the last thing I want is for this place to be an echo chamber it shall be a forum of ideas and I shall have the courage to defend my ideas.
>
> *28 May 2018*

Extract 18 was taken from the conclusion of a reflective entry after a presentation at a departmental roundtable workshop which aimed to promote an exchange between doctoral students and academics in the department. While I benefitted through receiving guidance and advice on my research proposal, I felt hurt because of a cavil from one of the participants. I was criticised for not distinguishing between Cantonese and Putonghua (i.e., generic use of Chinese as a term) in the presentation abstract and was called 'naïve' for not differentiating. After the event, I self-reflexively guided myself towards a calmer state by re-framing this as a learning experience that allowed me a taste of the confrontational style of academia.

Another socio-emotional issue that was mitigated through practising reflexivity was the emotional tension I experienced as I engaged in scholarly writing, a process that is imbued with anxiety and may prove challenging for graduate students (Lee & Boud, 2003). Between late 2017 and late 2018, I involved myself in a self-initiated writing group with two other doctoral students at the department, which entailed regular critiques of scholarly writing, discussions, and reflections. Here is an extract relating to the writing group

Extract 19

> Quite interesting, I feel that the true learning comes not from the writing itself, or the receiving of feedback, but from reflecting on the totality of the writing experience and feedback. It's the reflection that helps me understand the broader social relationships I have with the scholarly communities applied linguistics, the CAL research community, and so many more I am trying to be part of, and the emotions that [my] desire for membership can incur.
>
> *2 November 2018*

In another entry related to my experience with the writing club, I also pondered the emotional weight that the process of writing sometimes triggered in me

Extract 20

> Being someone who has been casually categorised as a non-native speaker whose English is subject to such vitriolic comments, I honestly feel a lot of unease about the very act of writing, as well as the prospect of having to share my writing. Being part of the club helps me realise my insecurities and hopefully that will help me address this…
>
> *6 February 2019*

These extracts suggest that my attempts to practise reflexivity were an intricate part of the research process which was simultaneously an educative process (see also retrospective reflexivity by Attia & Edge, 2017). Reflexive entries allowed 'higher-order self-consciousness' to be developed around methodological and socio-emotional issues (Mascolo, 2008, p.261). This self-consciousness entailed a component of appraisal and evaluation through which the self served as an inner consultant seeking ways to mitigate or resolve external and internal issues identified during the course of research, as well as gaining membership to academia.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has shed light on my personal experience of practising reflexivity as a doctoral student in AL from 2017 onwards. Specifically, through an autoethnographic lens, I presented a meta-reflection with findings suggesting that the pursuit of reflexivity as a form of 'ongoing self-awareness' in relation to internal, external, and temporal dimensions has the following three major dimensions

(i) reflexivity as an *intentional* mode of (meta)cognitive activity characterised by the directedness of consciousness to various objects of interest — including the evolving self and its embodiment — such that research actions and personal transformation were instigated in a more self-aware manner;

(ii) reflexivity as emergent from a *dynamic* process that constitutes and is constituted by a series of internal and experiential influences as the research process unfolded, a process that 'recognises mutual shaping, reciprocality and bi-directionality, and that…is context-dependent and context[-]renewing' (Mann, 2016, p.28); and

(iii) reflexivity as perceived to be *anchorable* to attitudinal qualities that align with a transformative orientation, which suggests that becoming reflexive holds potential for an ethical potentiality that acknowledges and responds to 'the political and social issues that inform the research process' (Dowling, 2008, p.747).

Overall, reflexivity was experienced as integral to my trajectory towards 'ongoing self-awareness' at the intersection of doctoral training and writing, onto-epistemological and axiological decisions, and personal and attitudinal changes. As illustrated in this chapter, instead of considering the presence of the researcher as extraneous, or relegating reflexivity to mere autobiographical and/or confessional accounts, I exercised reflexivity through journaling at different stages of knowledge production, which enabled me to come to terms with the multiple aspects of my embeddedness in the process of conducting a mixed-methods LPP study in AL: my growing sense as a researcher, my former identity as a teacher in intercultural settings, my membership to the dominant group, my positioning vis-à-vis

the research participants from minority backgrounds, awareness of my biases and prejudices formed over the years, to name but a few. In the main, being reflexively self-aware of these aspects of my embeddedness enables me to exercise agency throughout a highly indeterminate research process, while guiding me to more ethically purposeful decisions and personal and professional re-configuration.

Moving forwards, future research shall examine the mechanism and contribution of espousing a more reflexive orientation in AL research, potentially with more diversified sets of empirical data (i.e., both qualitative and quantitative data). Certainly, given my lived experiences of striving for a state of 'ongoing self-awareness' during different stages of research, as well as the general applicability of reflexivity for both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms (Elliott, 2005; Babones, 2016), I am convinced that more efforts, especially systematic research training, remain necessary to valorise the role of reflexivity as an essential craft in AL whose research landscape is being fundamentally reshaped by the wider reflexive turn happening across the social sciences.

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Venkatesh, S. A. (2013). The rise of first-person ethnography. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 54, 3 8.

Phases	Research Activities	Schedule	Reflective Practices	
			Unstructured reflections	*Semi-structured reflections*
Before fieldwork	Systematic review of CAL literature	Late 2017	✓	
	Planning	Late 2017 Mid 2018	✓	✓ (positionality)
	Piloting of instruments for 'Policy'	Late 2018	✓	
	Piloting of instruments for 'Practice'	Late 2018	✓	
	Piloting of instruments for 'Phenomenology'	Late 2018	✓	✓ (bracketing)
	Devising of quality assurance strategies	Late 2018	✓	✓ (risk mitigation)
During fieldwork	Data collection for 'Policy'	Throughout 2019	✓	
	Data collection for 'Practice'	Early 2019 Mid 2019	✓	✓ (empowerment)
	Data collection for 'Phenomenology'	Early 2019 Mid 2019	✓	✓ (empowerment)
After fieldwork	Data analysis and writing up for 'Policy'	Late 2019 until present	✓	
	Data analysis and writing up for 'Practice'	Mid 2019 Early 2020	✓	
	Data analysis and writing up for 'Phenomenology'	Mid 2020 until present	✓	

Table 1 | Summary of Reflective Practices in my Doctoral Project

Guiding Principles of Reflective Practices in the Present Study

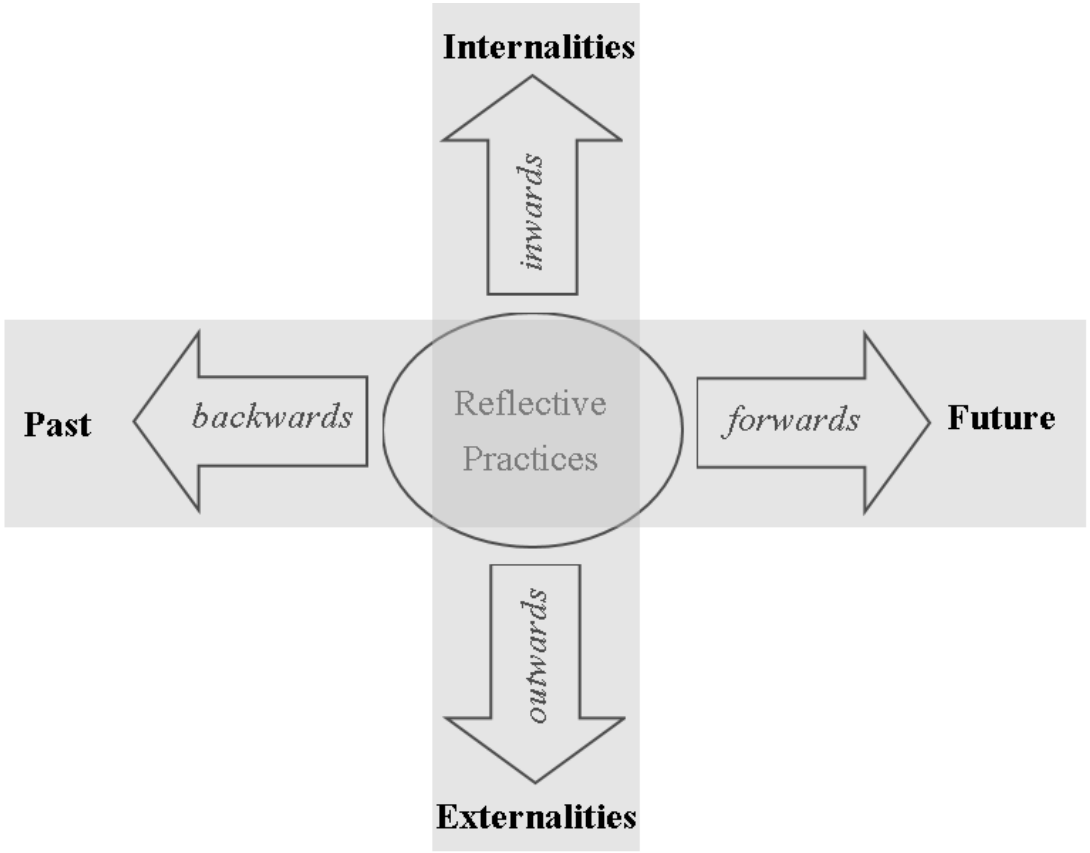


Figure 1 | Guiding Principles of Reflective Practices in my Doctoral Project

Appendix 5 CUREC approval and supporting documents

5.1. CUREC approval

Dear Samuel,

Title: Chinese Language Provision for Linguistic Minorities in Hong Kong Primary and Secondary Schools: Policy, Praxis, and Phenomenology

Ref: ED-CIA-19-003

The above application has been considered on behalf of the Departmental Research Ethics Committee (DREC) in accordance with the procedures laid down by the University for ethical approval of all research involving human participants.

I am pleased to inform you that, on the basis of the information provided to DREC, the proposed research has been judged as meeting appropriate ethical standards, and accordingly, approval has been granted.

If your research involves participants whose ability to give free and informed consent is in question (this includes those under 18 and vulnerable adults), then it is advisable to read the following NSPCC professional reporting requirements for cases of suspected abuse
http://www.nspcc.org.uk/Inform/research/questions/reporting_child_abuse_wda74908.html

Should there be any subsequent changes to the project which raise ethical issues not covered in the original application you should submit details to research.office@education.ox.ac.uk for consideration.

Good luck with your research study.
Yours sincerely,
Laura Molway
Member of DREC

5.2. Information to parents, opt-in form, and opt-out form

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www.education.ox.ac.uk

Director Professor Jo-Anne Baird

Chinese Language Provision to Lingusitic Minority Students in Hong Kong Primary and Secondary Classrooms: Policy, Praxis, and Phenomenology

Information for Parents or Guardians

My name is Samuel Tsang and I am studying at University of Oxford for a DPhil in Education. My supervisors are Professor Victoria Murphy and Dr. Heath Rose. As part of my degree's requirements, I am currently conducting a research study in your child's Chinese lessons. Your child, as an integral part of the pedagogical system, will have an important role to play in this study.

It is, therefore, necessary for me to introduce what this research study is about, what your child will be asked to do, potential risks and benefits of participation, rights, and how data obtained will be handled. Please take time to read carefully the following information. If you have any enquiries, feel free to consult the researcher.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
This study aims to garner preliminary data regarding how Chinese language education is being realized in both primary and secondary classrooms. As a holistic attempt, this study tries to explore students' learning trajectories and strategies across different settings. For this academic purpose, your child's participation is important so that more informed description is available in the context of Hong Kong.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY
Your child's school has agreed to take part in a study run by the University of Oxford looking at Chinese language provision in Hong Kong's public schools. The research has been conducted in your child's class. Your child should also have completed a short survey and a proficiency test measuring their Chinese proficiency. Your child has met the inclusion criteria for in-depth interviews and, for such purposes, your special permission is needed.

ELIGIBILITY OF THE STUDY
The study is interested primarily in students' learning experiences in formal Chinese classrooms. If you have received this pamphlet, it means your child is already eligible for this research study.

RISKS AND BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION

There are no known risks associated with the participation in this study. The benefits, however, are manifest. First of all, upon finishing the proficiency test, your child will receive academic advice from the researcher as to his or her strengths and weaknesses, which may help your child improve in learning. Also, not only does such participation provide a valuable opportunity to explore a research area in the Hong Kong context from a much-needed perspective, but it also contributes to applied research in second language acquisition. Your child's participation — hinging on your consent to that — also opens a window into whether there is ground for the HKSAR government to strengthen existing Chinese language support measures, provide more support for Chinese teachers, and design a special curriculum for your child.

HANDLING OF DATA

Before collecting any data, this project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford. All the data collected will be computerized and anonymized for future use. Your child's name and identity will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher. All data, subjected to the Data Protection Act 2018, will only be used in the captioned dissertation. There may be a possibility that some results will be published in academic journals related to language learning and teacher education, but your identity will remain strictly anonymous. Upon competition, the dissertation will be submitted to the Examinations School of the University of Oxford to be examined by my supervisors and other examiners. A copy may also be available to the Bodleian Library. If you are interested in the results of the study or would like a brief report, please contact the researcher.

YOUR RIGHTS

The decision as to whether your child participates in this study is entirely yours. If you are happy for your child to take part in this research, you do not need to anything more. **If you are HAPPY for your child to take part in interviews, please fill in the form attached and return it to your child's class teacher as soon as possible.** Once I receive an opt-in form you, your child will be invited to take part in this study. If you do wish your child to participate, I will make sure that your child is not included in any parts of this project. The decision will not affect your child's education in any way.

You and your child have the right to withdraw at any time of the study without any consequences. Your child will have the right to refuse answering any questions you find uncomfortable. If you have further concerns regarding your rights, I am more than happy to explain in greater detail.

SCHEDULING OF THE STUDY

Data collection will be from January to June in 2019. My schedule is entirely flexible and I will be in Hong Kong for the full duration of the data collection process. Should you have any questions you wish to discuss, do feel very free to contact the researcher for a face-to-face meeting.

CONTACT

Should you have any further questions or doubts, please feel free to contact:

Mr. Samuel CS Tsang (**Researcher**)
Department of Education
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford
OX2 6PY, United Kingdom
chun.tsang@education.ox.ac.uk

Prof. Victoria Murphy (**Supervisor**)
Department of Education
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford
OX2 6PY, United Kingdom
victoria.murphy@education.ox.ac.uk

Dr. Heath Rose (**Supervisor**)
Department of Education,
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford,
OX2 6PY, United Kingdom
heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk

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www.education.ox.ac.uk

Director Professor Jo-Anne Baird

PARENT/GUARDIAN OPT-IN FORM

I have read and understood the details of the above study, and have had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss the study with others. I have received satisfactory answers to my questions. I understand that the project has received ethics clearance through the University of Oxford's ethical approval process for research involving human participants, and I understand who will have access to the data, how it will be stored and what will happen to the data at the end of the study. I understand that participation is voluntary and that my child and I are free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason and without my child's education being affected in any way. I understand how to raise a concern or make a complaint.

I agree for my child to be audio recorded	Yes ☐	No ☐
I understand how audio recordings will be used in research outputs	Yes ☐	No ☐

I give permission for my child to take part in the above study.

Name of the child: _____

Name of the parent/guardian: _____

Signature of parent/guardian: _____

Date: _____

- **FOR RESEARCHER'S USE** -

I acknowledge that _____ *(name of the child)* will not be participating in the study.

Signature of the researcher: _____

Date of acknowledgement: _____

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Director Professor Jo-Anne Baird

PARENT/GUARDIAN OPT-OUT FORM

I, the undersigned, have read and understood the participant information sheet about the captioned study being conducted by Mr. Samuel C. S. Tsang, and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it. However, I **DO NOT** give permission for my child to take part in this study.

Name of the child: _____

Name of the parent/guardian: _____

Signature of parent/guardian: _____

Date: _____

- **FOR RESEARCHER'S USE** -

I acknowledge that _____ *(name of the child)* will not be participating in the study.

Signature of the researcher: _____

Date of acknowledgement: _____

5.3. Information to teacher participants and consent form

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Director Professor Jo-Anne Baird

Chinese Language Provision to Lingusitic Minority Students in Hong Kong Primary and Secondary Classrooms: Policy, Praxis, and Phenomenology

Information for Teacher Participants

My name is Samuel Tsang and I am studying at University of Oxford for a DPhil in Education. My supervisors are Professor Victoria Murphy and Dr. Heath Rose. As part of my degree's requirements, I am currently conducting a research study in Hong Kong with a focus on the teaching and learning of Chinese as an additional language for ethnic minority students in primary and secondary schools.

