Imagined Professional Identities in International Chinese Language Teacher Education

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Abstract

Learning is a dynamic process of socialisation involving meanings being negotiated as part of identity formation particularly for those who are developing as, or becoming teachers. There needs to be alignment between the curriculum design, learning and the imagined professional identity of becoming Chinese language teachers in the future. A professional identity, which is assumed in and has meaning in an imagined community, is critical to bridge the gap between professional education and future work. Programmes taught in English at East China International University (ECIU) located in China encourage and engage students to invest in English instead of Chinese as their main medium of communication. Teaching Chinese as an International Language (TCIL), as a pathway in Chinese Language International Education (CLIE) designed within a curriculum focused on learning about China at the university, created a challenge because Chinese language teachers who are prepared in a setting where the language of instruction is English share learning outcomes with a pathway in Contemporaray China Studies(CCS). This resulted in their grasp of language knowledge structures to be less specialised in Chinese and Chinese teaching.

This qualitative case study, focusing on a curriculum design preparing Chinese language teachers in the medium of English, involved all six students and utilised semi-structured interviews together with documentary analysis. This thesis reports the impact of curriculum design and language of instruction on students’ actual learning experiences. The focus is on the development of imagined professional identities for future teachers of Chinese whose programme is mostly delivered in English.
Findings indicated that prolonged investment in English language communication detracts from solid domain knowledge in Chinese as an essential component in Chinese language teacher education. The dominance of English in learning with less focus on the content design creates strong social connections to English-speaking contexts as imagined communities, which encouraged the TCIL students to imagine different professional worlds to the detriment of their future in teaching Chinese. I suggest that it is essential that an integrated knowledge structure of Chinese language is part of the TCIL curriculum, which should be delivered in Chinese to collaborate with EMI. In addition, there should be an increased focus on teaching practice as authentic learning in the context of the Chinese teaching profession. I conclude that such changes would play an influential role in forming TCIL students’ imagined professional identity of becoming Chinese language teachers in the future.
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Table of Contents

Abstract .......................................................................................................................... I
Acknowledgements ........................................................................................................ III
Table of Contents ......................................................................................................... IV
List of Tables ................................................................................................................ VII
List of Figures ............................................................................................................... VIII
List of Abbreviations .................................................................................................... IX
Introduction: Creating New Chinese Language Teachers ..........................................1
  The Minimal Use of Chinese in Teaching Chinese Language Teachers ...............2
  The Barriers to the Production of Chinese Language Teachers .......................4
Case Study Context ......................................................................................................4
Significance of the Study ............................................................................................7
Thesis Structure ..........................................................................................................9
Chapter 1: Learning, Language and Identity Work ...................................................10
  1.1 Learning as a Process of Socialisation .............................................................10
    1.1.1 Knowledge structure and presentation .....................................................10
    1.1.2 Communities of practice ........................................................................12
    1.1.3 Authentic learning ...................................................................................13
  1.2 Language Teacher Education ...........................................................................15
    1.2.1 Language of instruction .........................................................................16
    1.2.2 Content and curriculum design ...............................................................17
    1.2.3 Chinese language teacher education .......................................................18
  1.3 Professional Identity Formation ......................................................................22
    1.3.1 Identity and professional identity ............................................................23
    1.3.2 Language and identity ............................................................................24
    1.3.3 Imagined identity and imagined professional identity .........................26
    1.3.4 Professional context in education ............................................................28
  1.4 Further Research Potential ..............................................................................31
  1.5 Summary ..........................................................................................................33
Chapter 2: Exploring Dimensions of TCIL .................................................................34
  2.1 Rationale for Qualitative Methodology ............................................................34
  2.2 Research Aim and Questions .........................................................................34
  2.3 Qualitative Case Study ....................................................................................35
  2.4 Data Collection ...............................................................................................36
    2.4.1 Documents .............................................................................................36
List of Tables

Table 3.1: An outline of the TCIL curriculum ............................................................ 48
Table 3.2: TCIL curriculum in Chinese Language Teacher Education ...................... 53
Table 4.1: Summary of research participants ............................................................. 68
List of Figures

Figure 3.1: Curriculum contents .................................................................................. 50
Figure 3.2: English VS Chinese as the language of instruction .............................. 50
Figure 3.3: Knowledge structure of TCIL ................................................................. 52
Figure 6.1: A conceptualisation of learning to become a language teacher ........... 117
List of Abbreviations

AL: Applied Linguistics
AY: Academic Year
BA: Bachelor of Arts
CCS: Contemporary China Studies
CLEC: Center for Language Education and Cooperation
CLIE: Chinese Language International Education
EAP: English for Academic Purpose
ECIU: East China International University
EdD: Doctor of Education
EMI: English Medium of Instruction
FYP: Final Year Project
Hanban: Office of Chinese Language Council International
L2: Second Language
MoE: Chinese Ministry of Education
PPT: Power Point
PRC: The People’s Republic of China
S1: Semester 1
S2: Semester 2
SLA: Second Language Acquisition
STCSOL: Standards for Teachers of Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages
TCIL: Teaching Chinese as an International Language
TCSOL: Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages
Introduction: Creating New Chinese Language Teachers

The main aim of Chinese language teacher education as a professional training programme is to prepare future Chinese language teachers. Shulman (1987) argues that content, pedagogical and pedagogical content are three types of knowledge in teacher education. East China International University [ECIU] (a fictionalised name for the institution of higher education at the centre of this study) offers an example of such a Chinese language teacher education training programme. Curriculum design and the relevance and appropriateness of its focus are currently under debate by academics, practitioners and students alike. The debate is focused in terms of the relevance of this curriculum for the construction and distribution of content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in Chinese language teacher education. This is due to the interdisciplinary nature of the curriculum which, it has been suggested both anecdotally and formally by academics, practitioners and students, results in a blurring of the aims of the programme (Liu, 1999; Zhang & Bai, 2015; Jiang et al., 2019). Language of instruction is an important issue for this study, as is socialisation into the role of being a teacher. Learning is associated with language and considered to be a process of socialisation within any particular context (Noble et al., 2014; Pavlenko, 2001). This process requires participation in a community of practice (Wenger, 1999; Farnsworth et al., 2016). Investment as commitment to learning (Norton, 1995) is critical in the interactive process of participation in the community where a sense of belonging contributes to identity formation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and is negotiated through engagement, imagination and alignment (Wenger, 1999). The ideal image, or possible self in imagined forms (De Ruyter & Conroy, 2002; Oyserman et al., 2006), is a key component in the negotiating process, and is linked to the groups involved in the developmental process by their desire to become members of ‘imagined communities’ (Anderson, 1991; Norton & Toohey, 2011). This interrelation can be demonstrated in a professional context where imagined professional identity, as an individual version of a professional self (Gazzola, et al., 2011), is gradually being formed to be more fully achieved in the future. Learning with application in real settings, defined as authentic learning (Abdallah, 2015), is very relevant to professionally oriented preparation (Herrington et al., 2004; Oakham, 2001) and to the formation of a professional self related to a professional community of practice.
English has become dominant as the language choice in the internationalisation of higher education (Saarinen, 2012; Sung, 2016) in the global context (De Wit, 2002; De Souza, 2014). ECIU has adopted English as the medium of instruction (EMI) as it perceives advantages in internationalising the university and achieving academic outcomes. Students on the BA programme of Chinese Language International Education (CLIE) at ECIU have intensive learning activities and engagement in English to explore the society of China and the world from comparative perspectives. TCIL is a teaching pathway or track in CLIE programme designed at ECIU alongside the other non-teaching pathway in Contemporary China Studies. To a great extent, TCIL refers to the focus of general CLIE (out of ECIU) for international Chinese language teacher preparation. This research argues that EMI encourages students on the TCIL to engage in learning activities that are different from those designed for teaching Chinese language. Students’ experiences of a broad curriculum designed through modules delivered in English from different academic departments entail a complex learning process to build sufficient knowledge and competence in Chinese language and desire for teaching with social meanings as Chinese language teachers (Noble et al., 2014).

The Minimal Use of Chinese in Teaching Chinese Language Teachers

Currently, the curriculum for TCIL in the BA programme of CLIE at ECIU contains four modules in Chinese language and pedagogy that take only a small proportion of the whole modules, so I explore how students develop enough understanding and investment in learning to become Chinese language teachers given the dominance of English across the curriculum. Considering the general programme aims, there is a need to understand how this learning experience affects students’ imagination of their future professional contexts. Students on the programme are expected or expect to become Chinese language teachers, but a learning process that focuses investment in English competence to teach a language can create confusions, particularly when students are exploring potential careers. Support in preparing students for their future professions is required as a goal of each university. To understand students’ learning experiences and their influence regarding relevant professional practice is meaningful both for themselves and the university. Therefore, it is necessary to understand in what ways and to what effect learning
on the TCIL pathway is shaped by curriculum design and the language of instruction as well as how it has an impact on what students want to become. The research questions are designed as:

- Does the language of instruction influence learners’ understanding of their future professional identity? How?
- Does curricular design influence students’ imagined professional identity? How?
- To what extent do TCIL students’ experiences demonstrate that the aims of Chinese language teacher education are met?

To explore and explain the interrelationship between learning and becoming as a change process, and its impact on imagined professional self-image within this specific context, one cohort of all six students on the pathway of TCIL in the BA programme of CLIE at ECIU was investigated. Using a qualitative case study approach (Guba & Lincoln, 2008), I focused on the dynamic social phenomenon of the TCIL students’ experiences through an analysis of documents and interviews as two sources of evidence (Yin, 2008). The documentary analysis consisted of programme and module specifications, and TCIL students’ teaching practice evaluations, which not only present a clear picture of the curriculum design but also triangulate with the interviews from all the six TCIL students. Additionally, the relevant documents of secondary sources provide an important background of programme design as benchmarks or framework for Chinese teacher education in China. For instance, the Standards for Teachers of Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (STCSOL) as a guideline for Chinese language teachers from Hanban (an institution to provide Chinese language teaching recourses around the world, was replaced by the new name “Center for Language Education and Cooperation” under the MoE in 2020) and educational policy for BA programmes from the MoE. This approach helps to situate and widen the thematic analysis regarding the TCIL students’ understanding of their learning experiences. Out of a total of thirty students on CLIE in AY 2016/17 to 2018/2019, all the six students (one male, five female) on the TCIL pathway participated in this study. Ethical concerns have been considered first through the approval from the university and the programme before conducting this study. The principle of confidentiality and anonymity has been observed at every stage throughout the study. There is no conflict of interest between the researcher and the participants.
The Barriers to the Production of Chinese Language Teachers

This study considers the involvement of English as the instructional language, exploring the interaction between students’ learning experiences and the curriculum design of TCIL in a broadly interdisciplinary context. It focuses on students’ learning experiences as they come to understand themselves in terms of their visions of becoming Chinese language teachers. It therefore entails a deep interpretation of the relationship between curriculum, language and the learning process towards the possibilities of students’ future professional selves. Based on the detailed discovery through interviews and triangulation of documents, dilemmas in the language of instruction and knowledge structure have been found in this study that cover three main areas: 1) learning and teaching the programme in English; 2) practice of teaching Chinese language; and 3) imagining future professional selves.

These three areas generated five important sub-topics:

- language of instruction;
- content and structure;
- teaching role model;
- teaching practice; and
- imagined futures.

The overall research findings revealed that linguistic knowledge in Chinese language was not sufficient and the TCIL design did not present Chinese language teacher education as a strongly specialised discipline for teaching Chinese. Learning in this interdisciplinary pathway of TCIL, which is designed and taught mostly in English, resulted in a process of social participation and negotiation for the TCIL students’ imagination of what they want to become in the future. The emphasis on English language acquisition became a major influence on students, encouraging them to align with the English-speaking groups or situations but feeling hesitant to step into the professional world of teaching Chinese.

Case Study Context
With the world-wide trend of globalization (Held, 2000; Ng, 2012) as “the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, and ideas… across borders” (Knight, 2003, p.3), higher education has taken many initiatives in a dynamic and ongoing process of internationalisation extended from the fields of political science and governmental relations (Knight, 2003). It integrates international resources to update the capability of teaching, research and service as multiple functions in order to respond to the globalisation, increased competition and the marketisation of higher education (De Wit, 2002; Altbach & Knight, 2007; De Souza, 2014) that empowers commercial advantage, knowledge and language acquisition, curriculum enhancement with international content, and many others. International activities, especially academic activities such as import or export of education, partnership, student and staff mobility (De Souza, 2014) have been promoted with a great emphasis on foreign language learning and teaching (Aittola et al., 2009). China has also been reforming higher education for innovations and development through this integration of global networks (Lane & Kinser, 2011), such as transnational forms of higher education (Feng, 2013). The new forms provide resources with flexibilities for students to study in their own countries, rather than travelling to the ones where the awarding institutions are based (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012; Healey & Michael, 2015). Any new form of higher education in China needs to follow local education policy and it must be in collaboration with local universities if there is any partnership with foreign institutions (State Council, 2003).

Fully supported but not funded by the Chinese government, East China International University is a cooperative but independent university which delivers English taught programmes through replicating the British educational model to issue degrees from both the Chinese and British universities (Hussain, 2007; Clark, 2012). In the category of Tier 1 university in China, ECIU takes students from the Gaokao (university entrance exam in China). These students expect to receive a foreign degree without studying abroad, and to gain more opportunities to continue their further study outside China. They expect and are expected to work confidently and competently in an international environment. The ethos of the university brings opportunities as well as challenges in the process of innovation across the organisation.

Teaching Chinese Language as an International Language (TCIL) and Contemporary China Studies (CCS) have been created at the university as two specialisations (pathways) within a
Bachelor’s degree programme in *Hanyu Guoji jiaoyu* [Chinese Language International Education] as the Chinese title, and *China Studies* as the English title. Students will have the degree certification in both versions. The PRC Ministry of Education has renamed the BA programme of *Duiwai Hanyu jiaoxue* [Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages] (TCSOL) as *Hanyu Guoji jiaoyu* [Chinese Language International Education] (CLIE) since 2012 by combining it with two other BA programmes, Chinese Language and Culture, and China Studies (MoE, 2012). The official programme name in Chinese version, *Hanyu Guoji jiaoyu* [Chinese Language International Education] (CLIE) is referred in this study because CLIE is taken as a new version of Chinese language teacher education programme for the international context. As mentioned before, the TCIL pathway in CLIE programme at ECIU is particularly associated with international Chinese language teacher training. CLIE updated by the MoE extends the professional dimensions geographically outside China in terms of being ‘international’, with a wider range of content from the combination of three majors that used to have their respective specialities and future professional possibilities. Due to its disciplinary inquiry (Phenix, 1974), this combination delivers certain flexibilities for graduates to fit in the job market through instilling essential knowledge in a broader sense. However, it potentially leads to diverse orientations of curriculum design that constitute different forms of knowledge presentation as content with respective focus for Chinese Language International Education across universities, following their own characteristics, nature and missions. Different titles in Chinese and in English for the programme at ECIU could bring more complexity.