Thank you, first of all, for taking an interest in this research study. I would like to invite you to participate in this research study. It is, therefore, necessary for me to introduce what this research study is about, what you will be asked to do, potential risks and benefits of participation, rights, and how data obtained will be handled. Please take time to read carefully the following information. If you have any enquiries, feel free to consult the researcher.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
This study aims to garner preliminary data regarding how Chinese language education is being realized in both primary and secondary classrooms. As a holistic attempt, this study tries to explore pedagogical practices and students' learning strategies in different grade levels. For this academic purpose, your participation is important so that more informed description is available in the context of Hong Kong.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY
This study primarily involves Chinese language teachers in both primary and secondary settings. Participation in this study does not require taxing time commitment because it champions a naturalistic-observational approach. That means your lessons will be observed, videotaped and audiotaped unobtrusively for a period of time. Learning tasks will also be collected for textual analysis. Furthermore, you will be invited to share more about your experiences in teaching Chinese-as-an-additional language in an interview.

ELIGIBILITY OF THE STUDY
The study is interested primarily in your teaching experiences in formal Chinese classrooms. Teachers of Chinese should possess native-like proficiency in Chinese and have received relevant teacher training in universities. You should also be a Registered Teacher of the HKSAR Government. Your years of experience do not matter since this study is interested in local teachers of Chinese, both experienced and novice.

RISKS AND BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION

There are no known risks associated with the participation in this study. The benefits, however, are manifest. First of all, your students will receive a free proficiency test to diagnose their areas of strengths and weaknesses, which feeds constructively back to your pedagogical routine. Also, not only does such participation provide a valuable opportunity to explore a research area in the Hong Kong context from a much-needed perspective, but it also contributes to applied research in second language acquisition. Your participation shall open a window into whether there is ground for the HKSAR government to strengthen existing Chinese language support measures, provide more support for Chinese teachers, and design a special curriculum for your students.

HANDLING OF DATA

Before collecting any data, this project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through the Central University Research Ethics Committee of the University of Oxford. All the data collected will be computerized and anonymized for future use. Your name and identity will be kept strictly confidential and available only to the researcher. All data, subjected to the Data Protection Act 2018, will only be used in the captioned dissertation. There may be a possibility that some results will be published in academic journals related to language learning and teacher education, but your identity will remain strictly anonymous. Upon competition, the dissertation will be submitted to the Examinations School of the University of Oxford to be examined by my supervisors and other examiners. A copy may also be available to the Bodleian Library. If you are interested in the results of the study or would like a brief report, please contact the researcher.

YOUR RIGHTS

The decision as to whether you participate in this study is entirely yours. You have the right to withdraw at any time of the study without any consequences. Your will have the right to refuse answering any questions you find uncomfortable. If you have further concerns regarding your rights, I am more than happy to explain in greater detail.

SCHEDULING OF THE STUDY

Data collection will be from January to June in 2019. My schedule is entirely flexible and I will be in Hong Kong for the full duration of the data collection process. Should you have any questions you wish to discuss, do feel very free to contact the researcher for a face-to-face meeting.

CONTACT

Should you have any further questions or doubts, please feel free to contact:

Mr. Samuel CS Tsang (**Researcher**)
Department of Education
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford
OX2 6PY, United Kingdom
chun.tsang@education.ox.ac.uk

Prof. Victoria Murphy (**Supervisor**)
Department of Education
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victoria.murphy@education.ox.ac.uk

Dr. Heath Rose (**Supervisor**)
Department of Education,
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford,
OX2 6PY, United Kingdom
heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk

I sincerely hope that you will partake in this meaningful project whose findings will provide necessary insights in the challenges facing Chinese language teachers. If you intend to participate, I would appreciate it if you can complete the attached consent form and return it to me.

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www.education.ox.ac.uk

Director Professor Jo-Anne Baird

Chinese Language Provision to Lingusitic Minority Students in Hong Kong Primary and Secondary Classrooms: Policy, Praxis, and Phenomenology

TEACHER CONSENT FORM

I, the undersigned, have read and understood the participant information sheet about the captioned study and have had the opportunity to ask questions and get satisfactory answers about the study. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study without any consequences at any point of the research. I also understand who will have access to information provided and what will happen to the data at the end of the study. I am aware that this study has been reviewed by and received ethics clearance through the University of Oxford Research Ethics Committee. If need be, I can find out more about this research study by contacting the researcher (chun.tsang@education.ox.ac.uk) or his supervisors at the department Professor Victoria Murphy (victoria.murphy@education.ox.ac.uk) and Dr. Heath Rose (heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk).

Fully informed of my rights, I agree to participate in the captioned study, carried out by Samuel C. S. Tsang, a full-time DPhil student at the Department of Education, the University of Oxford.

Name of the teacher: _____

Signature of the teacher: _____

Date: _____

- **FOR RESEARCHER'S USE** -

I acknowledge that _____ *(name of the teacher)* will be participating in the study.

Signature of the researcher: _____

Date of acknowledgement: _____

5.4. Information to principals and students

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www.education.ox.ac.uk

Director Professor Jo-Anne Baird

Dear Principal,

I am writing to inform you of a research project to be carried out in the Chinese lessons of (**teacher concerned**) for Form (**number**) students. This research project, with the aim of garnering preliminary data regarding how Chinese language subject teachers conduct lessons in primary and secondary settings, is an ethically sound research study approved by the Central Ethics Committee, the University of Oxford. Given the proposed study champions an ecological approach, the researcher's presence will be unobtrusive and any disturbance to students and their classroom activities will be kept to a minimum.

Furthermore, I will administer a survey and a battery of proficiency tests to students in the chosen class, which will provide necessary information on the learners. If need be and upon participants' consent, I will invite the teacher and students for follow-up interviews. Data collection will take place from January to June in 2019. My schedule is entirely flexible and I will be in Hong Kong for the entirety of the data collection process. Interviews and observations will be carried out at the teacher's convenience. Therefore, normal school routines will not be disturbed. Furthermore, any data collected will only be used in my doctorate dissertation with confidentiality and anonymity strictly guaranteed.

If you have any questions or doubts regarding the research project, please feel free to contact me (email: samuel.tsang@education.ox.ac.uk) for further information. Please also find attached samples of information sheets for students and parents.

Thank you very much for your understanding and attention.

Yours sincerely,

Samuel Tsang

Dear Students,

My name is Samuel, a research student from Oxford University. In order to understand better about your experiences in learning Chinese, I am here to observe your Chinese lessons. But, don't worry, I will sit quietly at the back of the classroom and will not disturb or involve myself in any of the classroom activities.

In order to help you with Chinese learning, I will also give you a survey which takes no more than 20 minutes and a simple test which you don't need to revise for (just do it as well as you can). After these, I hope that I will give you some advice to help you learn Chinese better and better!

If you or your parents have any questions about what I'm doing, please feel free to contact me by talking to your teacher!

Thank you for reading this. I hope we will have a wonderful time together!

Yours sincerely,
Samuel Tsang



Appendix 6 Risk assessment form

6.1. Departmental approval

Subject: Fieldwork Form
Date: Monday, 5 November 2018 at 10:36:23 AM Greenwich Mean Time
From: Jackie Bridges
To: Chun Tsang
CC: Heath Rose, Victoria Murphy
Attachments: image001.png

Dear Chun Sum Tsang

Your risk assessment for your fieldwork to Hong Kong has been approved by the department. Action is now required from you to complete the on-line travel Insurance application. Please note you will need to upload a copy of your risk assessment to the insurance data base.

You now are required to apply for University travel Insurance for this travel, please follow this link and make an application and await conformation your insurance is approved.
Please apply here http://www.admin.ox.ac.uk/finance/insurance/travel/

While you are away please:

Keep a copy of your risk assessment to hand in case you need to refer to it;
Check in regularly with your supervisor/line manager and update your supervisor/line manager and myself on any changes to your itinerary, contact details or any developments which might affect your health, safety or welfare while you are away. Please discuss with your supervisor check-in arrangements for any periods they are unavailable;
If there is a major incident while you are away please also contact your supervisor to let us know you are OK or whether you need any further support or assistance* . Please also remember that you can get consular assistance from your own government if necessary.

I also recommend you sign up via the FCO at https://www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice/email-signup for email updates regarding the country you will be visiting.

We will be in contact regarding Insurance application as soon as possible, once you have approval please ensure you have to hand your policy number and contact details when traveling.

Best wishes

Louise Mireh
Safety Officer

Louise Mireh- Health and Safety Officer
University of Oxford | Department of Education
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford. OX2 6PY
☎: 01865 6-11033
✉: louise.mireh@education.ox.ac.uk
Web: www.education.ox.ac.uk
Click here to find us on the interactive map

6.2. Risk assessment form

Fieldwork Safety, Risk Assessment and Insurance

- This **entire** form **must** be completed by **all** students intending to carry out fieldwork.
- The Head of Department or their representative is required to approve all overseas fieldwork.
- It is mandatory to submit this form to the Higher Degrees Office **at least five weeks** in advance of carrying out your research.
- No travel should be booked until approval has been obtained by your supervisor and the Head of Department (or their representative).
- Please note that even if you're travelling to your home country on fieldwork, it still falls under university business and **must** be treated with equal consideration.
- **All signatures must be original.**

- Carefully consider your travel plans, the nature of activity with which you will be engaged and its location. Consider any associated risks or anyone else's personal safety and health. Consider the likelihood of any risks occurring and the severity of outcome if they were to occur. **Discuss these risks with your supervisor.**
- Check the FCO Website to see if the country/countries to which you are travelling have any advice/warnings posted. And sign up to the FCO email alert for updates while you are travelling.
- **Please note: if the FCO advises AGAINST all or all but essential travel to the country/countries you are visiting you must contact Louise Mireh immediately and be prepared to complete a full statement of intent and high risk FCO travel assessment.**

1. General information

First name Chun Sum	**Surname** Tsang
Nationality [redacted]	**Supervisor** Dr. Heath Rose & Prof. Victoria Murphy
eldwork:	
Contact email prior to fieldwork samuel.tsang@sant.ox.ac.uk	[redacted] **ber prior to fieldwork**
Please note: it is vital that we are able to contact you while you are on fieldwork in case of an emergency. Please make sure the contact details below are up-to-date.	
[redacted]	**ber while on fieldwork**

2. Itinerary

Where is the fieldwork taking place?	Primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong

What first aid training have you received or what first aid is available to you?	I was trained at St John Ambulance UK in 2018.
Will you need to take any first aid provisions?	No
If you're visiting an area that is fairly isolated, what access do you have to emergency services and medical help? If relevant, please also provide details of emergency plans in place (e.g. for evacuation from the research area, or if there is an injury to a worker in a small team)? N/A	

4. Training and or experience

Have you received any training for your overseas travel? Please give details. No	Have you experience in similar work? Please give details. No
Training Available from: https://www.admin.ox.ac.uk/safety/safetytraining/safetytraining/course/?crsID=104	

5. Supervision

- A fieldworker will still be under supervision with regards to health and safety, even though the supervisor may not be present.
- Please provide details of your supervisor, or other nominated person, who you will contact on a regular basis to ensure your safety.
- The nominated person should be provided with the contact details of a person in the Department, in case of emergency etc. Specify contact period times (e.g. daily/weekly).
- **Please note Departmental policy which specifies that the contact period or a student out on fieldwork cannot be less than one month.**

Name Dr. Heath Rose	**Contact Period (when and how often you will contact your supervisor)** I will contact my supervisor fortnightly
Address Norham Gardens, Oxford	**Telephone** n/a
Email heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk	
How will contact be made? You must ensure that this is possible (e.g. if reliance is put on a mobile phone, you must ensure there is adequate signal): Through emails or skype	

6. Risk Assessment

- A risk assessment must be carried out in order to comply with University Safety Policy. You will need to read UPS S3/07 Overseas Travel and UPS S5/07 Safety in Fieldwork.
- Please remember to consider not only possible risks to your own health and safety, but also the effect that your work may have on other people or the environment.
- **The competency of external agencies hosting a fieldworker must be considered. Arrangements and responsibilities for the fieldwork must be agreed and documented as part of the risk assessment.**

Hazard identified (please specify) (see checklists in appendix to UPS S5/07)	**Risk(s) involved and control measures to be put in place to minimise risk**	**Estimated level of risk**
Safety and Security (e.g. lone work, first aid, violence, crime, travel, handling cash, transport)	I will travel alone as it's my own project but I will try to be vigilant and report any signs of suspicion and crime (while ensuring my own safety).	Low Risk
Physical health and natural disasters (e.g. extreme weather, fitness and medical risks)	I don't foresee any major health or natural disaster-related risks. In case of any, I will stay extra vigilant and exert common sense where appropriate.	Low Risk
Equipment (will you be taking a laptop, mobile, cash, internet access etc? These should be specified in your insurance form)	I will be taking a laptop, mobile, and some cash.	Low Risk
Environmental and surroundings (e.g. pollution, waste, language barriers, local culture and awareness of this)	Air pollution is a concern but it is bearable.	Low Risk
Other and entry requirements	I can enter Hong Kong visa-free. Nothing else of note.	Low Risk

Appendix 7 Skills review and training needs analysis



Training Needs Analysis (TNA): Skills Audit and Development Plan

INSTRUCTIONS AND GUIDANCE

***For Research Students*:**

- Doing a skills audit allows you to evaluate your existing research methods expertise and research skills,
- It also helps you and your supervisor to identify your researcher development needs and make a plan for the year ahead.
- To find out what is available beyond your department, start at www.socsci.ox.ac.uk/training.
- Arrange a meeting to discuss your skills audit with your supervisor.
- Upload your completed skills audit and training plan to the Graduate Supervision System (GSS) once agreed with your supervisor.

***For Supervisor*:**

- Dedicate time to reviewing your student's skills audit and priorities with them.
- Help them identify a realistic set of targets for this year. Agree some deadlines.
- Consider training and resources available through the department, www.socsci.ox.ac.uk/training, and online.
- Write down your comments to summarise any advice, guidance, and suggested next steps.
- Keep a copy of this form for your own records.

Name:	Samuel C. S. TSANG	Supervisor(s):	Dr. Heath Rose Prof. Victoria Murphy
Department:	Department of Education		
Funder, if applicable:	Swire Charitable Foundation		
Pathway, if applicable (e.g. Area Studies, Migration, Politics):	Applied Linguistics	Current programme of study:	DPhil in Education

PREVIOUS TRAINING AND WORK EXPERIENCE

List your previous research methods training and professional research experience relevant to your current research plans and topic of study.

- Undergraduate-level research methodology courses on basic to intermediate qualitative and quantitative designs
- Master's level research methodology courses on intermediate to advanced qualitative and quantitative studies
- An introduction to Corpus Linguistics (at Lancaster University)
- Courses from IT Services (Statistics, Data Visualization Techniques)

1. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS:

Assess your competence in the core and subject-specific research skills that you will need for your research. In particular, assess your confidence/expertise in i) principles of research design, ii) principles of data collection, iii) principles of data analysis and iv) specific disciplinary methods and techniques of advanced data analysis as defined by your field (eg software for data analysis)	
Foreseeable research needs *1) Knowledge of advanced quantitative designs and analyses* *2) Knowledge of advanced qualitative designs and analyses* *3) Corpus management skills (tagging and coding)* 4) *Use of NVivo*	List your priorities for training in research design and methods training over the coming year, if these are not covered by your department's training provision. Are there specific skills you think you will need help with, or that you would like to develop further?

2. DATA MANAGEMENT

Assess your competence and training in preparing and checking data, coding data and safe data storage.	Will you need training in data management?
I have experience managing research projects and data management. I am particularly confident in this regard. Yet, systematic retrieval of data is a skill I still need to develop.	*No, yet more reading on specified areas of data management will help.*

3. FIELDWORK

Assess your competence in carrying out fieldwork: have you received training on safety in fieldwork and carrying out a risk assessment?	What safety issues will your fieldwork raise? What skills or training might you need?
I've already carried out a risk assessment. I do not have training on safety in fieldwork this year because I used to be a master's student at the department and had attended relevant sessions before. The site for fieldwork is my home city where I have worked and lived all my life. Such familiarity with the milieu, societal and professional, helps me with my fieldwork.	***Skills that may be necessary:*** *1) Scheduling techniques* *2) Time management*

4. BIBLIOGRAPHIC AND COMPUTING SKILLS:

Assess your research and technical skills: including your confidence in using bibliographic tools, writing literature reviews, and web-based research	Should you seek to improve your skills in this area over the year(s) ahead?
I have tried using bibliographic tools but I'm not satisfied with its accuracy and cumbersome ways. I have decided to stick to the traditional methods of keeping reading using files and folders and focused more on the creation of a system where literature can be easily retrieved, managed, curated, and updated.	*I do not think I need any more skills in this area over the years ahead.*

5. TEACHING:

What teaching experience, if any, have you gained in lecturing, seminar teaching, tutorials etc. Have you received any training or preparation in order to teach?	What teaching and supervisory experience (and training) would be beneficial?
I have not received any training on tertiary teaching and I am open to the opportunities of teaching at such a level, should the opportunities arise. As of now, I would like to concentrate all my attention on developing the craft for research and data analysis, and publishing my master's dissertation.	*Any teaching and supervisory experience will be beneficial.*

6. LANGUAGE SKILLS

Assess your language skills if other languages are needed for research	What language training might you need?
Language skills for the relevant study have been assessed.	*No. Since I am a native speaker of Chinese (Cantonese & Mandarin) and my research is on this language, I do not foresee that any more language training may be beneficial. Of course, my study is related to cultural and linguistic diverse pupils who speak a variety of South Asian languages. I would love to know more about such languages when the opportunities present themselves.*

7. ENGAGEMENT, KNOWLEDGE EXCHANGE AND IMPACT

What experience have you had of identifying the non-academic benefits of your research. Have you developed collaboration and partnership skills, entrepreneurship and enterprise skills, policy writing skills, or skills in public engagement and 'knowledge exchange' ?	Think about ways your research could contribute to society or influence work being done outside of academia. What skills or training might you need?
As of now, I do not profess to have much experience of reaping the non-academic benefits of my research, although I must say there are many evident benefits to engage more the non-academic sector. I have plans in mind and I would like to implement some of them when I have more time in hand. Such plans include, but are not limited to, writing about my research plans in plain language to mass media, engaging with NGOs who share my research interests, and disseminating my research with policy-related personnel. In sum, knowledge exchange is always something on my mind and I would like to deepen my engagement in it when I have concrete findings to 'exchange'.	***Skills that may be necessary:*** *1) Presentation skills* *2) Interpersonal skills* *3) Plain writing skills* *4) Marketing skills (on social media)*

8. WRITING AND PUBLICATIONS:

Assess your writing skills: including your academic writing skills, conference and workshop presentation skills. List any report writing, policy briefs, academic publishing, blogging, book reviewing, funding proposals, peer reviewing and journal editing experience.	Alongside your dissertation, what other publication and writing projects do you plan to pursue? What training or support would help you do so?
That is definitely one of the main goals of mine in the academia. I want to prove to the wider academic audience that my research is rigorous and it can be held up to the standards expected of academic research. I do believe I have acceptable writing skills necessary for publication yet other 'higher-order' skills remain necessary for me to be a successful published researcher. That is why I have dabbled in book reviewing and plain language commentaries, which will help me develop a stronger sense of my academic identity, which will in turn help with publishing academically.	*I am pursuing a number of side projects and trying to publish some of the action research studies done in the past.*

9. COMMUNICATION AND NETWORKING SKILLS

Assess your academic writing skills, conference presentation experience and skills, web writing skills, and other non-academic writing skills relevant to your research? Please also evaluate your public engagement skills	What opportunities should you seek in order to develop your confidence and communication skills? What training might you need to do so?
Refer to Part 7.	*I will seek every opportunity to develop my confidence and communication skills.*

10. RESEARCH LEADERSHIP & PROJECT PLANNING

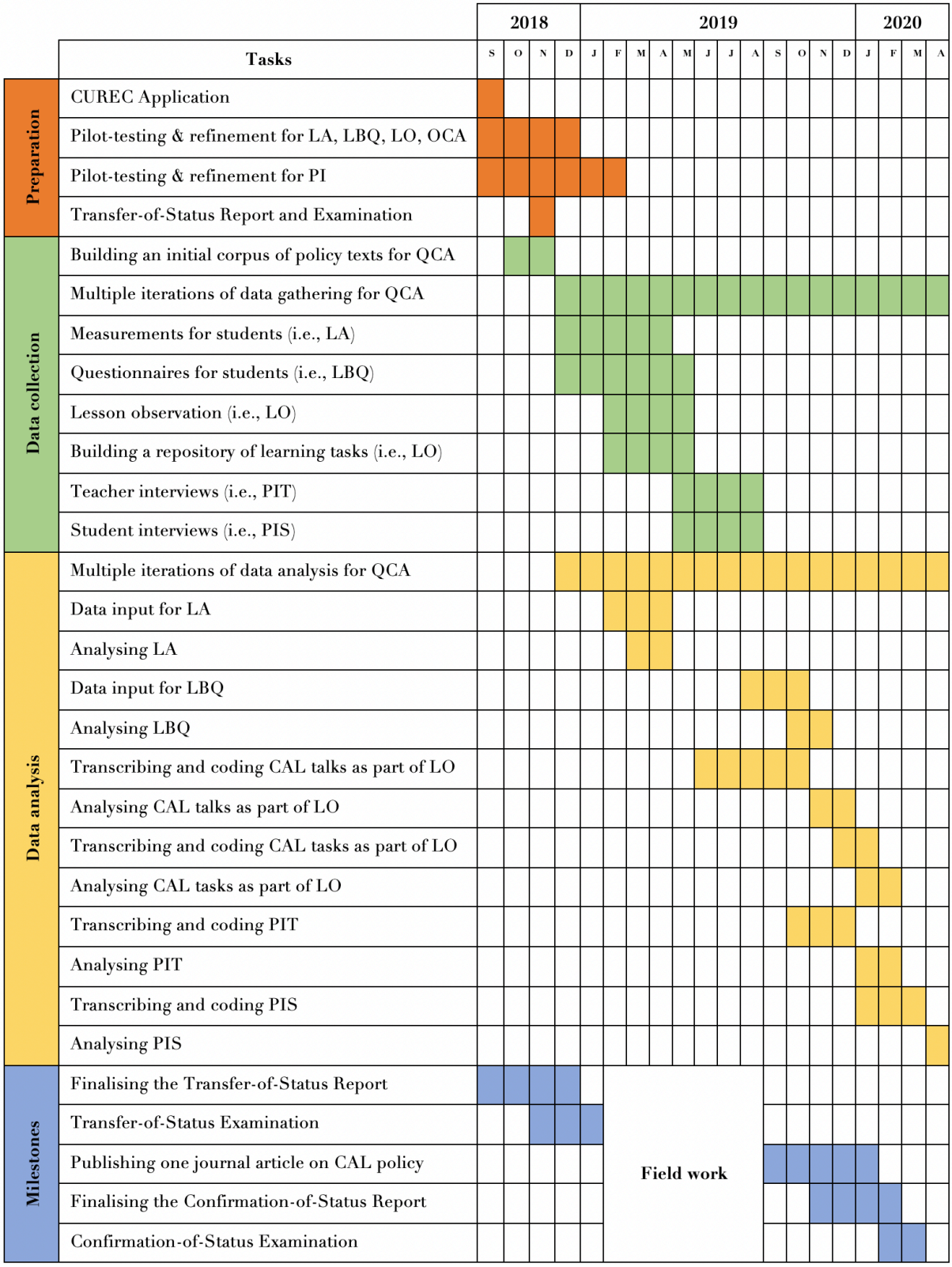
Assess your expertise and training in project management, in finding research funding, in working in research collaborations and other forms of academic networking.	What opportunities do you plan to gain in these areas during this year and throughout your DPhil? Eg applying for grants, running events, editing journals. Do you have ideas for new research initiatives or collaborations? What skills or training might you need?
I have a number of side projects being pursued with high school teachers and other practitioners. That has been a great source of training to be an independent researcher who can manage projects and, at the same time, work with other researchers.	*I would like to apply for some grants for doctoral students to subsidize some of the side projects I have in mind. I do have research initiatives and collaborations.*

11. PERSONAL AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

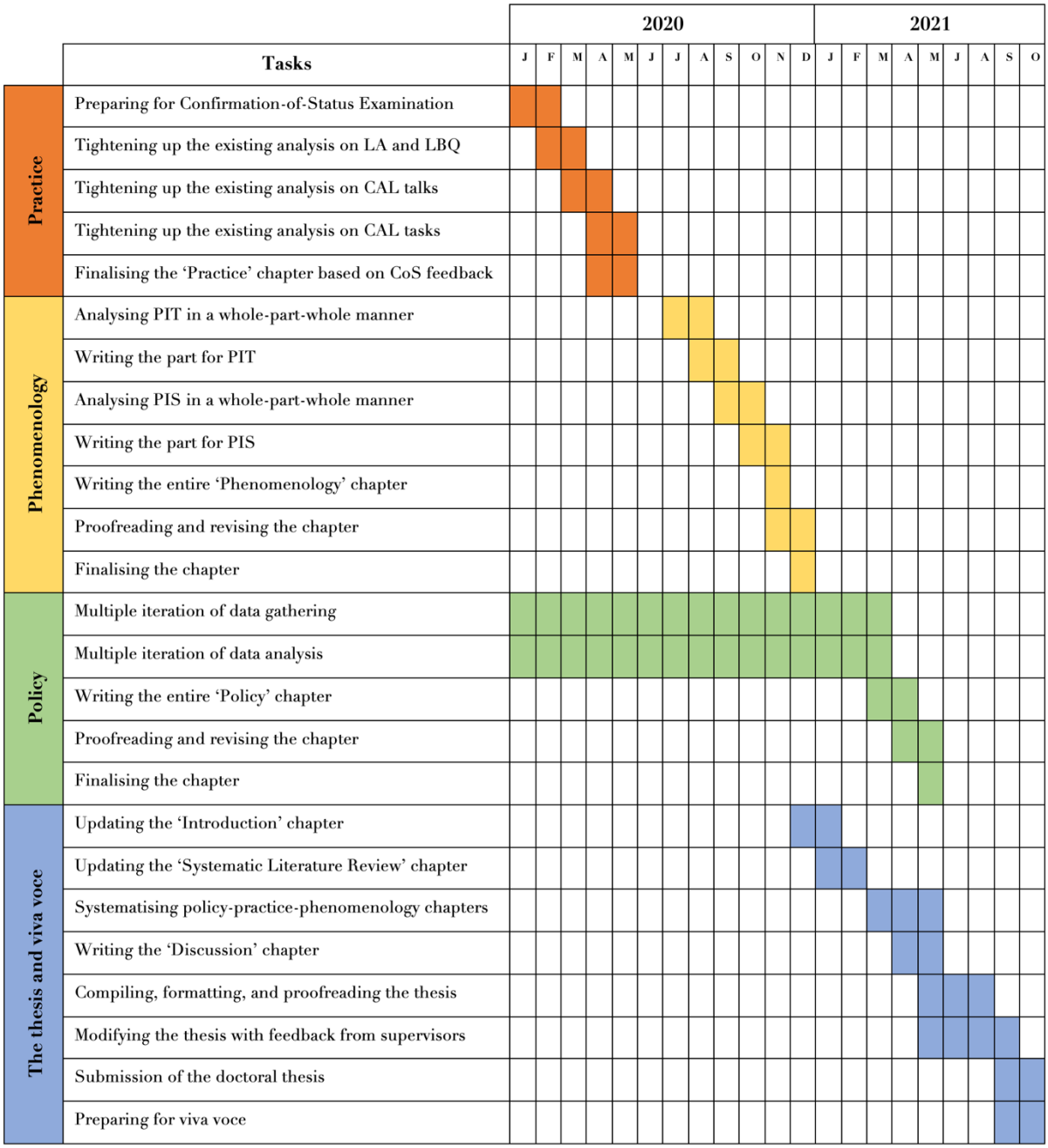
Indicate your engagement in career planning and employability. Have you any post-doctoral career plans?	Are there areas of personal effectiveness you would like to develop? What are these and how best can you pursue this?
I would like to have an academic career with a focus on practice-oriented research that will eventually have an impact on policy refinement and formulation. I will also review my career planning reflexively on an annual basis so as to sensitise myself to areas of improvement.	*There are many areas of personal effectiveness I need to develop. Yet, as of now, I think time management and personal management skills are a top priority because I'm relatively new to the academia and may not know much about how things can be more effectively pursued. I definitely think access to supervisions and college advisors is a good means of helping me acquire necessary skills in these areas.*

Appendix 8 Gantt charts

Gantt Chart for the 2018/2019 and 2019/2020 academic years



Gantt Chart for the 2020/21 academic year



Appendix 9 Supplements to the 'Policy' domain

9.1. The full list of policy documents sampled

Data Management				**Details of the Policy Documents (n=173)**		
No.	*Iteration*	*Relevance**	*Source*	*Date** of the Document*	*Nature of the Document*	*Title/Description of the Document*
1.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2001	**E**	Head 40 Government Secretariat: Education Department (Estimate 2001–02)
2.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2002	**E**	Head 40 Government Secretariat: Education Department (Estimate 2002–03)
3.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2003	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education and Manpower Bureau (Estimate 2003–04)
4.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2004	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education and Manpower Bureau (Estimate 2004–05)
5.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	Jun 2004	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 21 June 2004, entitled 'Secondary School Places Allocation Arrangement for Children of Ethnic Minorities', LC Paper No. CB(2)2786/03-04(02).
6.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	21 Jun 2004	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 21 June 2004, LC Paper No. CB(2)3324/03-04.
7.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2005	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education and Manpower Bureau (Estimate 2005–06)
8.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	Jul 2005	**B/P/R**	An information note for a Panel on Education meeting on 9 January 2006, entitled 'Education Support for Ethnic Minority Children', LC Paper No. CB(2)2305/04-05(01).

9.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	23 Nov 2005	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 23 November 2005, Education of students of ethnic minorities, pp. 2263 2264.
10.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	Dec 2005	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 9 January 2006, entitled 'Education for Children of Ethnic Minorities', LC Paper No. CB(2)779/05-06(01).
11.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2006	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education and Manpower Bureau (Estimate 2006 07)
12.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Jan 2005	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 9 January 2006, entitled 'Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 9 January 2006 Provision of Education to Children of Ethnic Minorities', LC Paper No. CB(2)779/05-06(02).
13.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	9 Jan 2005	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 9 January 2006, LC Paper No. CB(2)1044/05-06.
14.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	25 Mar 2006	**L**	Administration's response to the requests of the Panel at meeting on 9 January 2006, LC Paper No. CB(2)1536/05-06(01).
15.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	24 May 2006	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 24 May 2006, Education for non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 7736 7739.
16.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	Jul 2006	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 10 July 2006, entitled 'Education for Children of Ethnic Minorities', LC Paper No. CB(2)2642/05-06(04).

17.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	7 Jul 2006	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 10 July 2006, entitled 'Updated Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 10 July 2006 Provision of Education to Children of Ethnic Minorities', LC Paper No. CB(2)2642/05-06(05).
18.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	10 Jul 2006	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 10 July 2006, LC Paper No. CB(2)2959/05-06.
19.	4	C	legco.gov.hk	12 Jul 2006	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 12 July 2006, Ethnic minority students taking Chinese Language examination, pp. 9463 9473
20.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2007	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education and Manpower Bureau (Estimate 2007 08)
21.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	Jan 2007	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 8 January 2007, entitled 'Providing Non-Chinese Speaking Students with an Appropriate Chinese Language Curriculum', LC Paper No. CB(2)757/06-07(02).
22.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	4 Jan 2007	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 8 January 2007, entitled 'Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 8 January 2007 Provision of an Alternative Chinese Language Curriculum for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)757/06-07(03).

23.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	8 Jan 2007	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 8 January 2007, LC Paper No. CB(2)1029/06-07.
24.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	11 Jul 2007	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 11 July 2007, A motion moved by Hon Fred LI on "Rights and interests of ethnic minorities" was passed, pp. 10482 10556.
25.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	18 Oct 2007	**L**	Minutes of a special Panel on Education meeting held on 18 October 2007 that discussed 'Education for Children of Ethnic Minorities' for Briefing by the Secretary for Education on the Chief Executive's Policy Address 2007-2008, LC Paper No. CB(2)396/07-08.
26.	1	C	edb.gov.hk	2008	**Cu**	Chinese Language Education Key Learning Area Supplementary Guide to the Chinese Language Curriculum for Non-Chinese Speaking Students
27.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2008	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2008 09)
28.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	9 Jan 2008	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 12 July 2006, Education and Vocational Training for the Ethnic Minorities, pp. 3365 3367.
29.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	Feb 2008	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 29 February 2008, entitled 'Progress of Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students including Ethnic Minorities', LC Paper No. CB(2)1180/07-08(05).