ECIU aims to explore new models for higher education through educating and preparing students with international perspectives and awareness of global economic and social development. As part of this innovation, the new programme of learning about China from an international perspective could have a great influence in the process of communication between China and the world. With this rationale for the programme and limited choice from MoE’s degree categories, ECIU has been offering the new programme of CLIE with different pathways as required by the MoE and enrolling students since September 2014. The pathway in TCIL is designed for those more concerned to know about Chinese language and literature, in order to teach Chinese and about China to non-Chinese learners, sharing overlapping academic traditions with the pathway in Contemporary China Studies (CCS). The overall design of the
BA programme of CLIE at ECIU aims to combine two pathways of CCS and TCIL. The curriculum is designed in a structure that suits both. However, the wider range of professional possibilities contain a degree of ambiguity, or broader opportunities about future professional possibilities, from the beginning. It is not clear for the potential students how to identify what this BA programme with different titles aims for, which could go some way to explain the small student numbers overall. All students join this BA programme, and only in the second year may they choose to specialise in TCIL. Therefore, students’ initial motivations may not be towards becoming Chinese language teachers. Only small numbers choose to specialise in the teaching option (4 TCIL and 3 CCS in 2016, 1 TCIL and 7 CCS in 2017, 1 TCIL and 14 CCS in 2018), it is important and timely to explore students’ experiences on the TCIL pathway in years three and four to investigate if and how this learning process influences their vision of becoming Chinese language teachers.

**Significance of the Study**

My working background of being a Chinese language teacher, Chinese language programme director, co-chair role in school learning and teaching committee, has created my professional connection to the CLIE programme design and particularly my focus on the TCIL pathway to prepare Chinese language teachers. The TCIL students study in the department of China studies within the university, but taking a few modules delivered by the language department and have teaching practice mentored by some of my colleagues. Module or curriculum changes in language department will go to the school committee and prepare for the final approval at university level. Due to the working connection to Chinese language teaching, I had an informal conversation with a few students after they observed some Chinese language classes. It caught my attention that the TCIL students experienced a special learning process which involves a different curriculum design from other Chinese language teacher education programmes. On the other hand, by leading the Chinese language programmes and working in an English medium university, and later experiencing doctoral study completely in English, I am sometimes both surprised and confused that I subconsciously prefer to read and write in English. I have also developed my interests and willingness to participate in higher education, although with uncertainties in the future. Therefore, my professional background and personal learning experience, both inform this research.
By undertaking this study, I directly contribute to the development of Chinese language teaching by understanding what constitutes good preparation in a four year BA programme set within a cross cultural learning environment in transnational higher education. I highlight some implications for programme design by combining theoretical perspectives with analysis of data from this research. These implications are drawn from an understanding of students’ interaction while learning, the influence of curriculum focus, the impact of instructional language, and students’ vision of their future professional roles identified in formal curriculum learning.

Chinese language teacher education at ECIU as an interdisciplinary programme has been shaped in a transnational environment. It provides a new context and angle to understand the influence of curriculum design with domain knowledge and instructional language, which is explored interpretively in terms of students’ imagined professional identity. The interrelationship between learning and becoming as an ongoing interactive process is interpreted further within this particular context. This then promotes a reflection on the concept of internationalisation at institutional level regarding programme development.

Students participating in the research have been provided an opportunity to navigate their learning directions and understand their learning in the process of deep interpretation and negotiation of their perceived identity. Reflections and discussions open the door to understand who they were as learners and who they might become in the future. This study creates a dialogic relationship between the participants themselves and the programme, which is important for their vision of learning and its social connections, and for eventually better understanding the transition from university to future work (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008; Reid et al., 2011).

My research in higher education intends to inform how to engage learning through designing a particular curriculum that refers to knowledge practices and language, which therefore can create a process of forming learners’ future professional identities, in the direction of achieving the specific programme outcomes. What is explored in this research can potentially influence policy implementation for transnational higher education in China, with flexibility and diver-
sity underpinning the creation of new programmes but following a structured and clear professional orientation. The combination of three disciplinary majors as one category in a new programme of Chinese Language International Education (CLIE) might require a more comprehensive review of the professional focuses of different degree pathways at ECIU with specialised aims and contents for each.

**Thesis Structure**

This Introduction has briefly summarised and outlined the study regarding research background, main issues, research rationale and focus, condensed findings, case study context, and the significance of the study. In Chapter 1, relevant literature is analysed in the key fields of social and contextual learning, language teacher education and professional identity formation. Important concepts related to knowledge structure, authentic learning, community of practice, language of instruction, curriculum design, language and identity, are discussed. Through this process, research gaps in the field of Chinese language teacher education have been identified. Chapter 2 presents the research questions which emerged from the literature review and explains the research methodology used to address them. A systematic process of data collection and analysis, with consideration of ethical concerns, is then outlined. Because of the rich and in-depth data, documentary analysis and interview findings are presented in two separate chapters with respective focus and justification. Chapter 3 encompasses the documentary analysis, describing the context, programme, curriculum design, module feedback from students. It then outlines the identified themes. Chapter 4 explores the participants’ profiles, main themes and evidentiary support of how the learning process affected their professional identity formation as becoming Chinese language teachers through participants’ responses and perspectives. Discussion in Chapter 5 brings together the findings from the research and theoretical perspectives offered by the literature review in order to answer the research questions and achieve the study purpose, providing insights with theoretical and practical implications as demonstrated in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 comprises the final conclusion, reflections on the study limitations, and recommendations for future research.
Chapter 1: Learning, Language and Identity Work

Relevant areas of literature to the study are explored here to establish and then situate this new research in the field of Chinese language teacher education. This study considers learning as a process of socialisation for students on the TCIL pathway to become Chinese language teachers. The key concepts I use to inform my research are social and contextual learning, language teacher education, and professional identity formation. This work engages in the discussion by using the key terms: knowledge structure, authentic learning, community of practice, language of instruction, curriculum design, language and identity, professional identity and imagined identity.

1.1 Learning as a Process of Socialisation

The word socialisation in a broad sense is “the process by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that make them more or less effective members of their society” (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.3). Closely associated with language and educational programmes, learning is argued to be a process of dynamic social construction within contexts (Vélez-Rendón, 2010; Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013; Noble et al., 2014; Denardi & Gil, 2015; Colmer, 2017), negotiating a sense of belonging (Wenger, 1999) along with possible self (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yost et al., 1992; Ibarra, 1999). Learning is considered as socialisation that reflects an interactive process of practice in particular communities as situated participation (Pavlenko, 2001), and therefore it transforms who we are and what we can do (Wenger, 1999). Instead of a simple process of accumulating knowledge and skills, it is rather a process of becoming or avoiding becoming someone with a certain social connection (Wenger, 1999; Pavlenko, 2001). It is an important lens to perceive students’ learning on the TCIL pathway. Learning for social meaning construction as identity formation cannot be contextually free or without social interactions (Noble et al., 2014).

1.1.1 Knowledge structure and presentation
Knowledge presentation in a structure for discourse arrangement has been addressed and discussed by different researchers and scholars. Miller (1963) reports that *structure* is defined as the main part of concepts that restrict the subject and its relevant research, and Miel (1963) takes it as a set of principles that are interrelated, but abstract and static regarding learners (Tanner, 1966). In recent years, knowledge structure has received particular attention with respect to its key relation to what and how something is taught (Gamble, 2014). The primary concept of pedagogic discourse refers to curriculum knowledge and practice with specialised content and skills, which has been claimed to be different from but linked to the knowledge discourse (Bernstein, 2000) because the former carries the power of relations. Connected with its social context, Luckett (2009) has discussed the effect of knowledge structure and how it could turn into a curriculum, which is then organised to become structured series of intended learning achievements (Johnson, 1967). The process of curricular arrangement by selecting the content, order, pace and evaluative criteria for learning is enabled or constrained by the form of knowledge structure (Luckett, 2009). Bruner (1960) views curriculum as a growing and changing enterprise that often loses its original form with a guiding idea, reflecting the nature of knowledge, the nature of the knower as well as the process of acquisition. Nevertheless, if knowledge structure is perceived as content of curriculum for specialised knowledge forms, then a specific pedagogic method is required to achieve the realisation of knowledge (Gamble, 2014). In addition, presentation of materials in any form with a logical order is easier to learn (Oliver et al., 2008) while it is hard to remember without a structure to tie the knowledge together (Bruner, 1960).

However, if knowledge is presented as specific skills or topics without any clear context in the broader but fundamental structure of that subject field, this can make it difficult to build connections between what is learned and what is encountered later (Bruner, 1960). Influenced by the social context, the distinct differences in the characteristics of knowledge are generally described as ritual or rational (Reid et al., 2011). The former is included in learning as formal procedures without a clear rationale, the latter is either substantive for particular social settings, or generic for application without specific content requirement across various disciplines. Therefore, the forms of knowledge presentation with different characteristics can affect students’ learning experience regarding the transition (Reid et al., 2011). This frames how I look into the TCIL curriculum. The lack of information about what is required in a particular situation encourages generic knowledge presented in learning (Barnett, 2000). Students learn more
and develop their sense of confidence if the material is meaningful and relevant to them in their perceived roles by learning in context. Knowledge here cannot be limited to information accumulation but rather lived practices, and thereby the learning process is negotiated in what people do through particular activities contextually (Chaiklin & Lave, 1996).

1.1.2 Communities of practice

Social theories of learning claim that participation in social activities is central in the process of learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This has led to the environment in which people engage in learning being termed as ‘communities of practice’. A sense of belonging in the socialisation of learning can be negotiated in this process that includes the three dimensions of engagement, imagination and alignment for particular communities through social activities (Wenger, 1999). These communities of practice are formulated by groups of people who share common interests and goals for improvement as a process of collective learning (Wenger, 1999). The community of practice requires three elements: ‘the domain’ that can be distinguished from other groups of people, ‘the community’ that is associated with interactive learning, and ‘the practice’ that involves sustained knowledge sharing. This particularly contributes to exploring the TCIL learning and teaching practice because the specific group of students on the programme are learning how to teach Chinese language. Norton (2000) argues that the process of engagement with and participation in new communities of practice can form certain identities, through gaining the voice and the power in that social world (Bourdieu, 1977).

Participation in a community of practice can enhance experiences of developing expertise (Nistor et al., 2014), revealing the relationship between domain knowledge, community of practice and time spent in the community for the negotiation of a specific role (Novakovich et al., 2017). However, different criticisms or concerns have been raised for the notion of communities of practice. This is especially in terms of learning through participation, which mainly covers the topics on the limitation of innovation, unequal relationship, identification of community boundaries, and autonomous subjectivity (Mulcahy, 2011). It is also difficult to identify the boundaries between communities of practice, preferences or predispositions, as subjectivity may restrict absorbing and creating new knowledge (Roberts, 2006). Feedback from professionals and specialist experiences from teacher educators take the important role in language
teacher education since there is a close relationship between power and knowledge (Reid et al., 2011), which can be generated in the community of practice. The TCIL students’ participation and evaluation of their performance in teaching practice, to a large extent, are also associated with professional Chinese language teachers’ response to the practice. It may be perceived as a dominant source from experts (Roberts, 2006), which could exclude participation in some way. In some cases, community gains more attention than practice does in application (Brown & Duguid, 1991). Communities of practice can create conditions that lead to alternative learning outcomes (Fuller, 2013).

To summarise based on the current literature, communities of practice should not be interpreted just as a group. Rather it can be considered as a social learning process (Farnsworth et al., 2016) through which individuals’ competence of knowledge in a domain is practiced and accelerated while their social meanings are negotiated. Importantly, learning through practice appears to shape identity as becoming. Hence, the knowledge of Chinese language teacher education can be thought of as an invitation to students into a meaningful way of being. As argued by Farnsworth et al. (2016), curriculum design should not be structured as the production of objective knowledge but shaped with a focus on learning contexts where a vision of identity can be promoted. Learners are viewed as historically and socially situated agents while learning is perceived as growing participation in a community of practice (Lantolf, 2000). Contu and Willmott (2003) therefore argue for an emphasis on situated learning associated with contexts as specific classification.

1.1.3 Authentic learning

Originating from situated learning, where learning takes place in the same context where it is applied (Abdallah, 2015), authentic learning combines learning with application in real situations. This helps students react easily in real decision-making settings, and develops competences during learning (Weliwita & Witharana, 2019). This notion is closely relevant to preparing students in professionally oriented fields (Herrington et al., 2004; Oakham, 2001), e.g. teaching a language.
Although it shares a number of common concepts with situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), authentic learning presents several different practical models (Herrington et al., 2004). The apprenticeship model engages participants directly in a particular profession and as part of a workplace, usually in a context that involves professional mentors (Baccarini, 2004; Oakham, 2001). The simulated model seeks to move real-world activities into the classroom as authentic work. For instance, demonstration or role taking in learning (Herrington & Oliver, 2000, Bennett et al., 2005). The enminding model of taking students, activities in class, the discipline and the relevant profession as part of the real world, requires a high level of engagement and thinking through the connection of students themselves, the learning process and the application in the real setting (Stein et al., 2004; Tochon, 2000; Borthwick et al., 2007). The authentic context in general engages learners in a real professional world with inquiry activities, which can enable them to practice their high level of thinking as reflection and empower their knowledge construction alongside discourse. Therefore, they are able to make choices in a learning community or professional community (Rule, 2006). This means knowledge construction as learning is situated in practice within a particular social environment (Barab & Duff, 2000; Abdallah, 2015). In relation to this research, it provides guidance to analyse the interrelationship of a teacher, education programme, and its authentic context.

Situated language learning emphasises the authentic setting and realistic context (Felix, 2002) in which the target language can be used to communicate through participating in learning activities. Authentic language learning can be perceived as an approach of learning through genuine materials in real world (Abdallah, 2015). It is powerful to capture and borrow the similarity to the real-world activities in designing a process of learning, because this connection of outside formal classes to learning through authentic pedagogy for instruction and evaluation is strongly associated with students’ learning achievement (Newman, 1998). In TCIL, the target language is Chinese. Authentic context of learning to teach Chinese could refer to learning in Chinese for Chinese language teaching community. Universities or higher educational institutions play a key role in providing an authentic learning environment (Weliwita & Witharana, 2019) which includes professionally oriented programmes.

The systematic knowledge structure of what students need to know in teaching Chinese is fundamental to prepare students’ professional competence in language teacher education. In
the curriculum of TCIL, the presentation of knowledge in English is closely related to students’ participation in the relevant learning community. This may not be necessarily about Chinese or teaching Chinese because they also have modules focusing on China Studies. Meanwhile, the knowledge application in the Chinese language teaching community of practice is supposed to reflect the authentic learning in terms of its social connection.