30.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	20 Feb 2008	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 20 February 2008, Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 4656 4660.
31.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	29 Feb 2008	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 29 February 2008, entitled 'Updated Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 29 February 2008 Learning of the Chinese Language by Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)1180/07-08(06).
32.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	29 Feb 2008	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 29 February 2008, LC Paper No. CB(2)1398/07-08.
33.	5	C	334.edb. hkedcity.net	Mar 2008	**Pub**	New Academic Structure Useful Tips for Parents (Vol. 4)
34.	5	S	legco.gov.hk	Mar 2008	**O**	Submission from Hong Kong Unison Limited on the Consultation Paper on Developing a Supplementary Guide to the Chinese Language Curriculum for Non-Chinese Speaking Students, LC Paper No. CB(2)1450/07-08(01).
35.	5	S	legco.gov.hk	7 May 2008	**O**	Submission from Growing Together concerning the provision of education for non-Chinese speaking children with special educational needs in Hong Kong, LC Paper No. CB(2)1971/07-08(01).
36.	5	C	legco.gov.hk	20 May 2008	**B/P/R**	Administration's response to the submission from Hong Kong Unison Limited, LC Paper No. CB(2)2025/07-08(01).

37.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	Jun 2008	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 June 2008, entitled 'Progress of Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students including Ethnic Minority Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)2164/07-08(02).
38.	6	S	legco.gov.hk	Jun 2008	**O**	Further submission from Growing Together concerning the provision of education for non-Chinese speaking children with special educational needs in Hong Kong, LC Paper No. CB(2)2244/07-08(01).
39.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	4 Jun 2008	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 June 2008, entitled 'Updated Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 12 June 2008 Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)2164/07-08(03).
40.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	12 Jun 2008	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting On 12 June 2008, LC Paper No. CB(2)2759/07-08.
41.	6	C	edb.gov.hk	14 Nov 2008	**C**	EDB Circular No. 25/2008 Race Discrimination Ordinance
42.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	20 Nov 2008	**B/P/R**	Executive Summary of the Report on the Study on Tracking the Adaptation and Development of Non-Chinese Speaking Children in Mainstream Schools, LC Paper No. CB(2)319/08-09(01).
43.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	3 Dec 2008	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 3 December 2008, Support for Schools Admitting Non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 2527 2525.
44.	6	S	legco.gov.hk	8 Dec 2008	**O**	Submission from Hong Kong Unison Limited on the Study on Tracking the Adaptation and

						Development of non-Chinese Speaking Children in Mainstream Schools, LC Paper No. CB(2)579/08-09(08).
45.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	17 Dec 2008	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 17 December 2008, Non-Chinese Speaking Students with Special Educational Needs, pp. 3216 3218.
46.	3	C	legco.gov.hk	2009	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2009 10)
47.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	Jan 2009	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 January 2009, entitled 'Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)579/08-09(06).
48.	6	S	legco.gov.hk	5 Jan 2009	**O**	Submission from Hong Kong Unison Limited on "Education for non-Chinese speaking students", LC Paper No. CB(2)579/08-09(09)
49.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	7 Jan 2009	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 January 2009, entitled 'Updated Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 12 January 2009 Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)579/08-09(07).
50.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	12 Jan 2009	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 12 January 2009, LC Paper No. CB(2)769/08-09.
51.	7	C	edb.gov.hk	18 Nov 2009	**C**	EDB Circular No. 23/2009 Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students: Reduction of Examination Fee Level of the General

						Certificate of Secondary Education (Chinese) Examination
52.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2010	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2010 11)
53.	7	C	edb.gov.hk	1 Jun 2010	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 97/2010 Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students: General Certificate of Secondary Education (Chinese) Examination School-based Assessment in 2011
54.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2011	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2011 12)
55.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	Mar 2011	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 14 March 2011, entitled 'Progress of Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)1213/10-11(01).
56.	12	S	eoc.org.hk	Mar 2011	**O**	Education for All: Report on the Working Group on Education for Ethnic Minorities
57.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	10 Mar 2011	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 14 March 2011, entitled 'Updated Background Brief Prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 14 March 2011 Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)1213/10-11(02).
58.	6	S	legco.gov.hk	10 Mar 2011	**O**	Submission from Hong Kong Unison Limited dated 10 March 2011 concerning support measures for non-Chinese speaking students, LC Paper No. CB(2)1258/10-11(01).

59.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	14 Mar 2011	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 14 March 2011, LC Paper No. CB(2)1655/10-11.
60.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	30 May 2011	**B/P/R**	The Administration was requested to provide written information on the employment statistics of non-Chinese speaking graduates of the Vocational Training Council, LC Paper No. CB(2)1927/10-11(01).
61.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Jul 2011	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 6 July 2011, Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 13501 13504.
62.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	2 Nov 2011	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 6 November 2011, Education for Ethnic Minority Children, pp. 1465 1469.
63.	6	C	legco.gov.hk	16 Nov 2011	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 16 November 2011, Educational Support for Ethnic Minority Students, pp. 2067 2072.
64.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Dec 2011	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 December 2011, entitled 'Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(2)486/11-12(07).
65.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Dec 2011	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 December 2011, entitled 'Updated Background Brief Prepared by the Legislative Council Secretariat for the Meeting on 12 December 2011', LC Paper No. CB(2)486/11-12(08).
66.	7	S	legco.gov.hk	9 Dec 2011	**O**	Submission from the Equal Opportunities Commission concerning education for ethnic minorities children, LC Paper No. CB(2)552/11-12(01).

67.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	12 Dec 2011	**B/P/R**	The Administration was requested to provide (a) relevant statistics on the educational attainments and the Chinese language competency of non-Chinese speaking ("NCS") students, including (i) the respective numbers and percentages of NCS students who had achieved basic competency in Chinese Language at Primary three and six levels in the Territory-wide System Assessment Test; (ii) the number and percentage of Secondary Five NCS students who had taken the Chinese Language paper in the 2010 Hong Kong Certificate Education Examination and the grades they obtained; (b) information on the provision of support to NCS students with special educational needs; and (c) a written response to the views expressed by members and in the written submissions provided for the meeting. LC Paper No. CB(2)773/11-12(01).
68.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	12 Dec 2011	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 12 December 2011, LC Paper No. CB(2)965/11-12.
69.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	14 Dec 2011	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 14 December 2011, Special Learning Needs of Ethnic Minority School Children, pp. 3519 3522.
70.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2012	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2012 13)
71.	13	S	eoc.org.hk	2012	**O**	Study on Racial Encounters and Discrimination Experienced by South Asians

72.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	8 Feb 2012	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 8 February 2012, a motion on "Reviewing the Education Policy for Ethnic Minority Students" was moved by Hon Abraham SHEK for debate in the Council, and was passed, pp. 5519 – 5533.
73.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	28 Mar 2012	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 28 March 2012, Education Support for Ethnic Minority Students, pp. 7566 – 7570.
74.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	May 2012	**B/P/R**	Progress Report on the Motion on "Reviewing the education policy for ethnic minority students" at the Legislative Council meeting held on 8 and 9 February 2012
75.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	9 May 2012	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 9 May 2012, Chinese Learning Support for Ethnic Minority Children, pp. 9273 – 9278.
76.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	Nov 2012	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 November 2012, entitled 'Extension of Examination Fee Remission Scheme for Needy Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)111/12-13(03).
77.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Nov 2012	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 12 November 2012, entitled 'Background Brief on the Proposal to Extend the Examination Fee Remission Scheme for Needy Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)111/12-13(04).
78.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	12 Nov 2012	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 12 November 2012, LC Paper No. CB(4)275/12-13.

79.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	14 Nov 2012	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 14 November 2012, Support for ethnic minority children and young people, pp. 1882 1887.
80.	17	S	censtatd.gov.hk	Dec 2012	**O**	2011 Population Census Thematic Report: Ethnic Minorities
81.	7	C	edb.gov.hk	7 Dec 2012	**C**	EDB Circular No. 19/2012 Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students: Expanded Examination Subsidy
82.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2013	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2013 14)
83.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	Jul 2013	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 9 July 2012, entitled 'Progress on Enhancing the Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)852/12-13(05).
84.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	3 Jul 2013	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 9 July 2013, entitled 'Background Brief on Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)852/12-13(06).
85.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	9 Jul 2013	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 9 July 2013, LC Paper No. CB(4)31/13-14.
86.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	9 Jul 2013	**L**	Motion passed under the agenda of "Progress on enhancing the education support for non-Chinese speaking students" at the meeting held on 9 July 2013
87.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	17 Jul 2013	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 17 July 2013, Provision of Subsidized School Places for English-speaking Students, pp. 15570 15574.

88.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2014	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2014 15)
89.	1	C	edb.gov.hk *(now superseded)*	2014	**Cu**	"Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework" (Chinese Version Only)
90.	8	C	edb.gov.hk	Jan 2014	**Pub**	Initiatives in the 2014 Policy Address Support for Ethnic Minorities
91.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	19 Mar 2014	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 19 Mar 2014, Learning Chinese as a Second Language by Ethnic Minority Students, pp. 8358 8365.
92.	2	C	legco.gov.hk	Apr 2014	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 14 April 2014, entitled 'Enhanced Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14(02).
93.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	8 Apr 2014	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 14 April 2014, entitled 'Background Brief on Issues Related to Enhancing Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)545/13-14(03).
94.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	14 Apr 2014	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 14 April 2014, LC Paper No. CB(4)764/13-14.
95.	2	C	edb.gov.hk	5 Jun 2014	**C**	EDB Circular No. 8/2014 Enhanced Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students
96.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	Jul 2014	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 16 July 2014, entitled 'Implementation of the "Chinese Language

						Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework" and Professional Support', LC Paper No. CB(4)913/13-14(05).
97.	8	S	legco.gov.hk	Jul 2014	**O**	Submission from Hong Kong Unison Limited on implementation of the "Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework" and professional support, LC Paper No. CB(4)934/13-14(01).
98.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	9 Jul 2014	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 9 July 2014, Educational Support for Ethnic Minority Students, pp. 16122 16131.
99.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	16 Jul 2014	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 16 July 2014, LC Paper No. CB(4)45/14-15.
100.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	26 Nov 2014	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 26 November 2014, Support for Ethnic Minority Students in School, pp. 2578 2585.
101.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	27 Nov 2014	**B/P/R**	Administration's response dated 27 November 2014 to the motion passed under the agenda of "Progress on enhancing the education support for non-Chinese speaking students" at the meeting held on 9 July 2013 as set out in LC Paper No. CB(4)884/12-13(01)
102.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2015	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2015 16)
103.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	15 Apr 2015	**B/P/R**	Administration's reply dated 15 April 2015 to the submission on implementation of the "Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework" and professional support

						from Hong Kong Unison Limited as set out in LC Paper No. CB(4)934/13-14(01)
104.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	Jun 2015	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting on 8 June 2015, entitled 'Progress on Enhancing Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)1098/14-15(03).
105.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	2 Jun 2015	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on 8 June 2015, entitled 'Background Brief on Issues Related to Enhancing Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)1098/14-15(04).
106.	8	C	legco.gov.hk	8 Jun 2015	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting on 8 June 2015, LC Paper No. CB(4)1399/14-15.
107.	7	C	legco.gov.hk	26 Jun 2015	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 26 June 2015, Learning of Chinese Language by Non-Chinese Speaking People and Recognition of Relevant Educational Qualifications, pp. 13592 13599.
108.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	2 Dec 2015	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 2 December 2015, Education for Ethnic Minority Students, pp. 2469 2477.
109.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	16 Dec 2015	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 16 December 2015, Non-Chinese speaking students learning in kindergartens, pp. 3045 3049.
110.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2016	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2016 17)
111.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	2 Mar 2016	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 2 March 2016, Support for Ethnic Minorities, pp. 6187 6191.

112.	9	C	edb.gov.hk	6 Apr 2016	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 43/2016 School-based Support Services (2016/17): Primary, Secondary and Special Education
113.	9	C	edb.gov.hk	6 Apr 2016	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 44/2016 School-based Support Services (2016/17) for Kindergartens
114.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	18 May 2016	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 18 May 2016, Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking Students Under 15-year Free Education Policy, pp. 9710 9713.
115.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	20 Jul 2016	**C**	EDB Circular No. 7/2016 Free Quality Kindergarten Education
116.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	4 Oct 2016	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 146/2016 Senior Secondary Applied Learning Courses (2017-19 Cohort)
117.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	30 Nov 2016	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 30 November 2016, Chinese Language Education for Non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 1536 1541.
118.	9	C	edb.gov.hk	2017	**Cu**	Chinese Language Education Curriculum Guide (Chinese Version Only)
119.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2017	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2017 18)
120.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	2017	**Cu**	Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide
121.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	17 Feb 2017	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 40/2017 Updated Revised Common Descriptors for Associate Degree and Higher Diploma Programmes under the New Academic Structure (Version as at February 2017)

122.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	29 Mar 2017	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 29 March 2017, Provision of education-related information to non-Chinese speaking students and parents, pp. 5751 5760.
123.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	31 Mar 2017	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 55/2017 Briefing and Application for School-based Support Services, University-School Partnership Projects and Sharing Networks (2017/18): Primary, Secondary and Special Education
124.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	31 Mar 2017	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 56/2017 Briefing and Application for School-based Support Services, University-School Partnership Projects and Sharing Networks (2017/18) Kindergarten Education
125.	10	S	legco.gov.hk	Jun 2017	**O**	Submission on progress on supporting Chinese learning and teaching for non-Chinese speaking students from Equal Opportunities Commission, LC Paper No. CB(4)1206/16-17(02).
126.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Jun 2017	**B/P/R**	A discussion paper for a Panel on Education meeting originally on 12 June 2017 but moved to 26 June 2017, entitled 'Progress on Supporting Chinese Learning and Teaching for Non-Chinese Speaking Students', LC Paper No. CB(4)1165/16-17(01).
127.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	6 Jun 2017	**L**	A background brief for a Panel on Education meeting on originally on 12 June 2017 but moved to 26 June 2017, entitled 'Issues Related to Supporting Chinese Learning and Teaching for

						Non-Chinese Speaking Students', CB(4)1165/16-17(02).
128.	9	S	legco.gov.hk	3 Jul 2017	**O**	Hon Tanya CHAN, Hon Dennis KWOK and Hon Alvin YEUNG's joint letter dated 3 July 2017 concerning the support for non-Chinese speaking students in learning the Chinese Language and making school choices (Chinese version only), LC Paper No. CB(4)1437/16-17(01).
129.	9	C	legco.gov.hk	26 Jun 2017	**L**	Minutes of a Panel on Education meeting held on 26 June 2017, LC Paper No. CB(4)1534/16-17.
130.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	19 Jul 2017	**B/P/R**	Administration's response dated 19 July 2017 to the joint letter from Hon Tanya CHAN, Hon Dennis KWOK and Hon Alvin YEUNG's dated 3 July 2017 concerning the support for non-Chinese speaking students in learning the Chinese Language and making school choices as set out in LC Paper No. CB(4)1437/16-17(01).
131.	9	C	edb.gov.hk	Aug 2017	**Pub**	Helping Your Children of Kindergarten Age Parental Booklet
132.	9	C	edb.gov.hk	28 Aug 2017	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No.147/2017 Senior Secondary Applied Learning Courses (2018-20 Cohort)
133.	17	S	censtatd.gov.hk	Dec 2017	**O**	2016 Population By-census Thematic Report: Ethnic Minorities
134.	3	C	budget.gov.hk	2018	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2018 19)
135.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	2018	**Pub**	Non-Chinese Speaking Parent Information Package: Your Guide to Education in Hong Kong e-version

136.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	17 Jan 2018	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 17 January 2018, Learning of Chinese Language by Non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 5200 5205.
137.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	26 Mar 2018	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No.33/2018 School-based Support Services (2018/19): Primary, Secondary and Special Education
138.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	26 Mar 2018	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No.34/2018 School-based Support Services (2018/19): Kindergarten Education
139.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	4 Jul 2018	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 4 July 2018, Provision of Support and Services for the Ethnic Minorities, pp. 13725 13744.
140.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	31 Oct 2018	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 31 October 2018, Learning of Chinese by Non-Chinese Speaking Students, pp. 842 849.
141.	10	C	legco.gov.hk	21 Nov 2018	**L**	Hong Kong Hansard, 21 November 2018, Support for non-Chinese speaking students in learning Chinese History, pp. 2844 2847.
142.	12	C	budget.gov.hk	2019	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2019 20)
143.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	2019	**Pub**	Kindergarten Education Policy Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Children (2019 updated version)
144.	10	C	edb.gov.hk	Jan 2019	**Cu**	The Revised "Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework" (Chinese Version Only)
145.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	18 Jan 2019	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 25/2019 Refinement of the "Chinese Language

						Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework"
146.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	8 Mar 2019	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 21/2019 Professional Enhancement Grant Scheme for Chinese Language Teachers (Teaching Chinese as a Second Language)
147.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	25 Mar 2019	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 27/2019 School-based Support Services (2019/20): Primary, Secondary and Special Education
148.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	29 Mar 2019	**C**	EDB Circular No. 9/2019 Grant for Supporting Non-Chinese Speaking Students with Special Educational Needs
149.	14	S	e-c.edu.hk	Apr 2019	**O**	Report of the Task Force on Home-School Co-operation and Parent Education
150.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	12 Jun 2019	**C**	EDB Circular No. 14/2019 Kindergarten Education Scheme Enhanced Support for Non-Chinese speaking students
151.	12	C	edb.gov.hk	26 Jun 2019	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 86/2019 Provision of the Non-recurrent Grant for Supporting Non-Chinese Speaking Students to learn Chinese History and Culture
152.	15	S	eoc.org.hk	Sep 2019	**O**	Closing the Gap: Report of the Working Group on Education for Ethnic Minorities
153.	12	C	edb.gov.hk	24 Sep 2019	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 174/2019 Senior Secondary Applied Learning Courses (2020-22 Cohort)
154.	17	C	budget.gov.hk	2020	**E**	Head 156 Government Secretariat: Education Bureau (Estimate 2020 21)

155.	15	S	eoc.org.hk	Jan 2020	**O**	A Study on the Challenges Faced by Mainstream Schools in Educating Ethnic Minorities in Hong Kong
156.	13	C	edb.gov.hk	25 Mar 2020	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 31/2020 School-based Support Services (2020/21): Primary, Secondary and Special Education
157.	13	C	edb.gov.hk	25 Mar 2020	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 32/2020 School-based Support Services (2020/21) Kindergarten Education
158.	13	S	legco.gov.hk	25 Mar 2020	**O**	Hon CHEUNG Kwok-kwan's letter dated 25 March 2020 concerning the one-off grant for the promotion of Chinese history and culture and non-recurrent grant for supporting non-Chinese speaking students to learn Chinese history and culture (Chinese version only), LC Paper No. CB(4)466/19-20(01).
159.	14	C	legco.gov.hk	9 Apr 2020	**B/P/R**	Administration's response dated 9 April 2020 to the letter from Hon CHEUNG Kwok-kwan dated 25 March 2020 concerning the one-off grant for the promotion of Chinese history and culture and non-recurrent grant for supporting non-Chinese speaking students to learn Chinese history and culture as set out in LC Paper No. CB(4)466/19-20(01), LC Paper No. CB(4)466/19-20(02).
160.	14	C	edb.gov.hk	May 2020	**B/P/R**	Brief on Education Support Measures for Non-Chinese Speaking (NCS) Students Existing and planned measures on the promotion of racial equality

161.	16	S	eoc.org.hk	Jun 2020	**O**	A Study on Education and Career Pathways of Ethnic Minority Youth in Hong Kong
162.	14	C	edb.gov.hk	3 Jun 2020	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 77/2020 Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students Waiver of "Subsidised Examination Fee" in the 2020/21 School Year
163.	14	C	edb.gov.hk	26 Jun 2020	**C**	EDB Circular No. 8/2020 New Funding Arrangements for Enhancing Support for Learning and Teaching Chinese for Non-Chinese Speaking Students
164.	14	C	edb.gov.hk	8 Jul 2020	**L**	Statistical Highlights entitled 'Education Support for Non-Chinese Speaking Students' prepared by Legislative Council Secretariat, ISSH33/19-20
165.	14	C	edb.gov.hk	22 Jul 2020	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 69/2020 Senior Secondary Applied Learning Courses (2021-23 Cohort)
166.	15	C	edb.gov.hk	10 Sep 2020	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 116/2020 School-based Support Scheme Grant for Schools with Intake of Newly Arrived Children (NAC)
167.	15	C	edb.gov.hk	6 Nov 2020	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 162/2020 Parent Education Programmes for Non-Chinese Speaking Parents (2020/21 School Year)
168.	16	C	edb.gov.hk	8 Mar 2021	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 18/2021 School-based Support Services (2021/22): Secondary, Primary and Special Education

169.	16	C	edb.gov.hk	8 Mar 2021	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No. 19/2021 School-based Support Services (2021/22) Kindergarten Education
170.	17	C	edb.gov.hk	May 2021	**Pub**	Summer Bridging Programme for Non-Chinese Speaking Students Administrative Guide
171.	17	C	edb.gov.hk	28 May 2021	**CM**	EDB Circular Memorandum No.80/2021 Summer Bridging Programme for Non-Chinese Speaking Students
172.	17	C	edb.gov.hk	undated	**Pub**	Kindergarten Education Policy pamphlet
173.	11	C	edb.gov.hk	undated	**Pub**	2018 Policy Address Leaflet on Strengthening Support for Ethnic Minorities

** Relevance of policy documents is rated as either 'C' (core) or 'S' (supplementary). Core policy documents are documents that are deemed directly related to CAL policy intentions in Phase 3 (i.e., 2014 onwards) and are thus of enduring referential value for the research question set. Supplementary policy documents are documents that are more concerned with CAL policy intentions in phases other than Phase 3 and therefore offer a supplementary understanding of CAL intentions since 1997.*

*** Should the exact date of the document be unavailable, the month and/or year of the issuance of the document will be used instead.*

9.2. The finalised coding frame

The Finalised Coding Frame

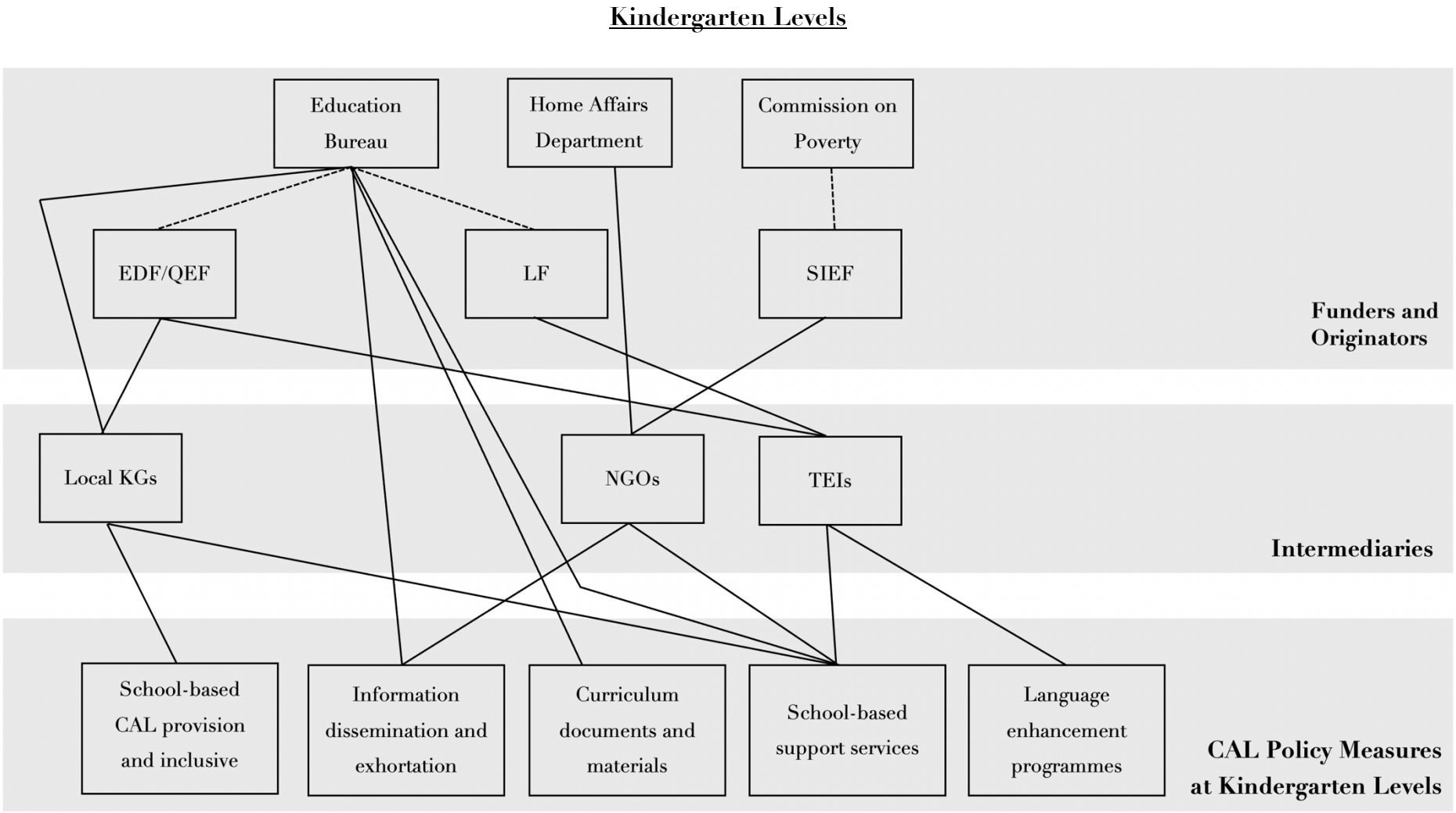
- **CAL policy intentions for CAL provision at kindergarten levels**
  - Policy rhetoric
  - The 2017 Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide
  - Professional development for kindergarten teachers
  - School-based support services for kindergartens
  - Funding support for kindergartens
  - Information dissemination and exhortation
- **CAL policy intentions for CAL provision at primary-secondary levels**
  - Policy rhetoric
  - CAL curricular documents
    - The 2017 Chinese Language Curriculum Guide for Primary One to Secondary Six
    - The "Chinese Language Curriculum Second Language Learning Framework" released in 2014/15 school year and revised in 2019
    - The 2008 Supplementary Guide to the Chinese Language Curriculum for Non-Chinese Speaking Students
  - Funding support for ordinary primary and secondary schools
  - Funding support for special primary and secondary schools
  - Professional development for primary and secondary teachers
  - School-based support services for primary and secondary schools
  - Non-formal support services for primary and secondary schools
    - The Chinese Language Learning Support Centres
    - Summer bridging programmes
    - Programmes for newly arrived CAL children
      - Induction Programmes
      - Initiation Programmes
  - Widened school access, information dissemination and exhortation
  - Alternative Chinese Language qualifications
    - Overseas Chinese language qualifications
    - Applied Learning (Chinese)
- **Other CAL-related policy intentions**
  - Parent education
  - Early childhood Chinese language programmes
  - Vocational Chinese language courses for NCS school leavers
  - CAL research development
  - CAL material development

9.3. A timeline of CAL policy intentions from 1997 to the present

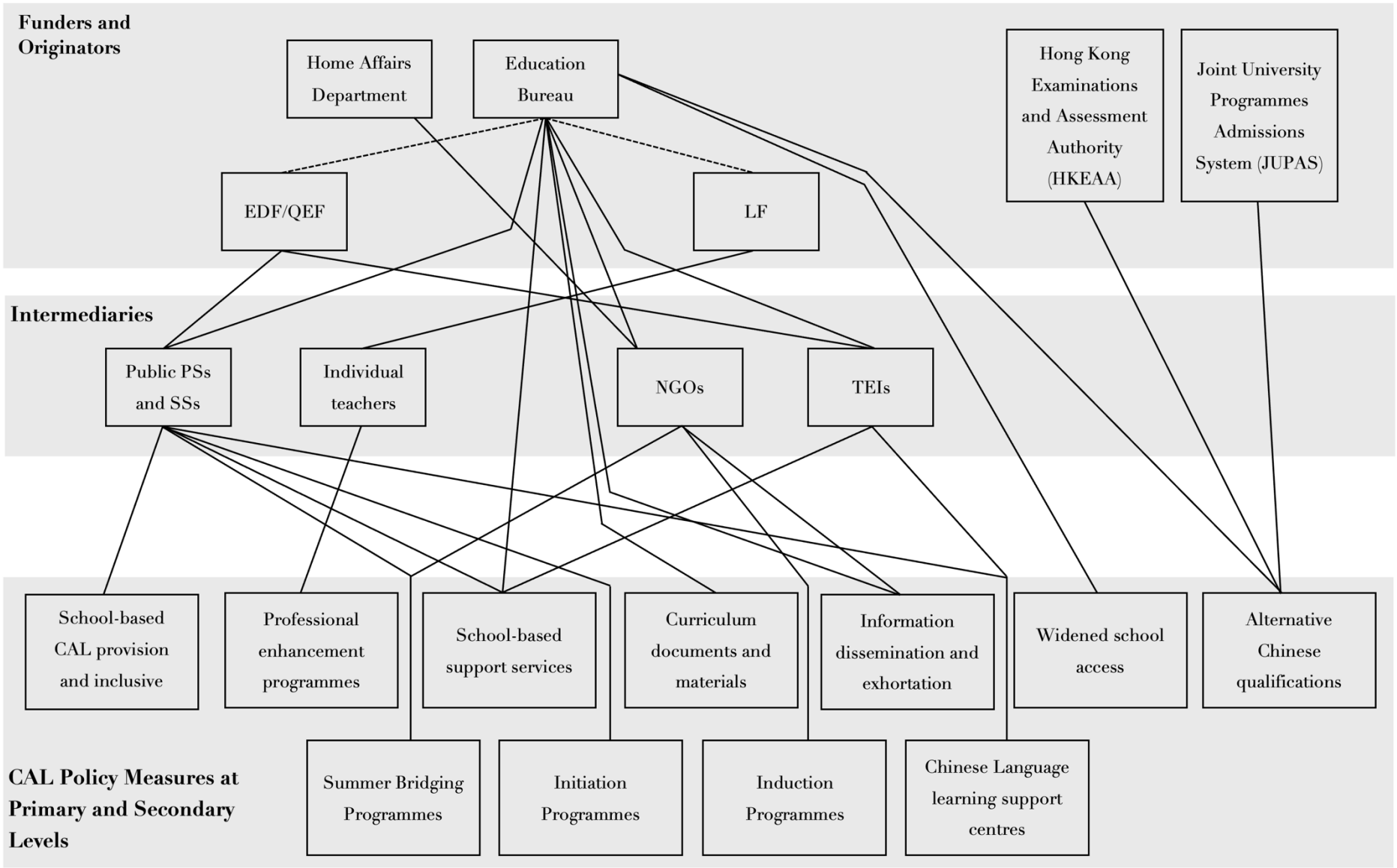
CAL policy measures[40]	Phase 1									Phase 2							Phase 3								
	1997/98	1998/99	1999/20	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	2021/22
Kindergarten Education Curriculum Guide (2017)																									
Funding for KGs																									
Professional development for KGs																									
School-based support services for KGs																									
Information dissemination and exhortation																									
Supplementary Guide (2008)																									
Chinese Language Learning Framework (2014)																									
Chinese Language Curriculum Guide (2017)																									
Revised funding for ordinary PSs & SSs										Designated funding (now defunct)															
Funding for special PSs & SSs (and for SEN students)																									
Professional development for PSs & SSs																									
School-based support services for PSs & SSs																									
Chinese Language Learning Support Centres																									
Summer Bridging Programmes																									
Induction Programmes																									
Initiation Programmes																									
Widening of school choices																									
Information dissemination and exhortation																									
Overseas Chinese language qualifications																									
Applied Learning (Chinese)																									
Parent education																									
Early childhood Chinese language programmes																									
Vocational Chinese language courses																									
CAL research development																									
CAL material development																									