1.2 Language Teacher Education

Language teacher education here mainly indicates foreign language teacher education or in some situations, second language teacher education, and draws on various disciplinary domains for the content sources including linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and education, which may lack a coherent and common agreed set of terms due to many different knowledge fields (Richards, 1998). Historically, language teacher education has been formed by the core knowledge of applied linguistics (Crandall, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1997). Freeman (2001) also claims that programmes of language teacher education have considerable attention on English as subject matter, with a focus on the disciplines of linguistics and literature, for instance. However, theories and practice of general education has had a significant influence on language teacher education (Richards, 1998; Johnson, 1996; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). This places language teacher education in a position as “a microcosm of teacher education” (Crandall, 2000, p.34), although language teacher education requires language contexts (Braine, 2013). In this sense, Johnson and Freeman (2001) have raised the concern that most language teacher education programmes are designed with general theories and methods applicable in any teaching context without usable content knowledge in learning to teach the language (Ball, 2000; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Curricular content needs to be appropriate and instructional processes need to be effective in language teacher education programmes (Richards, 1998). Chinese language as the core content is essential in Chinese language teacher education. On the other hand, the social dimension from teacher education should be taken into account because teaching is socially defined (Roberts, 2016) and learning to teach is socially negotiated (Johnson & Freeman, 2001). This is the same situation for learning to teach Chinese.
1.2.1 Language of instruction

The influence of English has become more significant to cope with the globalisation, increased competition and the marketisation of higher education for many initiatives and new forms of higher education as part of internationalisation (Altbach & Knight, 2007). English has been increasingly and widely recognised as the language choice for international activities, which promotes English in language education (Bottery, 2000; Chang, 2006). New forms of higher educational institutes also have been shaped through English as a language tool for innovation and collaboration, such as transnational or joint-venture universities and overseas campuses. The rapid increase of international educational mobility has established EMI curriculum and programmes (Altbach & Knight, 2007) and encouraged the trend of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education (Kirkpatrick, 2011). Many universities in this type focus on the role of English language (Doiz et al., 2012).

English as a global language historically grew through the spread of British colonial power and its central role also has been strengthened by the influence of America in the last century (Chang, 2006). The influential position of English has been now widely accepted in the context of globalisation. Economic and social globalisation has promoted English further as an international lingua franca in various areas (Warschauer et al., 2002) including in higher education. ‘Englishisation’ is therefore considered as the prevalence of English in internationalisation that goes towards linguistic homogeneity rather than linguistic diversity (Saarinen, 2012). In this sense, English can be perceived as a form of western cultural colonialism (Hopkyns, 2020). Meanwhile, from the perspective of functionalism, it is argued that English as a global language is ‘native culture free’ (Pölzl, 2003). Despite of the tension between the global and the local in terms of authenticity, it is therefore emphasized that the combination of using both English and local languages should be encouraged for any innovation, however, it is based on time and space as well as interactive patterns (Hopkyns, 2020).

Universities of nations where English is not the official language tend to use English as the medium of instruction in order to attract diverse students and staff to their programmes (Kirkpatrick, 2011). This results in ‘Englishisation’ of the curriculum (Shimauchi, 2018). On the
one hand, EMI clearly assists students to access wide resources in English, on the other hand, it is risky to rely on academic information written or presented in English because that could cause knowledge presentation gap in an authentic (language) context. It is argued that “the real meaning of globalisation is multilingualism” (Shohamy, 2007, p.132), but English has been commonly accepted as the global language and taken for granted as the language to internationalise higher educational institutions (Sung, 2016). In reality, what these programmes provided in English language are trying to achieve cannot be national context free (Brown, 2017). With the consideration of diverse students and staff, it needs to be asked which language should be chosen to deliver a programme or a course, and it also requires us to think about both the nature of the discipline and the language of a particular workplace (Xu, 2014).

In terms of language teacher education, the majority of the literature mainly relate to English language and English language teaching. Although Zhang (2017) did find that communication in class could be promoted by using Chinese in teaching English to Chinese students, immersion programmes for improving the English of Chinese English language teachers is greatly needed. This supports the importance of English as the language of instruction in learning to strengthen Chinese English language teachers’ knowledge and skills for their profession. This offers a useful perspective to look at the language of instruction in language teacher education.

1.2.2 Content and curriculum design

Shulman (1987) argues that teacher education curricula, in a holistic sense, is designed with knowledge that consists of three core dimensions: content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. This therefore indicates the importance of interrelation by relating pedagogy to content. With regard to language, Gower and Walters (1983) added some specific language teaching skills to language teacher education, such as, presenting language, using dialogues and texts. Later, Richards (1998) proposed six domains of content to constitute the core knowledge base for Second Language Teacher Education: theories of teaching, teaching skills, communication skills, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and contextual knowledge.
The epistemological gap between how to prepare language teachers and how language teachers learn to work has been identified in Second Language Teacher Education that focuses on the English language (Johnson, 2006). Research on English language teacher education debated the topic of ‘core knowledge’, and whether it should be about the nature of language and acquisition (Yates & Muchishky, 2003), or learning how to teach (Freeman & Johnson, 2004). Widdowson (2002) argues for the uniqueness of a language teacher that requires different knowledge of the subject for its specialisation and how to teach it. This is because the specialised concepts and disciplinary knowledge constitute the theoretical basis for the field of language teaching (Richards, 1998). Duff (2008) claims the main components of knowledge and skills for language teachers that include linguistic as content knowledge, learning and teaching as pedagogical knowledge, apart from cultural and contextual areas. However, pedagogical content knowledge has been particularly addressed as an important component in English language teacher education (Zhan, 2008).

There is an agreement about the importance of theories of language for ‘what it is’ and theories of language acquisition for ‘how it is learned’. However, this does not result in effective language teaching in practice according to Freeman and Johnson (1998; 2004; 2013). Sustained time for learning and reflecting as well as opportunities for constructive feedback have been emphasised for their importance in language teacher education (Bax, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1994; Hayes, 1995; Crandall, 2000). Practical learning with social meaning that closely relates to subject matter and language was highly perceived as the influencing factor to student teachers in terms of teaching behaviours (Zhan, 2008). Student teachers as learners can benefit in constructivist learning environments of social interaction, reflection, feedback and can in turn bring this learning experience to their future students through constructivist teaching (Roberts, 2016).

1.2.3 Chinese language teacher education

To narrow down from language teacher education to specific Chinese language teacher education, teaching Chinese as a foreign language was established in 1985 as a major in China’s higher education (Attaran & Yishuai, 2018). Various disciplines such as linguistics, education, culture, sociology and psychology, have a fundamental influence on the theoretical basis of the
field of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (TCSOL). However, specific Chinese linguistics, Chinese language teaching theories and approaches, Chinese language acquisition and research method construct the core theories of TCSOL (Liu, 1999). These components alongside Chinese language teaching practice, formulate an inter-discipline of Chinese language teacher education instead of pure linguistics (Liu, 1999). In terms of interdisciplinary support, Zhao (2004) replaced sociology with philosophy while Li, M. (2011) removed sociology. Liu (2017) then generalised them into linguistics, culturology and education.

As for the discipline of Chinese language teacher education and its aims, some agree that it is supported by Chinese language and literature as well as applied linguistics (Cui, 2015) and it is then defined as the discipline of Chinese linguistics and culture (Wang & Zhu, 2013). Lv (1989) argues it should not be taken as applied linguistics as it is a discipline of education that aims to teach a language (Liu, 2001). Some scholars argue this discipline belongs to humanities and social sciences with inter-disciplinary characteristics because Chinese language and culture, foreign language and culturology, education, culture, communication, psychology, art, international relations are all the supporting disciplines in which Chinese language and literature play a leading role. Therefore, the aims are Chinese language teaching, Chinese language and culture communication (Li & Jia, 2011). The complex disciplinary foundation can lead to an unclear identification of Chinese language teacher education, indistinct aims, and fragmented interdisciplinary development (Jiang et al., 2019).

However, the primary goal of the discipline, whether at undergraduate degree or masters degree level, is to prepare qualified Chinese language teachers to teach speakers of other languages (Zhao & Huang, 2010; Chen, 2017). A systematic curriculum of Chinese language teacher education has been developed in the field which mostly focuses on linguistic, language teaching, literature and culture, Chinese and foreign languages (Shi, 2008). In 2012, Chinese language and culture, China Studies, and Duiwai Hanyu jiaoxue [Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages] (TCSOL) as three majors were combined into a new BA programme of Hanyu guoji jiaoyu [Chinese Language International Education] (CLIE) by the Chinese Ministry of Education (MoE). This was aiming to prepare students with solid Chinese language knowledge and comprehensive understanding of Chinese literature, culture and intercultural communication, in order to work in teaching Chinese language and cultural exchanges (MoE,
The degree programmes can only be offered in a university in China if they are approved officially by the MoE. This new discipline has been extended to an international level beyond Chinese language teaching to speakers of other languages in China (Wu, 2010; Liu, 2017). Li (2013) and Wu (2016) discuss the interplay and balance in the roles of Chinese Language International Education as both discipline and enterprise. To provide a guideline that can be in line with the aims of Chinese language teacher education, Hanban addressed the general criteria for being an international Chinese language teacher in the STCSOL that consists of language, class, culture, communication as well as professional ethics (Hanban, 2012). Foreign language ability is required as a tool to assist in class, and in daily and social communication, while Chinese as the language of instruction is promoted in teaching (Yang & Lin, 2012).

Due to an unclear scope of the curriculum, the direction of Chinese Language International Education (CLIE) as an interdisciplinary major is not focused and the aims are blurred (Zhang & Bai, 2015). Different universities understand and present the programme aims in various forms with different preferences (Wang & Zhu, 2013). Curriculum design needs to be systematic and logical to realise the objectives of its subject or relevant discipline (Yang, J. 2010; Wang & Zhu, 2013). Programme aims are the basis for curriculum design which should be developed according to disciplinary aims. Curriculum structure and content follow the professional programme aims and reflect the training intention (Wang & Zhu, 2013). The different focuses of programme aims lead different curriculum arrangements and designs with respect to the ratio of relevant module groups in knowledge structure and their credits and hours (Yang, J. 2010).

To prepare Chinese language teachers, as indicated above, some argue for more attention on culture and history, others value applied linguistics and teaching methodologies (Li, 2007). Chinese literature and cultural studies are major components, but a more important focus should be teaching methodology (Yang & Zhao, 2009). Specific learning modules from both the major of Chinese language and culture and the major of English language and culture cannot be simply shifted in the programme of Chinese Language International Education as the target language and context are different (Jin & Fu, 2011). Nevertheless, the curriculum has been designed in some universities as a simple sum of courses from the Chinese language and culture major and English major modules, with less focus on Chinese language teaching and
pedagogy, causing concerns about student teachers’ teaching skills and class management (Wang & Zhu, 2013). For the new programme of Chinese Language International Education, knowledge and skills should cover linguistics, literature, culture and education (Wang & Zhu, 2013). However, it cannot be a simple repetition and combination of Chinese language, culture, foreign language and education (Yang & Lin, 2012). Based on the aim of this updated discipline from MoE for a broader career path, the programmes in many universities are mainly pieced together from Chinese major and foreign (English) language major modules. This makes it confusing due to an attempt to learn everything without specific criteria regarding language knowledge (Chen, 2017). The multi-disciplinary characteristics based on various supporting disciplinary areas, as well as contextual elements of foreign languages and cross-cultures, have brought up significant issues regarding the relationships of each disciplinary foundation in designing the curriculum. For example, the ratio of foreign (English) language and Chinese language. Liu (2011) argues that language is fundamental, culture is central, pedagogy is critical and teacher competence is the target.

Research has found challenges in teaching Chinese to international learners due to the disconnection between curriculum design of Chinese language education programmes and the requirements of educational contexts (Duff & Lester, 2008; Moloney, 2013; Wang et al., 2013). It is difficult to achieve the goal of teaching Chinese without a solid and systematic knowledge of Chinese language in the core curriculum despite high level of teaching skills (Lu, 2005; Wang, 2011; Li, Q. 2012; Chen, 2017). Linguistic knowledge is highlighted as an indispensable part in preparing Chinese language teachers (Orton, 2011; Attaran & Yishuai, 2018; Jiang, 2012; Li, M. 2011), especially the thorough knowledge of modern Chinese (Wang & Zhu, 2013; Wei, 2014) and the value of ancient Chinese (Li, H. 2012; Yan, 2013). Second foreign languages other than English have also been proposed (Ma, 2003; Wei, 2014; Chen, 2015; Zhang & Bai, 2015) including some modules delivered in foreign language or dual-language for Chinese language teacher education, in order to improve student teachers’ foreign language ability (Jiang, 2009). However, Liu and Chen (2016) emphasise more courses in Chinese to strengthen the target language. On the other hand, some researchers argue for more attention to the pedagogies of Chinese language teaching instead of focusing on linguistic knowledge (Wang et al., 2013). Additionally, education and psychology are formalised for their relevant contribution to the curriculum (Zhang & Bai, 2015; Yang & Zhao, 2009; Liu & Chen, 2016).
For Chinese language teacher education, the content knowledge is argued to be taught in Chinese (Wang, 2011). Apart from fundamental and broad knowledge, the importance of pedagogical content knowledge requiring teaching practice has shown the key role of teaching practicum in Chinese language teacher training (Shi, 2008; Yang & Lin, 2012; Yan & Fu, 2013; Liu, W. 2011). The connection between practice and theory needs teaching practicum operation within the institution (Li, 2007), as well as an internship through collaboration abroad (Wang & Zhu, 2013; Liu & Chen, 2016). Therefore, various forms of teaching practice have been promoted in terms of time, method, and structure (Yang, H. 2010; Yang, 2013; Hong & Zhao, 2013; Liu, 2017). This then contributes to meaningful knowledge construction associated with the professional context.

TCIL as the focus of Chinese language teacher education in CLIE at ECIU covers various disciplinary content in English without a solid content of Chinese in the curriculum design. In terms of a meaningful interrelation of what to teach and how to teach, students’ reaction and reflection are important to understand and apply the pedagogical content knowledge in learning and practice, which is critical in the process of understanding the programme and developing a vision of professional identity as Chinese language teacher.

1.3 Professional Identity Formation

Individual tendencies or preferences could be linked to the choice of becoming a teacher as a vision of professional identity or professional profile before a student enter the university. However, the academic learning process might also affect their professional image (Biasin et al., 2012). Social learning theory of participation, engagement and negotiation for a particular meaning within the context (Wenger, 1999) provides useful insights into the influence of education related to the workplace on professional identity formation. It also allows certain adjustments in terms of curriculum design (Noble et al., 2015). Universities actually play a critical role in the process of developing students’ future professional identities through structured curricula and learning experiences (Noble at al., 2014). This means that educational programme and curriculum design can be conceived as an “explicit socialisation project” (Hall & Burns, 2009, p.65) with “valuable nature of the profession involved” (Trede et al., 2012, p.382).
1.3.1 Identity and professional identity

As a person’s image, identity is constructed and negotiated in particular contexts (Gee, 2000) through social interactions (Cooley, 2017; Goffman, 2010). It consists of various dimensions attached to a person seen by themselves and others (Gecas, 1982). The construction of certain identities is “a dynamic process of identification by which individuals classify their place in the world as both individuals and members of collectives” (Goldie, 2012, p.641). During this process, individuals not only navigate who they are but also who they are not (Jenkins, 2008), through activities and relationships with different groups that may have a great impact (Ashmore et al., 2004). These negotiable relations of power indicate the process of identification is dynamic with mutual influences (Goldie, 2012), emphasising the sense of belonging to a particular group that attaches to the attitudes and feelings of security and inclusion (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). The sense of belonging acts as a key component to develop a self-image or self-concept (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Goldie, 2012). Specifically, a sense of be(com)ing takes shape gradually through consistent participation within a particular community where it generates a growing social experience for identity formation (Wenger, 1999). *Becoming* as a concept of identity formation is different from *being*. Scanlon (2011) argues that *being* something indicates the arrival at a static point of certain criteria, *becoming* highlights the procedural characteristic of formation. The work of identity is ongoing and can be seen as negotiated experience in the sense of being part of a community, as well as a learning trajectory (Wenger, 1999). Identity can only be understood as a process of ‘becoming’ rather than ‘being’ (Jenkins, 2008), as identifying someone is a matter of meaning which involves negotiation that is taken as interaction.