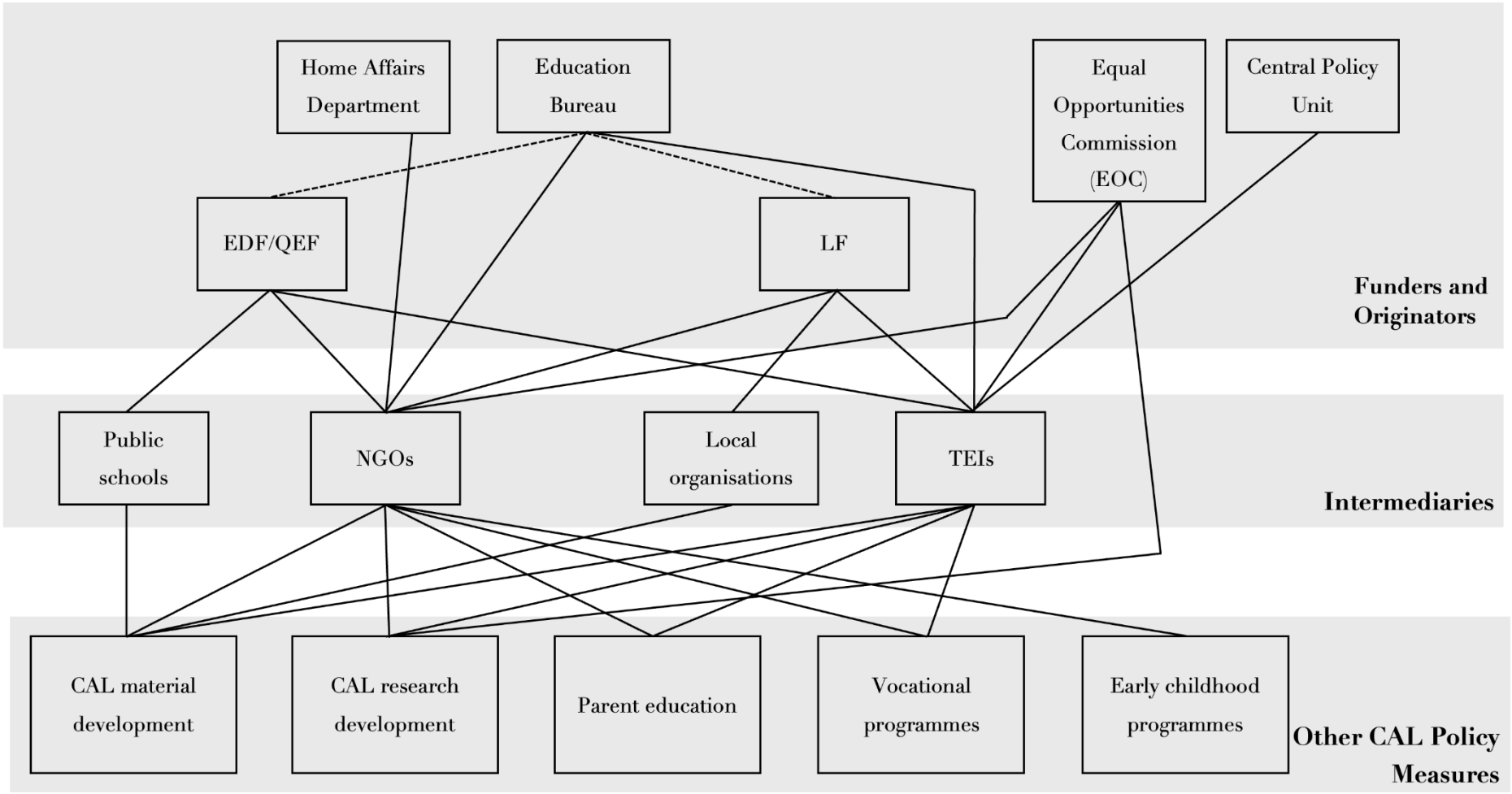
[40] The deepening of the hue suggests that new initiatives have been implemented starting from a given school year

9.4. CAL policy intentions and their intermediaries



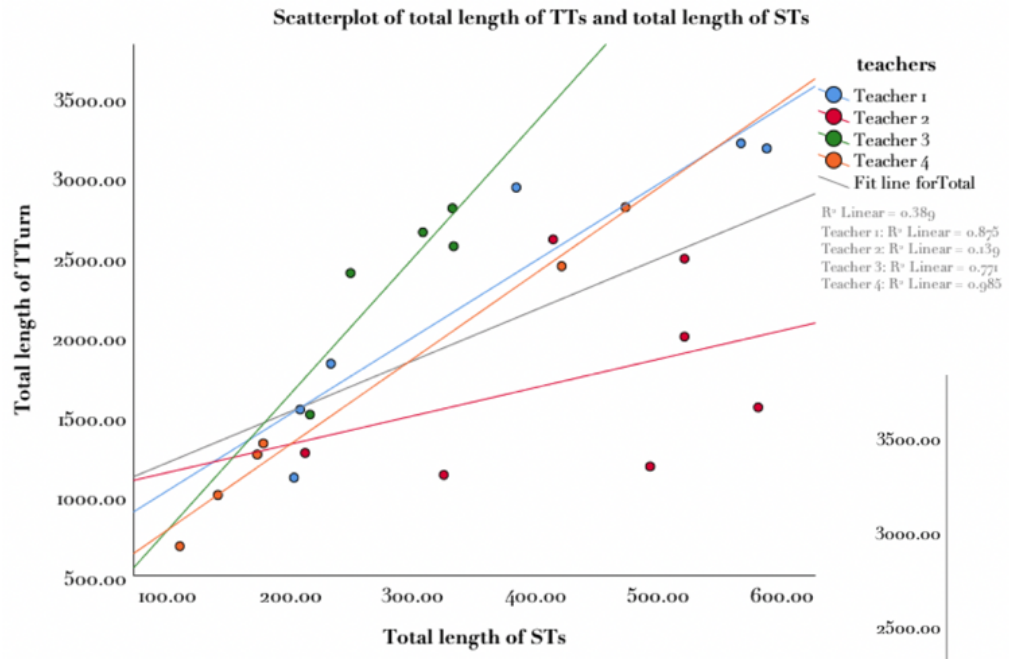
Primary and Secondary Levels

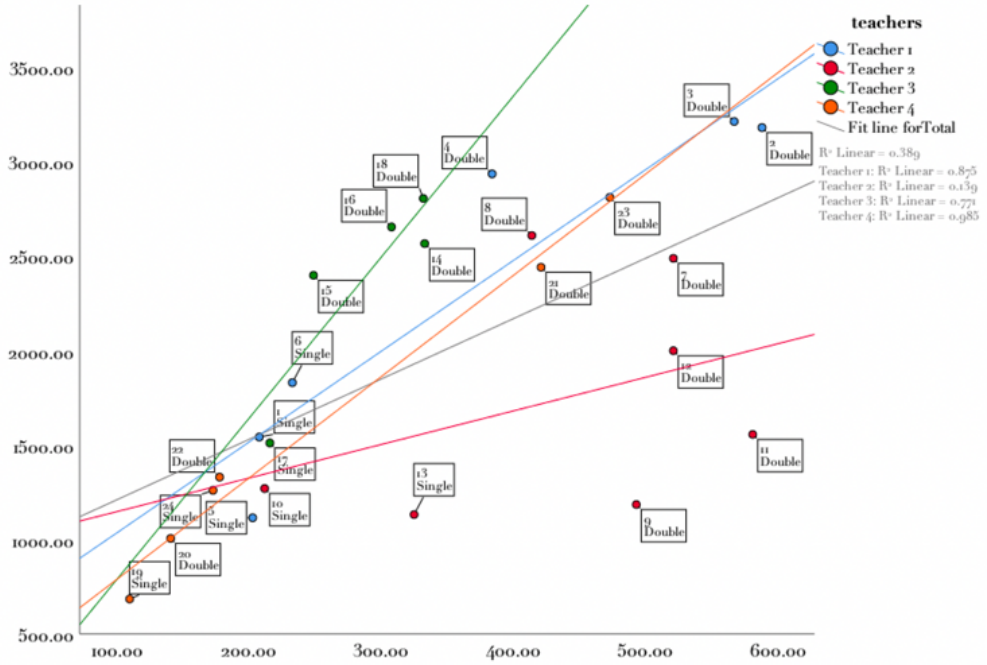



Home Affairs Department
Education Bureau
Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC)
Central Policy Unit
EDF/QEF
LF
Funders and Originators
Public schools
NGOs
Local organisations
TEIs
Intermediaries
CAL material development
CAL research development
Parent education
Vocational programmes
Early childhood programmes
Other CAL Policy Measures

Appendix 10 Supplements to the 'Practice' domain

10.1. Scatterplots illustrating the effect of lesson type





Appendix 11 Supplements to the 'Phenomenology' domain

11.1. Coding table for phenomenological interviews with teachers

Units/key words *Units were operationalised as 'the smallest piece of information' that revealed information relative to the investigative focus and could stand on its own (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.345).*	**Categories** *Categories were semantic entities formed through combining lexical units from a single case. Categories were then harmonised across cases.*	**Emergent themes** *Emergent themes were the semantic entities harmonised across cases, manifesting an essential quality of the phenomenon under exploration.*	**Superordinate themes** *Superordinate themes were formed through combining emergent themes across cases, therefore shedding light on the experiential structure of the phenomenon.*
1. 教材, 教學材料, 好累 2. 評估, 考試 3. 出版商, 無興趣出教材、資料庫 4. 教育局, 唧牙膏咁唧, 慢條斯理	82. Fatigue and burnout associated with material development 83. Fatigue and burnout associated with assessment development 84. Minimal support from publishers (CAL) 85. Insufficient and untimely support from Education Bureau (CAL)	q. Fatigue and burnout related to curriculum design and development	E. Designing and developing CAL curricula *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived experience with designing and delivering CAL curricula in their respective schools)*
5. 成形, 制度化 6. 分班, 分級, 教務工作, 非教學, 補課 7. 考評, 評估, 分班機制, 成形, 制度化 8. 教師發展, 進修, 自己增值 9. 教育局嘅措施, 輔助措施 10. 補充指引, 八階 11. 非華語, 新移民	86. CAL formalised as a language subject 87. CAL administration 88. CAL assessment 89. CAL professional development 90. CAL support measures 91. CAL curricular documents 92. NCS students vs. 'new immigrants'	r. Demarcations of CAL as a subject	
12. 修改, 小修小改, 優化, 微調, 校本課程 13. 大改, 大執, 校本 14. 實驗精神, 摸石過河, 肯試吓, 不斷變革 15. 史, 由（時間） 16. 改革, 政策變動, 朝令夕改	93. Tweaking school-based curricula 94. Revamping school-based curricula 95. The spirit of experimentation 96. History of the school-based curriculum 97. Awareness of changing CAL policies	s. CAL curriculum in flux	
17. 西遊記, 花木蘭, 詩歌 18. 興趣, 戲劇, 遊戲 19. 課程指引, 高小課程 20. TSA	98. Use of Chinese classics 99. Adoption of language arts and games 100. Alignment with the local curriculum 101. Alignment with local assessments	t. Orienting CAL curriculum with the local curriculum	
21. 地道, 日常, 生活中嘅 22. 職業中文, 職業導向, 應用中文, 服務業嘅中文, Applied Learning 23. 中英混合, 用英文輔助, 翻譯 24. GCSE	102. Focus on daily Chinese 103. Focus on workplace Chinese 104. Adoption of interlingual strategies 105. Alignment with GCSE	u. Orienting CAL curriculum with the GCSE assessment and/or Applied Learning	

25. 解, 解釋, 文法, 字本位, 識字法 26. 理解, 聽得明 27. 課堂上, 引導, 指點 28. 單元, 文化篇章, 實用中文, 主題 29. 練習, 抄寫, 家課, 功課 30. 科技, iPad, 智能電話 31. 前測, 評核, 評估	106. Prioritising explicit instruction 107. Prioritising comprehensibility (vocabulary instruction) 108. Prioritising comprehensibility (assessment demonstration) 109. Modularisation of language skills 110. Prioritising exercises and drills 111. Infusing technology 112. Assessment for diversity management	v. Common features in the implementation of CAL curricula	F. Implementing CAL curricula *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived implementation with CAL curricula in their respective schools)*
32. 華語班, 非華語班 33. 分班, 因材施教 34. 級, 一級(數字), 班, 叻班, 渣班	113. Separating CAL students from non-CAL (i.e., ethnic Chinese) counterparts 114. Grade-based streaming 115. Undifferentiated materials within class	w. Diversity management at the level of a grade (i.e., streaming) and undifferentiated materials	
35. 共融, 混合班, A班, B班 36. 能力, 知己知彼 37. 分層教學, 星星月亮太陽 38. 華語學生, 母語能力, 以母語作為標準 39. 小老師, 榜樣, 互相學習	116. Adopting mixed-abilities grouping 117. Students' self-awareness of abilities 118. Differentiated materials within class 119. Adapting CFL materials and assessments (i.e., CFL as a reference) 120. Reciprocal teaching	x. Mixed-abilities grouping and diversity management at the level of a class (i.e., differentiated materials)	
40. 起承轉合, 比喻, 借喻, 故事技巧, 敍事技巧 41. Drama, 戲劇, 話劇, 表演, 遊戲 42. 有趣, 詼諧, 講笑話	121. Language skills revolving around a story 122. Use of drama- and game-based activities 123. Maintaining a playful mood	y. Text-based modularisation (manifesting curriculum orientation)	
43. 題目, 天氣(例子), 交通(例子) 44. 詞彙, 字詞 45. 簡化, 範文, 短文	124. Language skills revolving around a topic 125. Emphasis on topical vocabulary items 126. Abridgement of the core texts	z. Topic-based modularisation (manifesting curriculum orientation)	
46. 掛住, 令人懷念, 原來 47. 以前, 細細個, 詩詞, 浸淫, 中國文化 48. 會考, 高考, DSE, 考試主導, 圍繞 49. 課程發展, 編寫教材, 設計評估 50. 出版商, 教材庫	127. Memories of teaching CFL 128. Memories of learning CFL (i.e., the apprenticeship of observation) 129. Public examinations as the standard (CFL) 130. Less demand on curriculum development (CFL) 131. More support from publishers (CFL)	aa. Reminiscences of days teaching CFL	G. Transitioning into CAL communities of practice *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived relation with the wider professional community)*
51. 中國文化, 本地文化, 本土文化 52. 中國文化, 中國文學, 詩詞曲文 53. 實用, 職業 54. n/a 55. 離職, 做幾年就, 過塘 56. 普教中, 普通話, 棘手, 混亂	132. Confucian values vs. local values 133. Chinese culture and literature (CFL) 134. Chinese for specific purposes (CAL) 135. Organisational separation (CFL vs CAL) 136. High turnover rates of CAL teachers 137. PTH as the elephant in the room	bb. Bifurcation of the Chinese Department	

57. 錯誤觀念, 觀感上, 誤解 58. 交流, 合作, 各家自掃門前雪 59. 互相支持, 精神上嘅 60. 觀摩, 互相學習, 取經, 各施各法	138. Misconceptions and misunderstandings germane to teaching CAL 139. Lack of professional collaboration 140. Moral support among CAL teachers 141. Learning from other CAL schools	cc. Interaction with CAL and CFL colleagues	
61. 咩都得, 冇監管, 高度自治 62. 欠缺研究, 教學法, 商榷餘地 63. 多元化, 各施各法, 係咪一個正路嘅方法 64. 懷疑, 質疑, 有時會諗, 有效 65. 慢慢吸收經驗, 建立, 發展出	142. Perceptions of high autonomy 143. Lack of Cantonese-based CAL research 144. Perceptions of diversified approaches 145. Moments of low self-efficacy 146. An emerging community of practice	dd. Perceptions of the CAL teaching communities	
66. 習慣, 適應, 潛移默化 67. 慢慢, 逐漸自信, 有見地 68. 二語訓練, 點樣去學習中文為第二語言 69. 意義, 對我嚟講 70. 少數族裔, 群體, 種族共融 71. 學校, 轉型 72. 香港, 社區 73. 廣東話文化, 粵 74. 中國文化, 傳統中國	147. Getting accustomed to teaching CAL 148. Becoming confident and insightful 149. Desire for L2 training 150. CAL as a pursuit of personal meaning 151. Contribution to EM communities 152. Contribution to the school 153. Contribution to Hong Kong 154. Contribution to Cantonese culture 155. Contribution to generic Chinese culture	ee. Development of a CAL professional identity	H. Becoming CAL teachers *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with teachers' lived relation with themselves, including personal sense-marking in relation to the phenomenon of teaching CAL)*
75. 懷疑質疑, 批判性嘅 76. 社會, 文化上, 環境, 熏陶 77. 資源分配, 公義 78. 政策, 政策上 79. 生金蛋 80. 種族歧視, 少數族裔權益 81. 政治正確, 講嘢要小心啲	156. Problematising CAL and being critical 157. CAL as a socio-cultural issue 158. CAL as a social justice issue 159. CAL as a policy issue 160. CAL as a golden goose 161. Ethnicisation and social discrimination 162. Becoming politically correct	ff. Critical consciousness	

11.2. Coding table vis-à-vis teacher participants

	T1 *S5C*	T2 *S5I*	T3 *S8C*	T4 *S8I*	Nature*
a. Fatigue and burnout related to curriculum design and development	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
1. Fatigue and burnout associated with material development	*	*	*	*	/
2. Fatigue and burnout associated with assessment development	*	*	*	*	/
3. Minimal support from publishers (CAL)	*	*	*	*	/
4. Insufficient and untimely support from Education Bureau (CAL)	*	*	*	*	/
b. Demarcations of CAL as a subject	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
5. Compartmentalisation as a language subject		*	*		
6. CAL administration	*	*	*	*	/
7. CAL assessment	*	*	*	*	/
8. CAL professional development	*	*	*	*	/
9. CAL support measures	*	*	*	*	/
10. CAL curricular documents	*	*	*	*	/
11. CAL students vs. 'new immigrants'		*		*	/
c. CAL curriculum in flux	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
12. Tweaking school-based curricula	*		*	*	/
13. Revamping school-based curricula		*			/
14. The spirit of experimentation	*	*	*	*	/
15. History of the school-based curriculum	*	*	*	*	/
16. Awareness of changing CAL policies	*	*	*	*	/
d. Orienting CAL curriculum with the local curriculum	✓	✓			**U**
17. Use of Chinese classics	*	*			/
18. Adoption of language arts and games	*	*			/
19. Alignment with the local curriculum	*	*			/
20. Alignment with local assessments	*	*			/
e. Orienting CAL curriculum with the GCSE assessment and/or Applied Learning			✓	✓	**U**
21. Focus on daily Chinese		*	*	*	/
22. Focus on workplace Chinese			*	*	/
23. Adoption of interlingual strategies			*	*	/
24. Alignment with GCSE			*	*	/

f. Common features in the implementation of CAL curricula	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
25. Prioritising explicit instruction	*	*	*	*	/
26. Prioritising comprehensibility (vocabulary instruction)	*		*	*	/
27. Prioritising comprehensibility (assessment demonstration)	*	*		*	/
28. Modularisation of language skills	*	*	*	*	/
29. Prioritising exercises and drills	*	*	*	*	/
30. Infusing technology	*	*	*	*	/
31. Assessment for diversity management	*	*	*		/
g. Diversity management at the level of a grade (i.e., streaming) and undifferentiated materials	✓		✓	✓	**U**
32. Separating CAL students from non-CAL (i.e., ethnic Chinese) counterparts	*		*	*	/
33. Grade-based streaming	*		*	*	/
34. Undifferentiated materials within class	*		*	*	/
h. Mixed-abilities grouping and diversity management at the level of a class (i.e., differentiated materials)		✓			**U**
35. Adopting mixed-abilities grouping		*			/
36. Students' self-awareness of abilities		*	*		/
37. Differentiated materials within class		*			/
38. Adapting CFL materials and assessments (i.e., CFL as a reference)	*	*			/
39. Reciprocal teaching		*		*	/
i. Text-based modularisation	✓	✓			**U**
40. Language skills revolving around a story	*	*			/
41. Use of drama- and game-based activities	*	*			/
42. Maintaining a playful mood	*	*	*		/
j. Topic-based modularisation			✓	✓	**U**
43. Language skills revolving around a topic			*	*	/
44. Emphasis on topical vocabulary items			*	*	/
45. Abridgement of the core texts	*	*	*	*	/
k. Reminiscences of days teaching CFL	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
46. Memories of teaching CFL	*	*	*	*	/
47. Memories of learning CFL (i.e., the apprenticeship of observation)	*	*	*	*	/
48. Public examinations as the standard (CFL)	*	*	*	*	/
49. Less demand on curriculum development (CFL)	*	*	*	*	/
50. More support from publishers (CFL)	*	*	*	*	/
l. Bifurcation of the Chinese Department	✓		✓	✓	**U**

51.	Confucian values vs. local values	*		*	*	/
52.	Chinese culture and literature (CFL)	*	*	*	*	/
53.	Chinese for specific purposes (CAL)			*	*	/
54.	Organisational separation (CFL vs CAL)	*		*	*	/
55.	High turnover rates of CAL teachers	*		*	*	/
56.	PTH as the elephant in the room	*	*	*	*	/
m.	**Interaction with CAL and CFL colleagues**	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
57.	Misconceptions about teaching CAL	*		*	*	/
58.	Lack of professional collaboration	*		*	*	/
59.	Moral support among CAL teachers	*	*	*	*	/
60.	Learning from other CAL schools	*	*	*	*	/
n.	**Perceptions of the CAL teaching communities**	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
61.	Perceptions of high autonomy			*	*	/
62.	Lack of Cantonese-based CAL research			*	*	/
63.	Perceptions of diversified approaches	*	*	*	*	/
64.	Moments of low self-efficacy	*	*	*	*	/
65.	An emerging community of practice	*	*	*	*	/
o.	**Development of a CAL professional identity**	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
66.	Getting accustomed to teaching CAL	*	*	*	*	/
67.	Becoming confident and insightful	*	*	*	*	/
68.	Desire for L2 training	*	*	*	*	/
69.	CAL as a pursuit of personal meaning	*	*	*	*	/
70.	Contribution to EM communities	*			*	/
71.	Contribution to the school	*	*	*		/
72.	Contribution to Hong Kong	*	*	*	*	/
73.	Contribution to Cantonese culture	*	*	*	*	/
74.	Contribution to generic Chinese culture	*	*	*		/
p.	**Critical consciousness**	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
75.	Becoming critical		*	*		
76.	CAL as a social issue	*			*	/
77.	CAL as a social justice issue		*	*	*	/
78.	CAL as a policy issue	*	*	*	*	/
79.	CAL as a golden goose	*	*		*	/

80. Ethnicisation and social discrimination	*	*	*	*	/
81. Becoming politically correct				*	/

*Emergent themes shared among all participants are shared themes (**S**), whereas those unique to certain participants are classed as unshared themes (**U**).

11.3. Coding table for phenomenological interviews with students

Units/key words *Units were operationalised as 'the smallest piece of information' that revealed information relative to the investigative focus and could stand on its own (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.345).*	**Categories** *Categories were semantic entities formed through combining lexical units from a single case. Categories were then harmonised across cases.*	**Emergent themes** *Emergent themes were the semantic entities harmonised across cases, manifesting an essential quality of the phenomenon under exploration.*		**Superordinate themes** *Superordinate themes were formed through combining emergent themes across cases, therefore shedding light on the experiential structure of the phenomenon.*
1. phone, iPad, computer 2. father, mother, parents 3. in the past, stories, 4. homework, classwork, practice 5. Chinese books, newspapers 6. TV programmes, TVB 7. copy, say it again and again	69. Use of technology (home) 70. Family members' encouragement 71. Interest in family members' accounts of learning and using Chinese 72. Perception of CAL homework 73. Leisurely Chinese reading at home 74. Exploration of Cantonese culture and media at home 75. Use of repetition (strategy)	o. Learning CAL in home settings		D. Learning CAL in postcolonial Hong Kong *(This superordinate theme deals mainly with CAL students' lived experiences of learning CAL across the domains of home, school, and community in postcolonial Hong Kong)*
8. break the word down, 部件, 部首 9. understand the lesson, hard, trying to, keep trying 10. iPad, e-dictionary, phone 11. explain in English, translate 12. sound symbols, pinyin 13. I don't know, 唔知道 14. pretend, just nod your head, 扮識	76. Experiences with analytical/explicit CAL instruction 77. Incomprehensible CAL instruction/ feeling lost about CAL instruction 78. Use of technology (school) 79. Use of English (strategy) 80. Use of self-invented symbols (strategy) 81. Use of avoidance (strategy) 82. Feigning comprehension (strategy)	p. Experiencing instructed CAL in school settings	Learning CAL in school settings	
15. make friends with Chinese students, know more Chinese students 16. use/speak…more, listen to…more 17. get used to speaking Cantonese, less worried, less scared, less stressful	83. More opportunities to interact with ethnic Chinese students in general 84. More opportunities to be exposed to and use CAL 85. Feeling less anxious about using CAL	q. Learning CAL and ethnic integration		
18. learn from Chinese students, role model 19. form groups with, in Chinese lessons 20. ask Chinese students, ask questions 21. friends, close friends, play together 22. different levels, help each other, strong students, weak students	86. More opportunities to model after ethnic Chinese students in class 87. More opportunities to interact with ethnic Chinese students in CAL lessons 88. More opportunities to seek help from ethnic Chinese students 89. Having close ethnic Chinese friends 90. Experiences with a differentiated approach	r. Learning CAL and mixed-abilities grouping		

23. Chinese stories, tales, everyday Chinese 24. teachers use more English, English in homework 25. focus on the exam, exam comes first, GCSE 26. different, not connected, two styles 27. easier, less difficult, daily 28. bored, less interesting, dry	91. Practical orientation of secondary CAL learning content 92. CAL teachers' willingness to use cross-linguistic techniques 93. Becoming assessment-conscious and examination-oriented 94. Experiencing curricular discontinuities 95. Perception of secondary CAL lessons as less demanding 96. Feelings of boredom with secondary CAL lessons	s. Learning CAL and grade levels		
29. kindergarten, start late, playing catch-up 30. Chinese, Cantonese, Putonghua, 書面語, 口語 31. tone, say it correctly, easy to make mistakes 32. nervous, stressed, 緊張 33. hard to keep going, don't feel the need	97. Awareness of different starting points 98. Multiliteracies/acquiring multiple systems 99. Tonality of Chinese (production) 100. Feelings of anxiety connected to classroom interaction in Chinese 101. Few incentives to persist and/or aim high	t. Difficulties in learning CAL in school settings (general)		
34. easy to forget, can't remember 35. get the tone wrong, it (tone) feels the same 36. get to know the part, break… down 37. lost, daydreaming, not focusing, hard to follow	102. General forgetfulness 103. Tonality of Chinese (reception) 104. Inchoate abilities to recognise radicals and characters 105. General inattentiveness	u. Difficulties in learning CAL in school settings (specific)		
38. Google Translate, phone 39. play basketball, play sports, football, badminton, hide-and-seek 40. local events, social centres, shopping malls, concerts, walking around	106. Using of technology (community) 107. Participating in sports activities 108. Participating in social activities *See also 62 – 65*	v. Learning and using CAL in the community		
41. Different purposes, the same, similar 42. use 'everything', gesture 43. Facebook, Instagram 44. church, Bible groups, cell groups 45. mosque, Islam, Muslim, Arabic, Quran	109. Linguistic division of labour 110. Learning to communicate beyond languages 111. Use of social media (i.e., transnationalism) 112. Going to church and attending Bible study groups 113. Going to mosques and learning classical Arabic	w. Being multilingual in postcolonial Hong Kong	E. Language use and interaction in postcolonial Hong Kong *(This superordinate theme deals primarily with CAL students' lived experiences relation with the wider sociolinguistic community, including the manifestation of an English-dominant multilingual identity among a subgroup of CAL learners)*	
46. English, use English with us 47. practise English, help each other	114. English as the usual medium of communication in non-home settings	x. Interacting with ethnic Chinese people		

48. easily impressed, easily amazed, think…very good, surprised 49. feel scared, stressed, stressful, don't want to	115. Being asked to practise English with 116. Ethnic Chinese groups' easy amazement 117. Feelings of anxiety connected to societal interaction in Chinese		
50. English, common language 51. Overseas, US, UK, Australia, Canada 52. (names of Western drama series, and movies) 53. (names of English books) 54. Facebook, Instagram, (names of Youtubers) 55. 'Learn everything through English' 56. English, important, success 57. study abroad, live abroad 58. like English classes more, work harder in, focus more on English	118. Communicating among EMs in English 119. Communicating with overseas relatives 120. Exposure to English-based media 121. Exposure to English-based print 122. Exposure to English-based social media 123. Reliance on English for comprehensibility 124. Awareness of importance of English in Hong Kong 125. The allure of the West 126. More devotion to ESL than CAL	y. Developing an English-dominant multilingual identity	
59. discrimination, treated differently, racism, call you names, black 60. limited, weak, poor Chinese/Cantonese 61. expect less, focus on (something else), (something) is more important than Chinese	127. Awareness of discrimination and differential treatment 128. Feelings of inadequacy and deficiency 129. Adjusting one's CAL expectations	z. Experiences of racial/ethnic discrimination and the deficit model of CAL provision	F. Becoming *non*-Chinese speaking (NCS) students *(This superordinate theme deals primarily with CAL students' lived relation with themselves, including personal sense-marking in relation to the phenomenon of learning CAL, as well as the deficit model of CAL provision experienced)*
62. want to, make friends with Chinese, friendship 63. want to, talk in Cantonese, use more Cantonese 64. want to, understand local events, (name of festivals) 65. want to, walk around, join social activities	130. Desire to make friends with ethnic Chinese 131. Desire to communicate in Cantonese 132. Desire to understand the local culture 133. Desire to use Cantonese in the community *See also 39 and 40, as well as 52*	aa. Discourse of integrative motivation	
66. different people, differences 67. work, for work, use Chinese at work 68. requirement, university criterion	134. Perceived difficulties to integrate via CAL 135. Focusing on the use of Chinese in the workplace 136. Passing the Chinese examination as a goal	bb. Discourse of instrumental motivation	

11.4. Coding table vis-à-vis student participants

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	
Sex	M	F	M	F	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	F	M	F	M	
School	G5(C)	G5(I)	G8(C)	G8(I)	G5(C)	G5(C)	G5(I)	G8(C)	G8(C)	G8(I)	G8(I)	G5(C)	G5(I)	G8(C)	G8(I)	
Age	9	11	13	12	10	10	10	13	12	13	14	11	10	13	13	
Birthplace*	HK	HK	HK	HK	HK	HK	HK	HK	HK	E	HK	E	E	E	HK	
Ethnicity**	I	N	F	P	I	N	I	N	I	P	N	P	P	P	M	
Proficiency	High				Mid							Low				Nature***
a. Learning CAL in home settings	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	S
1. Use of technology (home)	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	/
2. Family members' encouragement		*	*		*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	/
3. Interest in family members' accounts of learning and using Chinese		*	*		*	*		*		*	*	*		*	*	/
4. Perception of CAL homework	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	/
5. Leisurely Chinese reading at home	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*				*			/
6. Exploration of Cantonese culture and media at home	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*				*	*	/
7. Use of repetition (strategy)		*	*		*	*		*	*	*		*	*	*	*	/
b. Experiencing instructed CAL in school settings	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	S
8. Experiences with analytical/explicit CAL instruction	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*		*	*	/
9. Incomprehensible CAL instruction/ feeling lost about CAL instruction		*		*		*	*		*	*		*	*	*	*	/
10. Use of technology (school)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	/
11. Use of English (strategy)			*	*		*		*	*	*	*			*	*	/
12. Use of self-invented symbols (strategy)	*	*	*	*		*	*		*		*	*		*		/
13. Use of avoidance (strategy)					*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	/
14. Feigning comprehension (strategy)	*			*		*	*	*			*		*			/
c. Learning CAL and ethnic integration		✓		✓			✓			✓	✓		✓		✓	U
15. More opportunities to interact with ethnic Chinese students in general		*		*			*			*	*		*		*	/
16. More opportunities to be exposed to and use CAL		*		*						*	*		*		*	/
17. Feeling less anxious about using CAL		*	*				*				*					/
d. Learning CAL and mixed-abilities grouping		✓					✓						✓			U
18. More opportunities to model after ethnic Chinese students in class		*					*						*			/
19. More opportunities to interact with ethnic Chinese students in CAL lessons		*					*									/
20. More opportunities to seek help from ethnic Chinese students		*								*			*		*	/