Relating the concept of identity to a particular community or profession, *professional identity* is constructed within this specific social context as the sense of being a professional (Paterson et al., 2002). Different from academic identity within the context of academic activities, professional identity is developed and affected by the interactions and experiences within certain professional surroundings (Noble et al., 2014). This means it cannot be isolated from actual social practice (Howard, 1992). Although it requires active and constructive development, professional identity is a relatively stable concept that defines a professional role in terms of its values, attributes, experiences (Schein, 1978; Ibarra, 1999). Professional becoming is not a
conventional explanation of being a professional, but an emphasis on the process of developing a professional self. The sense of becoming a Chinese language teacher is developed from an epistemological aspect of meaning while ontologically requiring knowledge preparation for professional competence. However, rather than simple knowledge acquisition and transfer from study to work, this dynamic process of becoming is a critical function of how we understand learning and its relationship to the future work (Scanlon, 2011). With respect to a career role in the social world, professional identity formation is expected to grow as a process and a structure for individuals to refer to, linking their intentions and competences to complement formal training from education (Holden et al., 2012).

**1.3.2 Language and identity**

Language is not simply conceived of as a medium for communication, or understood as linguistic structures of words and sentences, and it should be argued to have a social meaning of interaction and participation with a reference to social becoming (Norton, 2010; Norton, 2016). In other words, language is not just about linguistic systems for theoretical analysis, it is related to interactive practice in social context where experiences can take place as “the site of identity construction” (Ros i Solé, 2004; Norton, 2010). It is necessary to reflect that learning a language can increase a learner’s capacity to claim more powerful identities by speaking, reading and writing the target language (Norton, 1995). Attention to social practices is required for language learning in contexts where learners integrate resources to form and reform their identities regarding those contexts (Norton & Toohey, 2001). Social identity is then given meaning in a way that individual learners interpret their relationship with the world they participate in (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p.31). Therefore, identity influences language learning, and on the other hand, language learning shapes identity. Both are “mutually constitutive” (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p.32).

The focus on the value of language use in the tradition of Cultural Studies concerns ongoing identity construction, and this covers both personal identity and desire for particular social roles (Le Page & Tabouret-Keller, 1985). This reflects “linguistic acts as acts of identity” (Risager, 2006, p.74) and linguistic practice embodying cultural practice (Kramsch, 2004). The inseparable connection of language in socialisation to the development of cultural identities has been
highlighted since the 1990s (Risager, 2006). However, it is possible to demonstrate that language and culture are not necessarily inseparable in multilingual or multicultural contexts due to the practical aspect of language choice. Deterritorialisation by the effect of globalisation on cultural practice means that languages and cultures can become free from the territorial ties as a result of increasing mobility and interconnectivity at a global level (Pujolar et al., 2011). Language localisation and the process of globalisation particularly refers to the different ways of positioning English in different contexts (Bolton & Kachru, 2006). The choice of English indicates the complexity of an identity dimension that requires the connection of its differential characteristics at local level to its global status, in order to avoid exclusion of understanding (Risager, 2006). This perspective presents a different context by delinking culture and language, but emphasising contextual learning and participation to understand and to form social roles, such as being an international Chinese language teacher. There is no denial that language is free from culture, but it could focus more on other elements, such as professional context and global context.

Second language and foreign language are usually interpreted as the same term in language teacher education. However, a second language is primarily for socialisation outside the first linguistic community, such as during education or at work. In contrast, a foreign language learner aims to be familiar with the history of that language and grammatical structure, specifically in order to use the language for general reading and speaking (Risager, 2006). In this sense, English in the TCIL curriculum is identified as a second language. Because of globalisation and transnational mobility, the language function glides from a foreign language towards a second language (Holmen & Risager, 2003) when it dominates international communication such as English at present (Risager, 2006, p.9). The influence of a second language (e.g. English) socialization, through participation in its relevant community, may entail a great change in how second language users understand themselves (Pavlenko, 1998; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). The ongoing process of identity construction is closely involved with learning in contexts (Norton & Mckinney, 2011). Bruner (1960) argues that it is an educational process that empowers language learners with not only knowledge, but importantly also with beliefs and values which reflect the social aspects of that language group as a community (Rubenfeld, et al., 2007).
The notion of investment as commitment to learning (Norton, 1995) and using the language is critical in the interactive process of participating in a particular group as community (Wenger, 1999). Informed by the work of Bourdieu (1977; 1991) as an economic metaphor (Norton & Toohey, 2011), the dynamic term ‘investment’ was introduced into language learning by Norton, interpreting the constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their intentional desire to learn and practice it as learning commitment (Norton, 1995; 2013). Investment in the target language helps learners acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which in turn accelerate the value of their cultural capital and social power (Norton, 2013). The knowledge, experiences, qualifications and ways of thinking that characterise different classes and groups constitute cultural capital (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990), with exchange value as ‘currency’ in different social worlds (Norton & Toohey, 201). Closely associated with learners’ desire to become (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990), this can claim social power for respective social identities (Norton & Toohey, 2011). Being aware of the social aspect in relation to Chinese or English in TCIL, it tends to reposition a language learner’s identity (Ros i Solé, 2004), because “an investment in the target language is in fact an investment in the learners’ own identity” with certain culture, attitudes, perceptions relevant to the language (Norton & Gao, 2008, p.110). Investment in a language and learning is associated with an understanding of the learner’s relationship to the society across time and space, how that relation is set up, and what can be interpreted as possibilities for the future (Norton, 2013). A vision of what it looks like in the future as imagination in the process of identification mutually interplays with the intention of learning and using as a form of investment.

1.3.3 Imagined identity and imagined professional identity

Identity in any category is never permanent or fixed as it is negotiated within contexts. The ideal identity in an imagined form is composed of the images of what a person would like to be, in terms of being in a particular situation or having specific characteristics (De Ruyter & Conroy, 2002). This imagined identity is a key concept and stage in the process of identity formation. These possible selves, adopted from adolescent psychology into the field of identity (Oyserman et al., 2006), are the ideal selves that people would like to become, could become, and perhaps sometimes fear to become (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yost et al., 1992). Anderson
(1991) first created the term ‘imagined communities’, referring to groups of people who establish linkages through imagination and desire to become. Imagining ourselves tied to groups of others across time and space as an extension of social context, we can have a sense of community with those we have not met and perhaps may never meet (Anderson, 1991). It is an important form of belonging to a specific community of practice (Wenger, 1999). The relationship between imagined communities and imagined identities was brought into the language field by Norton (2001) and developed further with a focus on the future when learners vision who they might be in an imagined form as their aspirations to become part of what their communities might be (Wenger, 2000; Norton & Toohey, 2011). Direct involvement in group practices and engagement in concrete relationships (Wenger, 1999) are not the only way we are part of a community, imagination is another meaningful source of engagement in learning for a desired community that offers augmented possibilities of identity choices in the future (Pennycook, 2001; Norton, 2010). “An imagined community assumes an imagined identity” (Norton & Toohey, 2011, p.415) and it makes sense to interpret a learner’s investment in the target language as a meaningful interrelationship. The desired memberships in the present communities, as well as imagined future communities, can influence learners’ access to particular social settings and learning opportunities (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007; Norton & Toohey, 2011). This allows exploration of how learners’ affiliations with those imagined communities affect their learning trajectories (Norton & McKinney, 2011), because learners who have real engagement in these imagined communities “might even have a stronger impact on their current actions and investment” (Norton & McKinney, 2011, p.76).

The construction of possible selves as imagined identities is interrelated with the construction of imagined communities. Both are related to what learners want to become and where they want to belong in their imagination (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). By connecting possible self to a professional context, imagined professional identity is an individual vision of a professional self, the image of what a person would like to be as others in a professional area, with certain specialised professional characteristics, or in a professional situation, for achieving in the future (Gazzola, et al., 2011). Possible selves as a concept about future selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) relevant to a social profession take a powerful position in the construction of professional identities (Scanlon, 2011), which can enhance the adaptability of future careers (Ibarra, 1999). As a rehearsal in the process of negotiating for professional identities, these possible selves in an imagined form for a profession as imagined
professional identity “bridge the gap between current capacities, self-conceptualisations, and representations” individuals hold of what are expected (Ibarra, 1999, p.765). Membership of a community in an imagined form is critical to identity formation. What kind of community the TCIL students imagine themselves becoming part of is important to the construction of their future professional images. However, a critique of the concept of imagined communities is that it encourages tensions between participation in real communities and imagined communities in the context of globalisation (Appadurai, 1997). The concept of imagined community may alienate a target community of practice by favouring imagined ones due to different participation and investment which can happen to learning programmes within transnational context. Undoubtedly, “positive professional image is necessary to ensure successful experiences” (Ivanova & Skara-Mincâne, 2016, p. 531). The desire and aspiration to become what is imagined can provide a guiding framework to formulate a professional identity through social interactions in a dynamic manner.

1.3.4 Professional context in education

Research on students’ education for their future professions is of great importance in different fields, e.g. medicine, nursing, pharmacy, (language) teaching, engineering, law, banking, psychology. “Education in its broadest sense is about the transformation of the self into new ways of thinking and relating” (Goldie, 2012, p.647), and what students experience from their education has an impact on their professional identity formation (Wilson et al., 2013) as a process of becoming (Dall’Alba, 2009a). Extended from the concept of ‘identity’ that is personal or individual and shaped in a social context (Ryan & Carmichael, 2016), ‘professional identity’ is connected with a particular profession, which refers to an understanding of relevant disciplinary knowledge and competence to become part of that field (Ryan & Carmichael, 2016). Profession orientated education is a process of socialisation negotiated through engagement in practice with imagination (Dall’Alba, 2009b; Pennycook, 2001), and this process of identification based on education design impacts students’ transition to work (Izadinia, 2013; Barbarà-i-Molinero et al., 2017). Understanding what particular professional field students would go into, and what their learning process could be linked to, will contribute to their growth both personally and professionally, and at the same time, the development of higher education.
Professional becoming as a broad sense of professional identity formation is also a process of practice through distributed materials of habits, routines, images, standards, tools and settings (Mulcahy, 2011), which cannot take place in isolation (Dall’Alba, 2009b). The process of professional identity formation explores and enables students’ transition from academic and formal education into professional practice (Nyström, 2009; Noble et al., 2014). Students who join the education programme not only learn particular knowledge and skills but also access to different communities of practice with respective specialisations (Wenger, 1999). Reid et al. (2008) argue that these communities with specialised activities affect how students get prepared for the future work and how they identify with their future professions. In these communities of practice, modelling and mentoring play a necessary role in shaping professional images both at pre-service and in-service stages (Gazzola et al., 2011; McAllister et al., 2009; Ticknor, 2016). Students’ experiences within the educational system can make an impact on their professional identity formation as they explore and develop understanding of their future professional roles through the concepts of practice and community (Herbst, 2016). Apart from observations, novices need to develop a sense of professional identity through more opportunities of enacting the role of a professional as actual practice (Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008). Interaction with professional role models and opportunities to practice can provide feedback on provisional identities that relate to the particular profession (Goldie, 2012). In the learning process of interaction with other individuals, groups or communities, students will gain identity capital that can generate more capital to access the social field if mutual acceptance happens (Côté & LeVine, 2014). The social and relational nature of identity formation requires interactional contexts and meaningful participation (Goldie, 2012) that can be associated with students’ potential future profession.

The concept of teacher becoming appears to be very common in educational research and policy making (Mulcahy, 2011). Teaching is among the professions that are registered to practice with essential knowledge and skills required during professional education, which can be supported by a curriculum of educational programmes for making the progression into becoming a teacher (Dall’Alba, 2009a). Social practice within professional contexts needs to be promoted for learning (Johnson & Ulseth, 2016; Boudreau et al., 2014). Specifically, in teacher education including language teacher education, teaching practice is a major part of the discussion in terms of students’ future teacher identity as it is “the first time when students feel themselves
as teachers” (Ivanova & Skara-Mincâne, 2016, p. 536). Through practice, student teachers develop ways of knowing and acting while understanding what a teacher means to them (Dall’Alba, 2009a). In Zhang’s (2017) research on English teacher’s professional identity, it reveals that negotiating the meaning of teaching English did not appear until entering the teaching community for practice. The gap between theory and practice has been one of the main concerns in teacher education (Boaler et al., 2000; Morgan, 2004; Grealish & Trevitt, 2005). Research relating to in-service teachers (Abednia, 2012; Trent, 2014; Mora et al., 2014; Denardi & Gil, 2015; Zheng, 2017) also analyses the (re)construction of professional identities in social contexts through linking the influence of educational experience to practical implications. In addition, research on pre-service (language) teachers’ professional identity has discussed the importance of direct interaction with these experienced professionals in constructing future teacher identities (Burns et al., 2015; Lee & Schallert, 2016; Rodrigues et al., 2018). New teachers, with intensive guidance from mentors, may encounter fewer challenges in teaching (Wang, 2012). Teaching practicum creates the opportunity for this meaningful interaction to impact on the development of teacher professional identity within its social context. The particular kind of social role in terms of thinking and acting can significantly influence students’ professional identity formation (Wilson et al., 2013). This cannot just rely on the learning community, but also requires a reflective process of negotiation between the individual and a specific environment. Pavlenko (2003) examines the concept of imagined professional and linguistic communities in a learning journey. She also positively indicates the importance of helping students imagine themselves to be part of a professional community as part of (language) teacher education.

Professions which relate to social contexts have a particular influence on disciplinary knowledge in higher education. Formal curriculum for professional competency needs well-designed learning content of domain knowledge and skills as these are essentials to form individual future professional identity (Remen, 2001; Holden et al., 2015; Ryan & Carmichael, 2016). Professional identity formation can be affected mostly by curriculum design and internships according to Bo (2008). It involves with time and methods (Bai, 2018) to be specialised (Trede et al., 2012; Fagan, 2015; Jacobowitz, 2013; Grealish & Trevitt, 2005; Donnison & Marshman, 2013). Learning trajectories are therefore “influenced by the ways that the sense of profession is communicated and articulated to students through the design and pedagogy of the educational programme” (Reid et al., 2008). Due to the unclear focus of the programme aims
and the broader career path caused by combination of various disciplinary areas, the learning process includes multiple dimensions of investment and social participation, therefore, students majoring in TCSOL tend to face an identity conflict (Jiang et al., 2019). Educator’s experience in Chinese language teaching can help with pedagogical content knowledge application in Chinese language teacher education (Wei, 2014; Zhao, 2017; Ji & Liu, 2009). The most direct way is to demonstrate the ‘real-world’ in students’ class learning. The modelling role of a teacher educator who maintains a close relationship to the professional field, contributes to students’ authentic learning for an effective self-awareness and experience of deep understanding of the profession (Trede et al., 2012; Hunter et al., 2007).

The TCIL curriculum refers to a complexity of languages not only as content in Chinese language teacher education but also as the medium for socialisation. In addition, the curriculum content and teaching practice designed on the TCIL pathway create a certain context to formulate what students understand for their future professional role. The relationship between Chinese language and English language, and how the TCIL students connect themselves to the social role of a Chinese language teacher, can be understood in an ongoing and negotiating process for Chinese language teaching.

1.4 Further Research Potential

How students perceive the learning environment influences the development of their behaviours and vision of themselves as future professionals (Shochet et al., 2015). This indicates the possibility of linking curriculum support and students’ professional identity formation (Reid et al., 2008; Nyström, 2009). Studies on language and identity have indicated that mutual influences from both sides are involved with social and contextual construction (Norton, 2006; Duff, 2013; Douglas Fir Group, 2016). The important concepts of authentic learning (Herrington et al., 2004; Rule, 2006), imagination (Wenger, 1999), imagined community (Anderson, 1991), investment (Norton, 1995) and imagined professional community (Pavlenko, 2003) provide a meaningful guidance in exploring the negotiation of (possible) selves related to learning and using languages (Ito & Preston, 1998; Darvin & Norton, 2016). New imagined identity can be taken as an important aspect of a learning journey from teacher education programmes
where there is a need to provide identity options that allow students to imagine themselves as aligned members of professional communities (Pavlenko, 2003). The formation of language teacher identity can be developed through engagement with the discourses and activities in the training programme (Varghese et al., 2005; Ilieva, 2010).

English has been mostly taken as an instructional language in a new model of higher education, for instance, joint-venture institutions (Feng, 2013). The TCIL pathway also uses English, ideally to teach both Chinese and international students. With more participation and interaction in an English learning environment as a learning *investment* to negotiate what learners’ self-images could be formulated for “a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world” (Norton, 2000, p.11), does the process of learning and using English have any influence on students’ understanding or thinking to become a Chinese language teacher? How does it happen? Following the policy from the MoE by including Chinese Language Teaching and Contemporary China Studies in the same disciplinary major, does the new curriculum of Teaching Chinese as an International Language make any impact on students’ learning regarding a clear professional orientation?

Going through the literature, most research with rich findings and implications is related to English in language teacher education. However, there is rare attention to the relationship between English as the language of instruction and students’ learning to teach and to become, particularly to teach Chinese language and to become Chinese language teachers, in the field of Chinese language teacher education. Additionally, the role of linguistic knowledge as curriculum content in preparing a language teacher has been discussed with comparison to pedagogical knowledge in previous studies. However, the influence of learning processes that relate to the development of students’ future language teacher identity requires more attention and study. Few studies have focused on curriculum design and professional identity formation of student Chinese language teachers, especially with instructional language of English involved in a context of joint-venture university. Research on teacher professional identity is limited to western cultural contexts (Izadinia, 2013). From a constructivist perspective in relation to making sense of experience through social interaction and contextual negotiation (Merriam et al., 2007), my research particularly tries to discuss and analyse the interrelationship between curricular design of a Chinese language teacher education programme and students’ image of their
future professional identity, by connecting the language of instruction and knowledge structure within the context of transnational higher education in China.

1.5 Summary

The literature related to preparing language teachers from educational programmes designed with core knowledge and social practice, undoubtedly have provided insightful understanding of some key concepts with respect to the interaction between learning and becoming as a process of socialisation. With respect to my research, it was helpful to discuss the topics on language teacher education presented in the literature that include knowledge structure, community of practice, authentic learning, language of instruction, content and curriculum, language and identity, imaged identity, professional identity and formation, eventually trying to identify a further research area in Chinese language teacher education formed in the context of transnational higher educational institution. Based on the discussion and findings of previous research, a research gap was identified in the relationship between learning and becoming, specifically regarding the TCIL curriculum with the interdisciplinary knowledge combination delivered in English language.
Chapter 2: Exploring Dimensions of TCIL

This chapter presents the research questions and aims to highlight the gap this study explored. It clarifies each stage of the research methodology, which includes data collection, ethical concerns, data analysis, research themes, reliability and concerns about generalisation.

2.1 Rationale for Qualitative Methodology

Different perspectives on the nature of the social world impact on the methodological approaches taken in research. Generally, a quantitative approach refers to objective and fixed laws of reality which tend to be more related to experiments and statistics, while a qualitative approach is linked to fluid, linguistic and contextual perception of reality. The latter provides a different dimension by acknowledging context to deeply explore meaning (Moses & Knutsen, 2007). This study is guided by social constructivism as an epistemological perspective about knowledge construction (Creswell, 2009). Individuals construct new meanings from the knowledge they learn through interaction within a social context. Not focusing on any permanent and fixed standards, it entails more flexibility and dynamics with language as a tool in the process of in-depth understanding through contextual interrelationship (Guba & Lincoln, 2008). Learning experience is a complex social phenomenon that is individualised rather than generalised, so it is appropriate to interpret this social reality according to the participants’ perspectives. The ontological belief addresses the importance of analysing participants’ understanding of their learning experience as interpretive process, which indicates the relativism of subjective reality (Scotland, 2012). Deep exploration of a social phenomenon in a particular context under an interpretive paradigm relies on a socially constructed ontology and an epistemology of understanding through participants’ perspectives (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, a qualitative methodology and research design is required.

2.2 Research Aim and Questions
This research explores the interaction between three factors: curriculum design, instructional language, and learners’ understanding of their future professional identity. It aims to find potential implications of designing a curriculum or programme within a learning context of transnational higher education by understanding the relationship between these three factors by using these three questions:

- Does the language of instruction influence learners’ understanding of their future professional identity? How?
- Does curricular design influence students’ imagined professional identity? How?
- To what extent do TCIL students’ experiences demonstrate that the aims of Chinese language teacher education are met?

2.3 Qualitative Case Study

To investigate a real context, qualitative case studies give “a sense of being there” (Cohen et al., 2011, p.129). They are also able to describe and analyse the research phenomenon through experiences, perspectives, thoughts and feelings about that situation from participants. By investigating and reporting the complex interactions of learning and social relations in a unique context of Chinese language teacher education, this approach to research can gain a detailed understanding of learning and imagined professional identity in TCIL. It provides an insight into the real situations of learning as a dynamic process to understand how the TCIL students build up the social relations of learning and imagine themselves in the future (Robson, 2002). Social negotiation of identity based on constructivism offers guidance on data collection and analysis in this study because it can logically link the criteria and orientation of interpretation to the data (Yin, 2008). The linguistic, contextual and active interpretation of learning in TCIL requires deep exploration of the interconnected meanings produced by students. Hence, the help of qualitative methods is essential (Moses & Knutsen, 2007).

Although it might not be generalised to a larger population as this approach is only relevant to specific social phenomena, many responses to this concern summarise that it is generalisable
in a different form as transferability and comparability in the similar social context for understanding based on deep and rich description (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Bloor & Wood, 2006). Through a qualitative method by focusing on a flexible and dynamic social phenomenon with language as a tool, this research can explore in depth the interrelationship between learning and becoming within a specific context (Guba & Lincoln, 2008). It looks at students’ understanding of their imagined professional identity while participating in the social process of learning. The complex and interpretive nature of research questions of ‘how’ and ‘why’ is tied to a qualitative methodology to demonstrate with explanation (Yin, 2008). Data collection by using interviews and documentary analysis as two sources of evidence (Yin, 2008) is appropriate to answer how learning in this disciplinary major influences students’ imagination of where they want to belong, and what they want to become in the future. Although there are only six TCIL students out of a total of thirty students on the BA programme of CLIE designed at ECIU as a transnational university, this research explored the details of all six participants’ interaction in learning on the particular TCIL pathway within an interpretive paradigm, and presented the analysis of the negotiation in terms of their own becoming. It is not suggested that their experience can be generalised, rather that in itself, although a small number of participants are involved, it can indicate an issue in the curriculum and the learning experience of a specific group of students studying in English without specialised content while learning to teach Chinese.

2.4 Data Collection

Data collection in this study consisted of a combination of official documentation and student interviews. After obtaining the ethical approval from the university by reviewing all the possible ethical concerns, the research employed purposive sampling for data collection. This included six semi-structured interviews (one hour for each) with all the six students on the TCIL pathway, and documents from various resources, such as programme specifications, students’ teaching evaluation forms, and module questionnaire reports.

2.4.1 Documents
Prior (2003) considers documents to be social products and constructed by following specific rules, reflecting particular discourses with collective consumptions. It is important to evaluate a document through its social trajectory in “specific contexts of thoughts and deed” (Prior, 2003, p.10). Information from documents as a source of evidence can effectively support research (Cohen et al, 2011) because documents can be analysed to understand a social setting or personal experiences (Coffey, 2013). Besides, this type of data can triangulate the interviews to improve qualitative data reliability and validity (Stake, 1995). However, the concern for documentary method refers to the quality of data in terms of authenticity, accuracy, representativeness and clear intention (Scott, 1990). Additionally, access to the document, familiarity with the meaning and understanding of its interrelationship with other documents, need consideration (Platt, 1981; Atkinson & Coffey, 2004; Bloor & Wood, 2006). Documentation of educational policies and institutional regulations was employed as a secondary source for the background of CLIE programme, while the programme or module specifications, students’ teaching evaluation forms, module feedback reports, were collected for their “explicit role” (Yin, 2008, p.103) in contributing to the analysis of students’ participation and engagement in the learning process in the TCIL. In other words, all these documents sufficiently supported the explanation of the connection between what students learn and what they imagine to become, and were therefore able to address the research questions.

In this study, documents under analysis specifically included: CLIE programme specifications with the TCIL pathway description, module specifications, module questionnaire feedback, student teaching practice evaluation forms. Meanwhile, documents of BA programme in CLIE from the MoE and the STCSOL for international Chinese language teachers from the Hanban (CLEC) were used to present the connection of CLIE and TCIL as well as a benchmarking framework for TCIL. All these documents were collected in order to understand: What is the aim of CLIE at ECIU? What is the aim of TCIL? What is the aim of CLIE as Chinese language teacher education? What is presented as knowledge in learning? How do students think about learning in TCIL? Why? How do they think about their teaching practice? The course documentation and student feedback, as well as other information relevant to Chinese teaching, elucidated the extent to which the curriculum prepared the participants for their future profession and their understanding of what to become through learning.
2.4.2 Purposive sampling

In qualitative research, the link between the study population selected as a sample and the generalisation to the wider range of people (Bloor & Wood, 2006) may not follow a specific rule with respect to the size, instead, “size is informed by fitness for purpose” (Cohen et al., 2011, p161). Focusing on relatively small samples in this study, qualitative inquiry emphasises the uniqueness and distinctiveness of social phenomena by selecting participants purposefully (Patton, 2002; Cohen et al., 2011). How much the samples can represent a wider population or group is not as relevant as in quantitative research (Cohen et al., 2011). Exploration of the TCIL as a particular group in qualitative study aims for in-depth understanding of how this learning process affects students’ vision of future professional roles. Therefore, the purpose of the sampling in discussion is not to promote generalisation or make comparisons, it tends to “present unique cases that have their own, intrinsic value” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p.242). For this highly situated case study, I contacted the Head of Department through the connection of my Head of Department to explain my research and to know more about the background of the BA programme. Through a few colleagues who have mentored or taught the students, I found the first group of four students and they introduced me to the other two students on the pathway. All the six students particularly on the TCIL pathway were invited as eligible participants to the study. They offered valuable insights into their learning experiences and provided integrated data to understand the dynamic learning process of forming a future professional image, which cannot be provided by and interpreted from anyone else. The first group of four students who graduated in June 2018 were a majority of the sample. The second group of two participants were respectively from year 4 and year 3 as the TCIL students in 2017/18 and 2018/2019, and were interviewed after the first cohort of 4 participants graduated. This made a small size of six participants in total for the whole interview data collection. While the number is relatively small, it is acceptable and constructive for in depth qualitative interview based research because the complex connections and meanings can be effectively explored through this approach (Moses & Knutsen, 2007).

2.4.3 Language
My EdD programme and thesis are designed in English; students on the TCIL pathway are all taught in English for three to four years; most documents related to the programme are written in English as well, except for a few Chinese comments in module feedback and students’ teaching practice evaluation form. Therefore, English was chosen for the interviews as it is better able to frame and present the research by avoiding any difficulties or misunderstandings with translation. It was indicated in their interviews that it is more natural for the participants to express their perspectives in English, especially as one of the participants is a foreign national with a Chinese heritage who was educated in an international school since they were young. All the participants were familiar with and capable of understanding and conversing in English. For any unclear or uncertain meaning of English words, which rarely happened, double checking through confirmation and discussion was done during the interviews. Any words or documents in Chinese language have also been translated into English in the context of this study.

2.4.4 Interviews

To explore the research questions regarding curriculum, language and becoming, it is important to have an interpretation of students’ experiences, derived from individual interviews about their learning, future career plans and desired professional roles. Each participant was invited to participate in a one-hour semi-structured interview where open questions were used to discover their understandings of the interaction between learning and becoming, in other words, the interrelations of what is learned and what can be imagined.

As a setting where the researcher and the researched can collaboratively produce a contextual description of a social world (Bloor & Wood, 2006), semi-structured interviews can provide meaningful insights into human activities because they produce deep and rich data as a main source of evidence (Yin, 2008). This approach allows for flexibility and attention to the matters of particular importance to each participant (Yin, 2008), especially when the direct observation of participants is not practical (Creswell, 2009). To avoid managing the complexity of group dynamics to hear everyone’s voice in a group interview, individual interview in this study encourage participants to disclose themselves more comfortably (Frey & Fontana, 1991; Phoenix et al., 2003). On the other hand, the inter-subjectivity and context-bound character of the interview method requires justification for the influence of ‘perceptions of power’ and objective
description of interviewee’s social world. Since inter-subjectivity is the basis of daily social interaction, there might be a reason to take it as a scientific objective (Schutz, 1967; Bloor & Wood, 2006). I, as the researcher, do not teach or evaluate any participant in the study, so the influence on the data only could be relevant to my role as a teacher in a general sense. Comprehensive recording of the interaction during the interview is critical for rigorous index while the skills in data collection and analysis can minimise the influence (Bloor & Wood, 2006). The conversational and informal character of interviews are shaped through the combination of an interview guideline and consideration for emergent information with small samples (Bloor & Wood, 2006) in order to understand participants’ experiences in particular contexts.