21. Having close ethnic Chinese friends		*		*			*			*	*		*			/
22. Experiences with a differentiated approach		*					*						*			/
e. Learning CAL and grade levels			✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		**U**
23. Practical orientation of secondary CAL learning content			*	*				*		*	*					/
24. CAL teachers' willingness to use cross-linguistic techniques		*	*	*		*		*	*	*	*		*	*	*	/
25. Becoming assessment-conscious and examination-oriented			*	*				*				*		*		/
26. Experiencing curricular discontinuities	/	/	*	*	/	/	/				*	/	/			/
27. Perception of secondary CAL lessons as less demanding	/	/	*		/	/	/	*	*	*		/	/	*	*	/
28. Feelings of boredom with secondary CAL lessons	/	/	*	*	/	/	/	*	*	*	*	/	/			/
f. Difficulties in learning CAL in school settings (general)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	**S**
29. Awareness of different starting points	*	*		*			*	*		*	*			*	*	/
30. Multiliteracies/acquiring multiple systems	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*		*	*				/
31. Tonality of Chinese (production)		*			*	*			*	*	*	*	*	*	*	/
32. Feelings of anxiety connected to classroom interaction in Chinese	*		*	*		*	*	*		*		*	*	*	*	/
33. Few incentives to persist and/or aim high	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*						/
g. Difficulties in learning CAL in school settings (specific)						✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	**U**
34. General forgetfulness					*	*		*		*		*	*		*	/
35. Tonality of Chinese (reception)							*		*		*	*	*	*	*	/
36. Inchoate abilities to recognise radicals and characters						*						*	*	*	*	/
37. General inattentiveness									*	*	*	*		*	*	/
h. Learning and using CAL in the community	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
38. Using of technology (community)	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	/
39. Participating in sports activities	*		*	*		*		*		*	*	*	*	*	*	/
40. Participating in social activities		*		*		*	*		*		*		*	*		/
i. Being multilingual in postcolonial Hong Kong	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
41. Linguistic division of labour	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*		/
42. Learning to communicate beyond languages	*	*	*		*		*	*	*	*		*		*	*	/
43. Use of social media (i.e., transnationalism)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	/
44. Going to church and attending Bible study groups			*			*			*		*				*	/
45. Going to mosques and learning classical Arabic				*						*		*	*	*		/
j. Interacting with ethnic Chinese people	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	**S**
46. English as the usual medium of communication in non-home settings	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	/
47. Being asked to practise English with	*	*	*		*		*	*	*	*		*	*			/

48. Ethnic Chinese groups' easy amazement		*	*	*		*	*				*					/
49. Feelings of anxiety connected to societal interaction in Chinese	*	*				*			*			*	*	*	*	/
k. Developing an English-dominant multilingual identity	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	**U**
50. Communicating among EMs in English	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	/
51. Communicating with overseas relatives			*	*			*	*				*		*	*	/
52. Exposure to English-based media			*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*			*	*	/
53. Exposure to English-based print	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*			*	*	/
54. Exposure to English-based social media			*	*				*	*	*	*			*	*	/
55. Reliance on English for comprehensibility	*	*	*	*		*		*					*	*	*	/
56. Awareness of importance of English in Hong Kong	*		*	*	*			*		*	*	*	*		*	/
57. The allure of the West			*					*	*		*			*	*	/
58. More devotion to ESL than CAL	*	*	*	*	*			*	*				*	*	*	/
l. Experiences of racial discrimination and the deficit model of CAL provision			✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	**U**
59. Awareness of discrimination and differential treatment	*	*	*	*			*			*	*		*		*	/
60. Feelings of inadequacy and deficiency				*			*	*	*		*			*	*	/
61. Adjusting one's CAL expectations			*	*			*	*	*	*	*			*	*	/
m. Discourse of integrative motivation	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	✓			**U**
62. Desire to make friends with ethnic Chinese	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			/
63. Desire to communicate in Cantonese	*	*			*		*					*	*			/
64. Desire to understand the local culture		*					*					*	*	*		/
65. Desire to use Cantonese in the community	*	*		*	*	*	*			*			*			/
n. Discourse of instrumental motivation			✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	**U**
66. Perceived difficulties to integrate via CAL			*	*				*		*	*					/
67. Focusing on the use of Chinese in the workplace	*		*	*	*			*	*		*			*	*	/
68. Passing the Chinese examination as a goal			*	*			*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	/

* Birthplace is classified as Hong Kong (**HK**), or elsewhere (**E**).

** Ethnicity is classified as Indian (**I**), Nepalese (**N**), Filipino (**F**), Pakistani (**P**), and Mixed (**M**).

*** Emergent themes shared among all participants are shared themes (**S**), whereas those unique to certain participants are classed as unshared themes (**U**).

Appendix 12 Academic involvement

12.1. Evidence of academic involvement

Research training (Methods)
1. **Master of Science in Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition** Department of Education, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2012, Hilary Term 2013 (16 weeks) 2. **Foundations of Educational Research 1: Concepts and Design** Department of Education, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2017 (8 weeks) 3. **Foundations of Educational Research 2: Strategies and Methods** Department of Education, University of Oxford Hilary Term 2018 (8 weeks) 4. **Introduction to Quantitative Research** Department of Education, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2017 (8 weeks) 5. **Intermediate Quantitative Research** Department of Education, University of Oxford Hilary Term 2018 (8 weeks) 6. **Perspectives and Debates in Qualitative Research** Department of Education, University of Oxford Hilary Term 2018 (8 weeks) 7. **Introduction to Statistical Concepts** IT Services, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2017 (8 weeks) 8. **Corpus Linguistics for Language Learning, Teaching & Testing** Lancaster University Summer School 2018 (4 days) 9. **Advanced Research Workshop for the Teaching and Learning of Chinese as a Second Language** Education University of Hong Kong Summer School 2019 (20 days) 10. **NVivo** IT Services, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2019 (8 weeks)

Research training (Ethics/Safety)
1. **Master of Science in Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition** Department of Education, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2012, Hilary Term 2013 (16 weeks) 2. **Research Training Seminar** Department of Education, University of Oxford Michaelmas Term 2017, Hilary Term 2018 (16 weeks)
Academic engagement
Research Training Seminar (December, 2017) *Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers on my research proposal, research design, and methodological underpinnings.* **Applied Linguistics Lunchtime Roundtable** (March, 2018) *Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers on my proposal on adopting the method of 'systematic scoping reviews' as a survey of relevant literature on my DPhil project* **Cambridge Kaleidoscope** (April, 2018) *Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers and academics on my master's thesis, research design, methodological underpinnings, and findings.* **BAAL 2018** (September, 2018) *Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers and academics on my master's thesis, research design, methodological underpinnings, and findings. BAAL is a British association for research interested in applied linguistics research.* **REAL @ Department of Education, Oxford** (November, 2018) *Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers and academics on my doctoral project, methodology, and potential challenges facing data collection.* **SLC Workshop @ Department of Education, Oxford** (November, 2018) *Hosted an hour-long workshop on systematic review with reference to how I conducted my systematic review in my doctoral project. This workshop was well-attended by master's and doctoral students in the department.*

IConMAME (July, 2019)

Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers and academics on my doctoral project, its methodology, and preliminary findings. This presentation focused on the emerging theme of 'curricular discontinuity' observed between CAL classes across educational levels. IConMAME is a conference for researchers, early-career and experienced, who are specialised in research pertaining to multilingualism and multilingual education.

TCSL 2019 (August, 2019)

Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers and academics on my doctoral project, its methodology, and preliminary findings. This presentation focused on the emerging theme of 'curricular discontinuity' observed between CAL classes across educational levels, as well as a discussion of how such a discontinuity can be contextualised within the current policy milieu. TCSL provides a platform for international and regional researchers interested in Chinese-as-a-second-language research, which has been well-attended by early career researchers and academics from Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and overseas countries where Chinese is being taught as a second or foreign language.

EARLI 2019 (August, 2019)

Presented for 20 minutes and received feedback from peers and academics on my doctoral project. This presentation focused on findings of the systematic review conducted as part of my DPhil project. EARLI is a biannual conference specialised in educational research.

SLC Workshop @ Department of Education, Oxford (November, 2019)

Hosted an hour-long workshop on systematic review with reference to how I conducted my systematic review in my doctoral project. This workshop was well-attended by master's and doctoral students in the department.

SLC Workshop @ Department of Education, Oxford (February, 2021)

Hosted an hour-long virtual workshop on my experiencing of working in the government as an individual with training in educational research. This workshop was well-attended by master's and doctoral students in the department.

In addition to formal presentations, informal meetings and correspondences have been made with doctoral candidates, postdoctoral fellows, academics, and practitioners in the field of education, public policy, and applied linguistics.

12.2. Academic curriculum vitae

Samuel C. S. Tsang

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St. Antony's College, Woodstock Road, Oxford

Qualifications

2017 – present **D.Phil. Candidate in Education, the University of Oxford**

- Specialised in **language and literacy development for immigrant students, sociology of education, migration studies, multiculturalism,** and **multilingualism.**

2012-2013 **M.Sc.** (**Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition**), **the University of Oxford**

- Awarded '**Distinction**' in both coursework and dissertation components of the M.Sc.
- Courses cover **child language acquisition**, **second language acquisition theories**, **teaching methods**, **language learning variables**, **sociolinguistics**, **psycholinguistics**, **language testing,** and **error analysis**.

2008-2012 **B.A.** (**English**) **and B.Ed.** (**Education**), **the Chinese University of Hong Kong and the Hong Kong Institute of Education**

- Attained '**Distinction**' in Teaching Practicum
- Awarded **First Class Honours** in both B.A. & B.Ed.

2011-2012 **Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers Examination** (**LPATE**)

- Awarded '**Certificate of Merit**', the highest achievable language proficiency standard for teachers of English in Hong Kong

2011-2012 **International English Language Testing System** (**IELTS**)

- Attained **8.5** (**VERY GOOD USER**)

Selected Awards and Scholarships

2019 – 2020 **The Great Britain-China Educational Trust**

- The Great Britain-China Educational Trust

2017-2018 **The Hong Kong Jockey Club Charitable Trust Fund**

- Transformational Leadership Programme Scholarship at Oxford University

2017 - 2020 **Education University of Hong Kong**

- Dr. Maggie Koong & Mr. Terry Ng Scholarship for Academic Excellence

2017 - 2020 **The Swire Charitable Trust and St. Antony's College**

- Swire Scholarship (full scholarship)

2016-2017 **The Hong Kong Jockey Club Charitable Trust Fund**

- Leadership and Innovation Programme Scholarship at Harvard University

2014-2015 **Friends of the Art Museum, Chinese University of Hong Kong**
- Art Radar Journalism Scholarship

2012-2013 **China Oxford Scholarship Fund**
- China Oxford Scholarship

2009-2011 **United College, Chinese University of Hong Kong**
- College Head's List (2010-2011)
- Tsang Shiu Tim Scholarship (2010-2011)
- College Head's List (2009-2010)
- Dr P C Woo Memorial Scholarship (2009-2010)

2009-2011 **Hong Kong Institute of Education**
- Honour Student List (2009-2012)

2009-2010 **Faculty of Education, Chinese University of Hong Kong**
- Dean's List (2009-2010)

2009-2012 **The Hong Kong Jockey Club Charitable Trust Fund**
- The Hong Kong Jockey Club Scholarship Scheme (full scholarship)

2008-2009 **Li Po Chun Charitable Trust Fund**
- Li Po Chun Charitable Trust Fund Scholarship

Relevant Experience

Teaching Experience

Language Education
- GM English teacher in **Chinese Y.M.C.A. Secondary School** (2015 – 2017)
- GM English teacher in **STFA Yung Yau College** (2014-2015)
- GM English teacher in **Buddhist Fat Ho Memorial College** (2013-2014)
- Teaching practicum in **YLPMSAA Tang Siu Tong Secondary School** (2011-2012)
- Teaching practicum in **HKMA KS Lo College** (2010-2011)

Non-teaching Experience

Administrative and Academic Positions
- Honorary Research Associate**, Institute of Education, University College London** (**Aug 2019 – Aug 2021**)
- Parttime Research Associate**, C-for-Chinese, a JC Club-funded initiative at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University** (**Jul 2019 – Jun 2020**)
- Parttime Senior Research Assistant**, C-for-Chinese, a JC Club-funded initiative at the University of Hong Kong** (**Sept 2018 – Mar 2019**)
- Parttime Senior Research Assistant**, School Support Service to EM Primary students, an EBD-funded initiative at the University of Hong Kong** (**Sept 2018 – Mar 2019**)
- Board Member**, Athena SWAN Self-assessment Team, Department of Education, University of Oxford** (2017 – 2019)
- HKDSE Marker**, Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority** (2016 – present)
- Choral/Prose/Verse Speaking Coach, **Hong Kong Speech Festival** (2014 – 2017)
- Curatorial Assistant**, the Fairy Tale Project for Ai Weiwei, Department of English, Chinese University of Hong Kong** (2014-2015)
- Research Assistant**, Department of Education, Chinese University of Hong Kong**

(2012 Summer)
- Administrative Officer, **Constitutional and Mainland Affairs Bureau** (**Central Government Office**), **Hong Kong Government** (2011 Summer)
- Administrative Officer, **Jockey Club Scholar Alumni Association**, **The Hong Kong Jockey Club Charitable Trust Fund** (2010-2011)
- Academic Secretary, **United College, Chinese University of Hong Kong** (2009-2010)

Conferences

- EARLI 2019 **in RWTH Aachen University, Germany** (2019)
- Society for Hong Kong Studies Conference at **the University of Hong Kong** (2019)
- TCSL 2019 **in Education University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong** (2019)
- IConMAME 2019 **in Education University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong** (2019)
- IAPSS Conference at **the Universidad Complutense, Madrid** (2019)
- BAAL 2018 in **York St. John University, United Kingdom** (2018)
- OXSICE 2018 in **University of Oxford, United Kingdom** (2018)
- RISE 2018 in **University of Oxford, United Kingdom** (2018)
- TALC 2018 in **University of Cambridge, United Kingdom** (2018)
- UNLEASH 2018 in **National University of Singapore, Singapore** (2018)
- Cambridge Kaleidoscope 2018 in **University of Cambridge, United Kingdom** (2018)
- ASEF Conference in **the University of Teacher Education Zug, Switzerland** (2017)
- Leadership and Innovation Programme in **Harvard University** (2017)
- Teacher Development Seminar in **Tsinghua University** (2016)

Publications

- **Tsang, S. C. S.,** & Murphy, V. (in preparation). Multilingual identities of students learning Chinese as an additional language in postcolonial Hong Kong: A phenomenological case study of designated schooling.
- **Tsang, S. C. S.** (forthcoming). "There would be no project if I were to disregard my own self!": An autoethnography of becoming reflexive as a doctoral student in applied linguistics. In S. Consoli & S. Ganassin (Eds.), *Reflexivity in Applied Linguistics Research: Opportunities, Challenges and Suggestions*.
- **Tsang, S. C. S.**, Lam, C. Y., & Cheng, L. (forthcoming). Intermedia and interculturalism: Practitioners' perspectives on interactive theatre for young ethnic minority students in Hong Kong. *Language and Intercultural Communication*.
- **Tsang, S. C. S.**, Lam, C. Y., & Chan, Y. Y. (in press). A Tale of Two Cities: A Comparative Case Study of a Drama-in-education Programme for Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Pupils in Hong Kong and London. In M. McAvoy & P. O'Connor (Eds.), *The Routledge Companion to Drama in Education*, London: Routledge.
- **Tsang, S. C. S.** (2020). An exploratory study of Chinese-as-an-additional-language teachers' agency in post-1997 Hong Kong: an ecological perspective. Current Issues in Language Planning, https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2020.1725331
- **Tsang, S. C. S.** (2018). R. Bassiouney (eds.), Identity and dialect performance: A study of communities and dialects. New York: Routledge, 2017. Pp. 370. Pb. £30. Language in Society, 47(5), 802-803. doi:10.1017/S0047404518001069
- **Tsang, S. C. S.** (2018). M. Souto-Otero (eds.), Evaluating European education policy-making: privatization, networks and the European Commission, 2015. Pp. 193. Pb. €83. Journal of Education Policy, 34(1), 153-154.