As mentioned above, as part of the data collecting process, one group of four students (final year) were identified to participate for their valuable insights into the curriculum as the first cohort. Then the subsequent cohort of only two students in total in the TCIL pathway were offered the choice to participate in this study. For both data collecting phases, information and consent forms were sent to the students alongside an invitation to participate in this study via university emails one week in advance of planned interview dates respectively on 14th May, 2018 and 6th October, 2018. They responded and agreed to take part and appointments were arranged on campus. Each face to face individual interview lasted approximately one hour. Audio recordings were taken, which was clearly stated in the information and consent forms. This was the limit of their involvement in the study.

Interview questions for these two groups shared the same methods by the same interviewer for data collection. The rich data generated invaluable information about curriculum design and language of instruction, as well as the influence on participants’ next steps into a professional career. Although it was a single interview with each participant, the semi-structured format allowed follow up questions or discussion for more in-depth information. Their reflections on the entire process provided insights in suggesting themes that were not apparent from the literature review. Unexpected patterns from data analysis were incorporated. For instance, one participant of year 3 in the subsequent data collection had less understanding of the learning experience for teaching practice. This information was different from the other participants of year 4. Combining the data across the first cohort and the second has enriched the whole data
set and enabled a deeper interpretation of the themes which have emerged from the data analysis across the full range of participants.

2.5 Ethical Considerations

To apply a qualitative research method, there is an ethical responsibility that the researcher needs to take for the participants in the study (Creswell, 2009). And it requires the researcher to understand specific ethical standards. Ethical considerations permeate the whole process of research (Cohen et al., 2011), which means at different stages of data collection and analysis, including reporting the findings, all involved ethical concerns that were taken into account (Oliver, 2003).

The TCIL curriculum is taught by a different department where I have no responsibility for teaching or assessing the participants in this study, so it significantly reduces any conflict of interest or coercion concerns. A week before the interviews, participants were recruited via university emails which included an attached Information Sheet and Consent Form. They were invited to take this opportunity to explore the effects of language and curriculum design on their future professional roles, as well as deepening their understanding of themselves as (language) learners. Following the protocol approved by the university, the anonymisation of data and its safe storage was ensured and data were kept safely throughout the research. Data is retained and password protected for five years and will be destroyed securely after this time, and the signed consent forms have been held separately away from the transcripts so that there is no risk of identification for the participants. Data collection activities took place on campus to minimise any security concerns. A relaxing interview environment was provided to control the recording process and reduce any uncomfortable feelings (Oliver, 2003). It was made clear that participants could withdraw at any time they wished. Importantly, they were ensured confidentiality in a friendly atmosphere. The interview schedule focused on their experiences with respect to the curriculum and the language of instruction, and therefore posed very little risk to the participants or researcher.
According to Cohen et al., “all educational research is sensitive”, varying only in degree (2011, p.165). In that sense, this study is sensitive to the gatekeepers who might consider the study as a potential threat to them or to their responsibilities. This study was conducted by collecting the data through interviewing the students on a specific BA programme pathway of the university, meanwhile analysing the programme curricula in regards to students’ future professional identity (Lee, 1993). The qualitative case study on the learning process of students from the particular group focusing on student perspectives is sensitive because it may lead to potential findings which are critical of the programme. These findings might not be well-received by the relevant department. The ethical issues in sensitive research usually refer to the tension between public and private, which can be ambiguous and relative (Cohen et al., 2011). These issues were negotiated with respect to the particular situation and general principles, as well as through communication within the university as a local context. Therefore, I have been careful to act as a professional and supportive colleague in any discussion of the findings with the other department. Confidentiality and anonymity are very important to minimise the sensitivity of this study.

2.6 Data Analysis Methods

The data analysis process had a number of stages. Firstly, it was essential to identify useful and common information. Then, it was critical to analyse the data in order to populate the critical themes, using the lens of these research questions underpinned by the theoretical framework that learning is a process of socialisation. Language of instruction, content design and teaching practice are the main topics which emerged from documentary data for discussion. Meanwhile, interviews identified the topics of learning and teaching in English, students’ practice of teaching Chinese, and becoming as a future choice. These topics entail certain dilemmas in language choice, knowledge structure, teaching demonstration, and practice. The data reflected three aspects: the authenticity of learning and teaching Chinese in Chinese for knowledge application, the challenges of teaching practice without core knowledge for participation in the community of practice, the importance of professional teachers as role models in learning and practice. Data coding as an inevitable part of the process of analysis was manually conducted. Specific approaches of data analysis of documents and interviews are discussed respectively below.
2.6.1 Documents data analysis

For documentary analysis, there were two approaches applied in this study. By counting occurrences of similar words or phrases in documents, thematic content analysis was helpful to compress text into content categories and generate themes objectively and systematically based on rules of coding the descriptions present in the data (Jupp & Norris, 1993; Stemler, 2000; Krippendorff, 2018), e.g. Who is the author and audience of the programme? What are the module specifications? What is the evaluation? How is the curriculum presented? And what effect does it have on students and their learning? Repeated words or events as potential theme elements were identified by content analysis. This was triangulated with the interview data, which deepened and extended the analysis apart from being employed for data validation (Bloor & Wood, 2006). An interpretative approach to the documents explored the meanings constructed within the content (Bloor & Wood, 2006), as it examined how social phenomena were associated with individual students in learning, or individual mentors in teaching practice.

Qualitative data from relevant documents and the programme profile collected from the beginning of this study assisted in selecting the issues and forming the research questions (Cohen et al., 2011). The complexity of answers in this case study will be presented in an interpretive manner (Yin, 2008) by referring to certain theoretical frameworks outlined in the literature review section. This allows understanding of what students learn, and their perspectives on the future profession. It leads to explanations of how this connection of what is learned and what it means can affect the formation of their becoming in the process of learning a particular educational programme.

2.6.2 Interviews data analysis

Interview data were transcribed first from audio to written form based on the combination of ‘authenticity’ and ‘practicality’ as a principle through listening and re-listening (Bloor & Wood, 2006; Edwards & Lampert, 2014). The transcripts reflect the originality of participants’ speech and they are easy to go through for detailed understanding in relation to analysis.
Without being restricted by structured methodologies for testing any prior assumptions, the main purpose of analysing the detailed raw data is to allow dominant or significant repetition of information to emerge as themes in a process of coding (Thomas, 2006). This inductive approach to interview data analysis generated the key themes in understanding the influence of language and curriculum design on students’ learning to become Chinese language teachers. It was a systematic procedure to analyse qualitative data guided by answering the research questions as evaluation objectives. The transcripts were read closely as a whole for general understanding; then meaningful units in specific text segments were identified; categories that conveyed main themes were created; these themes or categories were then reviewed; connected and refined (Thomas, 2006). The focus of data analysis was about how the participants described their learning experience of TCIL, and how they described themselves now and in the future. Data analysis followed the research objectives as a focus, however, it was a direct analysis of the raw data without specific expectation of findings, after all, “qualitative analysis emphasises the importance of remaining open to what is in the data” (Roulston, 2014, p.12).

2.7 Validity, Reliability and Transferability

Qualitative methodology for answering the research questions involves uncertainty, flexibility and subjectivity. Validity and reliability are crucial in all research. The dynamic interrelationship of learning experience and professional becoming needs to be reflected and interpreted through how participants think and feel, which is less concerned with measures of reliability and validity which quantitative research considers to be tested by evidence from data analysis for objectivity and replicability. It is analytic instead of statistical.

A natural setting provides valid data collection as contextual interpretation from participants’ understanding encourages valid meaning construction and data presentation (Cohen et al., 2011). Mishler (1990) and Maxwell (1992) suggest replacing ‘validity’ with ‘understanding’ in qualitative research in order to minimise invalidity. The qualitative case study refers to the subjectivity of perspectives both from the researcher and the researched to some extent. It was a process of understanding the interaction between students’ learning and the context where
they were negotiating their future becoming. The study looked at how these participants think about themselves when connecting learning to their social activities. The interpretation of data described the phenomenon entirely based on the participants’ experiences (Creswell, 2009), and direct quotes from the participants constituted the findings. Therefore, the concerns of validity in qualitative research are more related to what these events and activities mean to the people involved. To achieve this in the qualitative case study, it entails making the interpretive nature of understanding central, especially concerning specific situations (Cohen et al., 2011).

Reliability in qualitative research can be constructed as ‘dependability’ according to Cohen et al. (2011). This can be achieved through participants’ validation and the use of reflective journals to confirm the linkage between the data and what takes place in real settings. Reliability is about reproducible findings. Bloor and Wood (2006) argue that the criterion of reliability is not possible to achieve in practice because perspectives on the social world from different researchers vary. The focus on professional identity formation through formal education as a social learning process in this study, to a certain extent, cannot be measured for the same reliability if other social factors are viewed as central in the educational process, such as employability. In qualitative research, analysis of data is not expected to represent an all-inclusive view of the phenomenon under study (Roulston, 2014). Participants’ learning experiences were personally presented through interviews that demonstrate what they think and how they feel as reality, including their extensive reflections that might require further discussion but limited in this study. For example, the learning experience of year 1 and year 2 in terms of students’ choice in two different pathways within the BA programme. The interpretation of interview data cannot be judged in generic ways for its quality (Freeman et al., 2007), only as understanding from different perspectives. However, to improve reliability of qualitative research, different strategies can make contributions.

A clear procedure of data collection and analysis was presented in this study. Apart from interviews, various documents were used to triangulate the data collection from different sources, which contributed to the establishment of validity and reliability in the research (Yin, 2008). For example, the figures generated from programme specifications. Besides, creating a database through narratives, summaries or notes for referring back later ensured the study was more valid and reliable (Yin, 2008). Trustworthiness related to the researcher credibility and ethics
was demonstrated throughout the data collection and data analysis by active participation in an 
explicit and transparent way (Patton, 2002). A reflexive practice of keeping a research diary 
and reflecting both on the research and the process played an effective role at every stage of 
the study for the improvement of the trustworthiness (Wolcott, 2008; Guba & Lincoln, 2008).

Compared to quantitative research, generalisability in a qualitative case study refers to socially 
situated contexts, which can be interpreted instead as transferability and comparability (Lin-
coln & Guba, 1985). This study aims to provide detailed description through explanation why 
and how the learning process had an effect in forming students’ imagined profession as a social 
phenomenon within particular context. The meaning interpreted from the perspective of the 
participants can enhance the understanding of a similar situation as transferability from one 
research study to another circumstance (Cohen et al., 2011). In other words, it can be transfer-
able in order to understand the events which have taken place with students on programmes in 
a transnational educational learning environment, especially in terms of how they interact in 
the learning process regarding what they want to do in future. Therefore, research findings and 
conclusions will be transferable to understanding similar social phenomena and situations to 
this study, instead of seeking wider generalisability.

2.8 Summary

In this chapter, the methodological rationale that led to a qualitative case study consisting of 
triangulating data collection from interviews and documents was explained. Apart from the 
detailed information of participants' learning experiences based on the interviews, the docu-
mentation informs a better understanding of the TCIL pathway as a context, as well as the 
mentors' perspectives on participants' teaching practice. Systematic processes of data collection 
and approaches to data analysis were presented in detail. Ethical issues have been taken into 
account and discussed thoroughly. Research reliability, validity and generalisability were ex-
plored by comparison and analysis. Reflective practice at every phase throughout the research 
was emphasised. The findings from analysing both documents and interviews will be presented 
in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 respectively.
Chapter 3: The Parameters of Official Documentation

This chapter presents the study findings from documents that consist of programme and module specifications, students’ module feedback reports and evaluations of students’ teaching practice, as well as information on university missions. The Standards for Teachers of Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (STCSOL) from Hanban (2012) and programme aims of CLIE from the MoE (2012) have also been added in order to enable understanding of the disciplinary context and relationship with the TCIL curriculum design. These second documentary sources were used to situate the research context and then widen the thematic analysis as a benchmarking framework for TCIL in relation to students’ views of their learning experience. The findings revealed that linguistic knowledge in Chinese language was not sufficient, English as the language of instruction engaged students with more participation in learning and using English, and curriculum content design did not present Chinese language teacher education as a specialised discipline, therefore, teaching practice could not fully demonstrate its function. Eventually it influenced the TCIL students’ learning experience with regard to their understanding and vision of becoming Chinese language teachers.

3.1 Background of TCIL

To direct and reform higher education by drawing up strategies, policies and plans (n.d.), the MoE of the PRC combined the BA programmes of Chinese language and culture, China Studies, and Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (TCSOL) in 2012. The resulting new BA programme named as Chinese Language International Education aims to prepare students with solid Chinese language knowledge and comprehensive understanding of Chinese literature, culture and intercultural communication, in order to teach Chinese language and work for cultural exchange (MoE, 2012). As a non-profit professional educational institution for the development of international Chinese language education, CLEC provides a quality service for people worldwide to learn Chinese and know China (n.d.). To promote the professional formation and teaching quality of international Chinese language teachers in order to meet the growing demand for Chinese language learning, CLEC affiliated with the MoE (originally Hanban) developed the Standards for Teachers of Chinese to Speakers of
Other Languages (STCSOL) that refers to the latest research achievement and first-hand experiences from practitioners (Hanban, n.d.). Updated from 2007, the new Standards 2012 consists of five major dimensions: Chinese language teaching, class organisation, Chinese culture and intercultural communication, as well as professional ethics and development, which provides a guideline for those who are becoming part of this professional field (2012). In theory, the STCSOL could be considered in the formal curriculum design for Chinese Language International Education that practically contains more Chinese language teaching after the combination of these three majors mentioned above, but different universities based on their academic strengths and development can diversify the content and focus in designing the programmes.

To educate students with international perspectives and awareness of global economic and social development, East China International University (ECIU) explores new models for higher education as its major mission. As part of this innovation, a new programme of learning about China from the international perspective has a great influence in the process of communication between China and the world. Since there is no provision for a degree in China Studies any more, the MoE (2012) has approved China Studies and Chinese language teaching as two options of specialisation within CLIE that is licensed in the degree categories. The BA programme CLIE with the pathway of TCIL at ECIU is designed for those more concerned to know about Chinese language and literature, in order to be able to teach Chinese and about China to non-Chinese learners, sharing overlapping academic traditions about China with the other pathway in Contemporary China Studies. The aims for TCIL are therefore stated alongside CSS as an overall description referring to comprehensive awareness of social change, critical perspectives in social sciences, English and Chinese language skills, professional communication, and practical experience in research, social analysis and appropriate language teaching.
### 3.2 Portrait of TCIL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module categories</th>
<th>Total Credits</th>
<th>V1</th>
<th>V2</th>
<th>V3</th>
<th>V4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>History, business, politics</td>
<td>44 E</td>
<td>Introduction to Social Sciences China and the World</td>
<td>Chinese Civilization</td>
<td>20th Century China</td>
<td>Society and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(society)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ideological and Moral Cultivation and Basis of Law</td>
<td>China's History</td>
<td>Government and Politics</td>
<td>Doing Business in China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The Modernization Process of China</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>30 E</td>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>EAP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese language and</td>
<td>15 C</td>
<td>New Language Works</td>
<td>Classical Chinese 1</td>
<td>Introduction to Linguistics</td>
<td>Chinese as a Global Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>45 E</td>
<td>Introduction to Chinese Language and Culture or Chinese Language</td>
<td>(only for international students)</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Chinese writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Classical Chinese 2</td>
<td>Chinese Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language teaching</td>
<td>10 E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TCIL 1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and communication</td>
<td>12 E</td>
<td>Self-Management</td>
<td>Critical Thinking / Intercultural Skills and Awareness / Communication, Business and the Environment</td>
<td>Communication in China</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>22 E</td>
<td>Introduction to Literature and Media Culture</td>
<td>Introduction to Chinese Literature</td>
<td>Modern and Contemporary Chinese Literature</td>
<td>Language and Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese Theatre and Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>10 E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Final Year Project</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.1: An outline of the TCIL curriculum** (E - English; C - Chinese)

Based on the overall aims of TCIL, it is a four-year learning journey. From the specifications, compulsory modules including language and subject specific modules in the foundation year 1 effectively help students with their transition to university learning. In Year 2, compulsory modules of social sciences are very critical for students to understand China. Modules about Chinese civilisation, history, society, government and policy provide an introduction and general picture of Chinese thought, art, religion, science, historical relations with others, social development and public policy system as background information. Optional modules offer students more space to extend their learning accordingly. Introduction to Chinese Literature leads to interesting connections of the literary and historical background as a basis for further study of Chinese literature. Insights into the various forms of communications and impact of New Media in China is the aim of learning Communication in China, while Doing Business in China can meet students’ interest in Chinese business culture and environment with respect to manner, negotiation and relationships. For the (English) language content in year 2, two modules joint-delivered by different departments focus on developing students’ critical thinking skills in English and new concepts from historical and cultural frameworks as well as understanding of global issues from the combined perspective of business, the environment and society. EAP in particular extends students’ English function more effectively for their academic learning.
and future careers. The module about intercultural skills and awareness greatly supports students with sufficient preparation through a critical awareness of global cultures and understanding of intercultural communication. The only module about Chinese language in year 2, Classical Chinese, has the goal of familiarity with ancient Chinese language and its influence on the contemporary, enabling students to understand the development of Chinese language, literature and philosophy from a historical perspective.

Continued learning of Classical Chinese in year 3 enables students to understand the transition process and classical Chinese grammar. Modern & Contemporary Chinese literature inspires learning modern Chinese literature and understanding its development in English. From Year 3, except for EAP designed for the cluster of social science that extends students’ academic English skills in learning and future careers, the TCIL students start to learn modules related to the knowledge of linguistics, language learning and teaching, which are essential to the professional area of language education. Introduction to Linguistics in year 3 is informative in terms of better understanding a language. Applied Linguistics in year 3 and Second Language Acquisition in year 4 taken as guidelines in language teaching are very meaningful for those who want to become language teachers. Chinese Linguistics in year 4 as a core module for the pathway of TCIL aims to increase students’ knowledge about Chinese language. Teaching Chinese as an International Language (now in year 3, having moved from year 4 after 2016) is the most beneficial module to the TCIL students because it specifically focuses on Chinese language teaching through planning, observation, feedback, discussion, teaching practice, with a combination of support from module teachers and mentor teachers in practice.

In the final year, Chinese as a Global Language expands Chinese language to many dimensions rather than linguistics alone for understanding Chinese language and its impact in a wider context. Chinese writing in year 4 is a different learning experience in Chinese that aims to increase knowledge about Chinese characters. Language and Literature in Year 4 provides a linguistic approach to analyse literature, which is very attractive because it applies language in certain contexts. Chinese Theatre and Performance is a module to learn about the performance arts and culture. Students need to focus on the module of Final Year Project while taking some linguistic modules described above. The Final Year Project ensures students have the opportunity of engaging in a professional placement with proper research methods for producing a
dissertation, which creates a meaningful learning process in relation to the topic area students choose. Any topic within China Studies is open to students from both pathways.

![Figure 3.1 Curriculum contents](image)

Figure 3.1 Curriculum contents

![Figure 3.2 English VS Chinese as the language of instruction](image)

Figure 3.2 English VS Chinese as the language of instruction

All the modules that cover society, literature, communication, linguistics, language learning and teaching and Chinese language (see Figure 3.1), are delivered in English language except for two modules, Classical Chinese and Chinese Writing (see Figure 3.2). Lectures, seminars and tutorials for these modules are taught by lecturers with strong academic backgrounds.
mainly from the Departments of China Studies, English, Media and Communications and the Language Centre. Some modules are available for students from other majors and departments as appropriate allocation and resources sharing, additionally contributes to the promotion of inclusive learning and teaching. Following the overall programme specifications, the curriculum of TCIL is designed to engage students in broad learning communities with less particular knowledge specialisation in Chinese language and teaching Chinese language. In this way of immersion in English that carries different context and social connections, students seem to be invited to a wider range of directions away from focusing on learning and teaching Chinese that it is not necessary in the curriculum design based on the programme aim.

3.3 Curriculum Content for Chinese Language Teacher Education

Shulman (1987) argues for three types of knowledge in teacher education curriculum design: content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. For language teacher education, Duff and Lester (2008) claim that it usually includes content in applied linguistics (AL), second language acquisition (SLA), assessment, teaching methodology and cultural aspects of learning the language. Linguistic knowledge has been confirmed to be the essential knowledge that language teachers need to acquire (Orton, 2011). In Chinese language teacher education, content knowledge consists of general linguistics and Chinese linguistics, general language learning theories and teaching methodologies are pedagogical knowledge, then knowledge about how to apply theories and pedagogies to teach Chinese language is particularly formed as integrated pedagogical content knowledge (Wang et al., 2013).

Looking at the TCIL curriculum, it includes knowledge about linguistics, language teaching, literature, society, communication, and (English) Language abilities. To teach Chinese language beyond linguistic perspective and incorporate this in learning Chinese language pedagogy, the curriculum of TCIL extends the content into a wider range of knowledge related to literature and society, especially through academic English learning in a non-Chinese language context, which causes insufficient pedagogical content knowledge in the TCIL curriculum.
Figure 3.3 Knowledge structure of TCIL

The allocation of these three categories of knowledge (Shulman, 1987) in the TCIL curriculum design are compared further to the five aspects of the STCSOL that international Chinese language teachers need to meet (Hanban, 2012). The table below reveals that students on this programme spend their major time on the subject areas of English, literature, culture, society for the aspect of knowledge on culture and communication, which is identified as contextual knowledge in Chinese language teacher education. It clearly shows that the specialised knowledge for Chinese teaching basis is weak based on the STCSOL.
Table 3.2: TCIL Curriculum in Chinese Language Teacher Education

### 3.4 Dilemmas in Learning and Teaching TCIL

This section mainly presents module feedback from students as how they think about what they learned. The TCIL curriculum and knowledge structure engaged students with a range of learning communities and social connections. According to the module feedback reports, engaging content developed their understanding and inspiration of Chinese thinking philosophies which is a very helpful introduction to Chinese culture. Different perspectives on China and contemporary social issues, historical events, political characteristics and industrial policies increased students’ knowledge of how Chinese society works, and enabled intercultural awareness, especially through comparing with other cultures. Stated in the module feedback, “useful and helpful” EAP designed within the discipline extended their English skills in academic studies. Learning both Chinese and English literature empowered students to perceive values and social activities in different ways and created possibilities of pursuing a further academic interest. Linguistics, language learning and teaching enabled students to know the important theories in English and later the TCIL students were facilitated with teaching practice for some knowledge application and reconstruction.
All the module feedback reports were from those students in the classes including who were not on the TCIL track, as the module contents covered the fields mostly beyond Chinese language or Chinese language teaching. Through this general lens, it is relatively objective to understand the curriculum and students’ learning experiences, especially the modules shared with students out of the TCIL pathway. Dilemmas of learning Chinese linguistics in English or Chinese and what needs to be focused on in learning, such as English literature or Chinese literature, English linguistics or Chinese linguistics, China or Chinese language teaching, seem to be intractable from students’ perspective. Intensive participation in Chinese focused or English focused learning communities created different social relations, which developed an inconsistent orientation of learning to become teachers of a target language. Students’ comments from module feedback reports particularly regarding the language of instruction and the curriculum content, as well as the evaluation of participants’ teaching practice, expressed what they think about the programme and how it influences their understanding of learning the programme in relation to teaching Chinese language.

3.4.1 Instructional language

In actuality, the TCIL pathway of the CLIE programme is available to international students who want to become Chinese language teachers. Learning and teaching in English generally did not lead to more comments on the language of instruction as it avoids the exclusion of understanding in learning (Risager, 2006), however, discussion particularly on the language used in major modules of TCIL was identified. It is informative for the TCIL students to learn Chinese Linguistics that “may require certain level of Chinese for any international student” based on the comments in the module feedback report, because without that knowledge it would otherwise be considered as “impenetrable” for a beginner of both Chinese language and linguistics. The comments from an international student who took the module due to the shared course with other majors or departments supports the necessity for high Chinese language proficiency if any international student is enrolled in the CLIE programme particularly on the TCIL pathway. On the other hand, some students expressed their confusion, wondering why they need to study this module in English:

“Actually, after the whole semester, I still get confused why we need to study Chinese Linguistics by using English.” [SI AY2017-18 MQ Report: Chinese Linguistics]
An educational context of inclusive classes for both Chinese and international students may cause a dilemma in choosing the language of communication, especially if diverse students all learn together in the same class. English as the language of instruction at the university takes a critical role in the avoidance of issues or difficulties in students’ learning. This point emerged from a student’s comment in an optional module report:


In learning the practical module that relates to teaching Chinese language, students or participants paid more attention to their module teacher’s native English and perceived it as a powerful standard, shifting the vision of themselves as English language learners and users rather than future Chinese language teachers.

Learning Classical Chinese and Chinese Writing requires students to have a relatively high level of Chinese language, however, introduction to Classical Chinese in English would be an option for international students who have not reached the required Chinese level yet. Students felt happy to learn in Chinese as stated in the comment:

“Teaching in Chinese should be the most enjoyable thing. It’s totally taught in Chinese, some subject-specific terms could be introduced in English.” [S2 AY2016-17 MQ Report: Chinese Writing]

Meanwhile, the contradictory comments indicated the influence of English language and an imagined future career community of using English.

“We are major (majored) in Teaching Chinese as an International Language, but we do this module in Chinese, who to explain the Chinese language in English is difficult for me in the future (it is difficult for me to explain Chinese language in English in the future).”[S2 AY2015-16 MQ Report: Classical Chinese]

Learning in English extended students’ access to a wider range of resources that potentially can increase their capacities to participate in the relevant social world (Darvin & Norton, 2016).
Referring to the comment conveying an imagined future profession of explaining classical Chinese in English, this student on the TCIL pathway interpreted English language learning would empower them with confidence and ability in teaching Chinese in English.

The evaluation forms of the TCIL students’ teaching performance described the dilemma further with respect to the language of instruction. Written comments in the forms by their mentors specifically regarding the instructional language in Chinese classes indicate that student teachers were not aware of an appropriate range of Chinese language based on the levels of the Chinese language learners.

“Some language (uses) in the classroom (were) not suitable for the students’ level, the language should be consistent.” [Mentor comment N in Teaching Evaluation Form]

Without clear connections between what is presented in learning to teach and what is really needed in Chinese language teaching practice, student teachers could not find a consistent track, instead, they were trying to navigate by themselves at that moment in that situation. And this navigation resulted in either language switching because of different knowledge construction in a different language (English), commented by their mentor teachers as “Translate too much”, or uncertainties in using a particular range of Chinese vocabularies due to the lack of contextual knowledge (Duff, 2008) for understanding the curriculum and students, which is described in the forms below:

“Some language uses are too difficult for students of this level to understand.” [Mentor comment D in Teaching Evaluation Form]

However, it appears that switching between English and Chinese as translation in teaching or using vocabularies way beyond learners’ level did not contribute to effective learning and teaching of Chinese language. The obvious gap between learning and practice occurred because learning the knowledge of Chinese language presented in English from the programme did not fully fit in the real Chinese teaching situation as a professional form. Knowledge constructed in English and students’ investment in English produce the cultural capital (Norton, 2013) that is relevant to a different social context instead of teaching Chinese. It was confusing when the student teachers tried to employ a language of instruction in teaching Chinese, whether it should be English or Chinese, even not clear about different levels in terms of the language of instruction for different Chinese language classes.
3.4.2 Linguistic knowledge

The content knowledge in the TCIL curriculum mainly refers to the linguistic modules except for EAP. Classical Chinese offered from a historical and cultural perspective dramatically improved students’ understanding of the language in a different frame. Some comments in the feedback reports expressed “The change of Chinese language is the change of Chinese history”. Classical Chinese provides a historical link to modern Chinese that is commonly used and taught. It cannot supply the main content knowledge to teach Chinese in the curriculum of TCIL as students highlighted in the comment:

“Why there is no Modern Chinese?” [S1 AY2016-17 MQ Report: Classical Chinese2]

Modern Chinese is taken as the sufficient content knowledge preparation for TCIL by students in the feedback, because they thought it would be more suitable to teaching Chinese language instead of translating classical Chinese into modern Chinese. The value of Chinese characters from the module of Classical Chinese could be presented with the inheriting relation to modern Chinese (Yan, 2013) in terms of content preparation in Chinese language teaching.

For a core part of linguistic knowledge in Chinese language (Attaran & Yishuai, 2018), Chinese Linguistics equipped students with a systematic understanding of the language in language teacher education. This particular content knowledge of Chinese language provides the essence in applying the language teaching methodology for the conjunction of content and pedagogy, which can promote effective Chinese language teaching as required in the STCSOL (Hanban, 2012). Apart from Chinese linguistics, the programme also promoted a different way of thinking about how to position Chinese within a global context. The feedback given in the module report also expressed that it inspired their reflections on Chinese language through comparing the Chinese theories to the Western theories. Contextually referring to its social settings, on the other hand, learning in English restricted its practical meaning in the application of teaching Chinese in reality as commented:

“Bu lijie zhemenke de yiyi. Zhongguo ren yong Yingyu xue Zhongwen yufa, tingqilai shaowei youdianr huangmiu a.Wo renwei ben kecheng de xianshi yiyi jihu meiyou.” [Do not understand the point of this subject. Chinese students learn Chinese grammars
Introductory linguistic knowledge offered some basic theories about language generally, which can help students develop a good sense of English grammar, phrase structure and word construction according to their learning experiences as written comments:

“I know better about the English, (have) better understanding of using English. It’s mainly designed for English majored students.” [S1 AY2016-17 MQ Report: Introduction to Linguistics]

“Lots of ideas I used to have in my mind when acquiring English now can be explained.” [S1 AY2017-18 MQ Report: Introduction to Linguistics]

The mixed group of students from TCIL and other programmes, such as English or English teaching, can generate intercultural exchange and linguistic connections (Wang et al., 2013), however, the challenge is that learning in English language created a confusing situation for some students because they thought the module was designed for English major. Without consistent focus on a specific language, it caused difficulties to achieve the learning in terms of respective criteria (Chen, 2017) and therefore increased concerns about the content knowledge preparation for pedagogical application.

SLA and AL in language learning and teaching are very useful for future language teachers (Duff, 2008), so it is meaningful to analyse students’ own learning experience largely as English language learners. Some students in these two modules indicated the close relationship between their own learning and their desired profession of being teachers as reflexivity (Duff, 2008) by constructing the meaning of theories that can be associated with future practices.

“It’s very close to what I want to do in the future. This is very useful and will be very useful in the future.” [S2 AY2017-18 MQ Report: Second Language Acquisition]

“Theories regarding efficient learning and teaching (are good). I want to be a teacher, it is important and useful to learn more linguistic theories.” [S2 AY2016-2017 MQ Report: Applied Linguistics]
As to the common knowledge of L2 theories shared in learning, it enhanced a transferable element in knowledge construction while the professional area of teaching English or teaching Chinese appeared to be blurring.

With obvious credit to linguistics as content knowledge, language learning and teaching as pedagogical knowledge, the other challenge in learning pointed out by students was time arrangements in the final year. Intensive coursework alongside the final year projects (FYP) distracted students’ learning focus due to stress and limited time, and potentially preventing some students from attending the linguistics classes according to module feedback.

3.4.3 Teaching Chinese as an international language

To respond to an international curriculum for teaching Chinese language, TCIL broke the boundary of disciplines with updated language teaching theories and methods and also created a learning community for generic knowledge and skills in language teaching. As a specific learning process of pedagogical content knowledge for TCIL students, Modules TCIL1 and 2 aim to provide a fundamental understanding of concepts in language teaching and developing their pedagogy through exposure to various approaches in the language teaching field. All the students on the TCIL pathway developed their understanding of teaching a language and learned to organise a class, through module design of activities relevant to Chinese language teaching and direct demonstration from module teachers with rich experiences in language teaching. However, specific content with a language focus in learning to teach has been required by students in the documentation.

According to the module specification and students' comments in the document, students had to figure out what would be required in a real teaching situation, as it was not fully presented in their learning process in terms of what particularly can work in the professional world of Chinese language teaching. The nature of TCIL as a professional education, in this sense, did not stand distinct from other pathways by having a close cohesion and coherence in practical teaching of the target language, at a micro level in class. Pedagogical content knowledge is in fact missing from the curriculum. Therefore, students expected more teaching practice to figure
out how teaching Chinese works in reality, in a practical way to apply the theoretical knowledge in teaching the language which emphasises the interrelationship between practice and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). The students proposed obtaining more information about teaching, specifically teaching Chinese language, from some guest lectures as diverse resources (Dall’Alba, 2009a) to illustrate professional practice through extensive materials (Mulcahy, 2011).

In addition, based on the comments in the module report, teaching practice as a core section of learning, was not assessed for credit and that influenced some students’ attitudes on the process of preparing and teaching. When comparing to other compulsory coursework as part of their assessment, they engaged less in Chinese language teaching practice because practically and academically they “want to graduate”. To develop a sense of self (Boaler et al., 2000), the learning context of teaching Chinese should engage students with active participation in the discipline. As an important component in learning and students’ engagement, assessment can be critical in shaping how students understand what is learned as well as themselves through constructive feedback regarding their potential to be part of this learning community (Reay & Wiliam, 1999). Passing exams for graduation is not active engagement in becoming within a specific professional context, but simply acquisition of ritual knowledge (Dahlgren et al., 2006).

3.4.4 Literature, culture and society

Learning Chinese literature inspired students to have a different interpretation of the writing work although it may not be their original interest indicated in the module report. Participating in learning Chinese literature in English created another learning community for social involvement through knowledge investment, not only in the subject but also the language. Some students called it the English version of Chinese literature. The process of interaction encouraged learning and using English, especially by studying in an inclusive classroom. As discussed in Chapter 2, language is social with identity constructed, which is beyond a simple form of sentence structures (Norton, 2010; Norton, 2016). This participation in English may influence students’ values and understandings of learning in relation to whether they want to be part of this
learning community or not, in other words, their sense of belonging with particular social characteristics (Wenger, 1999).

It was very interesting to understand and analyse literature from a linguistic perspective, but challenging for students who did not have any background of English literature, and it particularly created some challenges in learning English literature in year 4 for TCIL students when they theoretically needed to focus on Chinese language teaching. It seemed not to be easy to ‘please’ all the students from other majors or programmes involved by getting into the dilemma of learning Chinese literature in English or Chinese, focusing on Chinese literature or English literature. Without a particular goal of negotiation through learning activities, the imagined communities would be unclear for students to assume imagined identities (Norton & Toohey, 2011) or reinforce new identity possibilities (Pavlenko, 2003). Different choices in languages and contents may lead to different influences on their social learning experiences, because the core part of becoming with a social meaning that relates to a professional area whether in Chinese literature or English literature, Chinese language or English language, can be developed in a learning community with its specialised social characters (De Ruyter & Conroy, 2002).

TCIL provides a wide range of knowledge about China’s society that covers economy, politics, history, culture, philosophy, art, media. Even for Chinese language, the programme tries to develop students’ understanding from a global perspective by positioning it in complex dimensions that go beyond linguistic and educational concept. Exploring Chinese in a broader sense as a global language increased students’ awareness of its background and social connection at international level. It prepared students with supporting knowledge regarding China and the world as well as language teaching theories, through participation mostly in English language. Chinese culture is the key (Liu, 2011), and any language education cannot be culture free, however, culture teaching and research cannot be considered as the main task but rather as supporting the language teaching (Liu, 2001; Cui, 2015).

Interactions with lecturers and peers within these learning communities strengthened the understanding of students themselves in the social contexts that will or will not take a place in
students’ mind to pursue in the future, depending on the feedback during participation to indicate the potentiality of reaching a self-image other than specifically being a teacher. A diversity of knowledge about China, environment and business in the TCIL curriculum would probably leave students a disjunction between what they learn and what they need to apply in specific Chinese language teaching situations due to different knowledge presentation, and result in a conflict of identity formation in becoming a Chinese language teacher (Jiang et al., 2019).

3.5 Teaching Practice

The teaching practicum, one of the most important components in teacher education, has a great impact on preparation for teacher quality (Tang, 2003). It aims to develop students’ practical competence for their future profession (Attaran & Yishuai, 2018). And this process of social interaction within the educational context can shape students’ understanding of teaching and thinking if they want to be a member of this professional community. That is to say, for practicing and developing teaching skills as well as the social meaning of teaching in the real settings, the teaching practicum has been taken as a key part in teacher education programme (Fung, 2005).

Apart from language teaching theories, TCIL students were provided with practical learning through observation of Chinese language class and teaching practice. These two types of practice were designed in the module of TCIL 1 and 2. Based on the document, students’ observation learning included introduction, identification of good classes, lesson planning, materials development and classroom management, and 5-hour observation of Chinese classes in total. Teaching practice mainly consisted of integrated teaching, group feedback, class preparation, individual feedback and was designed as two x 45-minute team teaching practice; two x 45-minute observations of peer teaching; and two x 45-minute teaching within the university. Additionally, a three-week overseas teaching practice component was available. By comparing to an internship or two-month practice abroad that involves more pedagogical content knowledge, the practicum requirement of TCIL seems inadequate (Li, X. 2011; Liu, 2017). TCIL students in the module feedback said that their experiences of teaching practice were useful, however, they expected more time to be devoted to it, further practice would have provided them with
more opportunities to develop Chinese language teaching competence through both practicing and reflecting, in realistic settings (Fung, 2005).

Integrated with feedback from peers and module teachers in learning the module, teaching practice evaluation forms were used as a formal way to gain feedback from mentor Chinese language teachers arranged within the university, in order to develop students’ teaching skills in practice. Teaching practice evaluation forms as an important document revealed that participants made progress in terms of preparation, class-design and interactions. At the same time, their mentor teachers addressed some aspects as on the form that direct students to make further efforts in skill achievement.

According to the evaluation form, participants could not demonstrate the accuracy in basic knowledge and instruction, which is primarily relevant to linguistic content and pedagogical application:

“Make sure every character and pinyin written on the blackboard is correct” [Mentor comment K in Teaching Evaluation Form]

“Make sure the examples and explanation are correct.” [Mentor comment L in Teaching Evaluation Form]

“Make sure the examples are standard mandarin” [Mentor comment J in Teaching Evaluation Form]

Character writing and sentence structure, especially with correct examples and clear explanation are essential in teaching design and presentation as content knowledge in Chinese language teacher education. And the core knowledge to teach was missing or weak for participants to understand the teaching tasks in class, where the pedagogical content knowledge cannot effectively be delivered and reconstructed, so their mentor teachers pointed out the issues in written form:

“Make sure you have a good understanding and knowledge of this grammar” [Mentor comment A in Teaching Evaluation Form]

“Make the grammar points clearer by summing up in sentences’ patterns and show them on the screen.” [Mentor comment C in Teaching Evaluation Form]

The interaction with all the Chinese language learners in class as central part of teaching was not significantly indicated on the evaluation form:
“Should improve the ability of instant interaction with competent knowledge (in Chinese language)” [Mentor comment O in Teaching Evaluation Form]

To apply teaching theories and managing a class, participants needed more practice generally along with error correcting and reflections in time (Li, 2007; Yan & Fu, 2013). Particular feedback and suggestions from their mentor teachers in the teaching practicum shared the common concerns on the weak knowledge of Chinese language, as presented below:

“You spent much time on explaining students’ questions about grammar. In this case, it would be better if you can answer the questions briefly, but to the point, (which indicates you) need more (Chinese) language knowledge” [Mentor comment F in Teaching Evaluation Form]

A summarised conclusion is that TCIL students in practice need “Duo jiaqiang jichu zhishi” [to strengthen the basic knowledge] commented in the evaluation form of teaching practice, otherwise, it is not possible have a clear understanding of how to use Chinese language or which examples can support explanations in teaching. Participants in practice lost the interaction with their Chinese language learners in this particular social setting, where they potentially avoided staying because the relationship between them and others in the Chinese language class appeared weak. To extend it out of classroom as part of interaction within Chinese language teaching community, what is required in teaching as feedback in the document from these professionals indicated its disconnection to the TCIL students’ learning.

This inconsistency would increase non-participation (Wenger, 1999; Norton, 2000) and would not motivate their beliefs in having the potentiality to become a qualified Chinese language teacher. Undoubtedly, feedback and suggestions on what they need to change or improve would help participants have a direction to work on. On the other hand, given the lack of practice, too much criticism from the power relationship (Reid et al., 2011) in this professional community of practice would be unacceptable (Noble et al., 2014; Norton, 2010; Norton, 2016) and may induce participants’ feelings of incompetence in the professional field of Chinese language teaching (see Chapter 4). The lack of mutual acceptance in the process of interaction with mentors (Côté & Levine, 2014), to a certain extent, may affect their generation of identity capital in becoming Chinese language teachers.
3.6 Summary

As presented in this chapter based on the documents, the TCIL curriculum empowered students to understand China and perceive Chinese language teaching from a global perspective. English helped with the understanding of language learning and teaching in a more generic way in relation to teaching Chinese as an international language. However, dilemmas in the language of instruction and curriculum content are not context-free, because the TCIL aims are closely associated with two things. One is English as the language of instruction for the nature of general transnational universities, and the other is the new specifications of BA programme in Chinese Language International Education for three majors combined by the MoE.

Significant investments in English and knowledge about China led to less attention being paid to Chinese language and Chinese language teaching and this caused a gap between participants’ learning and teaching practice. English language influenced the process of negotiation for understanding the meaning of knowledge through an ongoing interaction within an environment where different subjects were prioritised that were not specifically required in Chinese teaching practice. Metalinguistic knowledge about Chinese is essential in teaching Chinese language (Elder & Manwaring, 2004), as well as for participants’ professional discretion as judgment on a teaching task (Boote, 2006), which largely affected their learning and teaching Chinese language according to the documentation, particularly, the teaching evaluation forms.

The curriculum design of the TCIL pathway presented diverse disciplinary domains delivered in English without a clear boundary of content knowledge, and the pedagogical content knowledge for teaching Chinese language was not sufficient. Participants’ knowledge of Chinese language teaching and understanding themselves in developing the potential in that professional area were affected with certain confusion or conflict, especially through the examination of theories and practice for teaching in the real educational setting. Engagement with discourses of curriculum and fieldwork in language teacher education programmes can contribute to the construction of professional identity (Ilieva, 2010), as “imagined and desired”
(Darvin & Norton, 2016, p.25). Nevertheless, this social learning process is dynamic and reflective as will be explored further through in-depth interviews with the participants in the next Chapter.
Chapter 4: Student Perspectives on TCIL

This chapter presents the study findings from the six semi-structured interviews (one hour for each interview) which form the body of the research. As described in Chapter 3, students from the CLIE programme choose their pathways in year two. Fewer prefer the pathway of TCIL than the pathway of CCS. This means the total number of eligible students from the TCIL track who acted as participants in this study was six. Despite the small number of participants, the research has gained rich data from the participants through deep exploration in and interpretation from the interviews. The data generated the important topics on learning and teaching in English, practice of teaching Chinese. These topics are closely in relation to the research questions focusing on the interaction between learning and becoming as a future professional choice. These topics of certain dilemmas in language choice, knowledge structure, teaching demonstration and students’ practice highlight the influence of language and curriculum design on forming students’ vision of their future professional identity in the process of learning on TCIL. This influence is reflected from three main aspects: the authenticity of learning and teaching Chinese in Chinese to apply knowledge in the real setting, the challenges or difficulties of teaching practice without core knowledge about Chinese language to participate the community of practice, the usefulness of professional teachers as role models in learning and practice to follow. All these aspects are integrated to negotiate a particular social connection of learning and students’ professional becoming as their imagined professional identity.

In this research project, learning emerged as a process of identity formation with particular social connection to the professional world. Learning and use in English language influenced participants’ concept of teaching Chinese (in English), especially in the beginning of teaching practice. The imagined professional identity of becoming a Chinese language teacher in this study closely relies on authentic learning with Chinese language and specialised knowledge in the specific professional context of teaching Chinese language. The curriculum content and knowledge structure of TCIL create learning communities that participants engage in to negotiate for meaningful connections that are not strongly aligned with Chinese language teaching. The educators’ demonstration of teaching as a model is critical in understanding how to teach, while a different focus on the English content blurs the distinction of teaching Chinese as the target language. The negotiable relations in the community of Chinese language teaching
practice indicate a dynamic process of identification that involves the interactions with peers, mentors, professionals and students to develop the sense of belonging to the teaching group. Students on TCIL will align this group with their imagined professional community, which assumes the imagined professional identity (Norton & Toohey, 2011; Gazzola, et al., 2011), if they feel to be included and confident within Chinese language teaching contexts.

4.1 Participants

The six participants in this case study were from years 3 and 4 of the programme, after they decided to follow the teaching pathway provided by TCIL, one male and five females aged between 18 to 23 years old. All of them are Chinese except for one participant who was born and grew up in China but studied in an international school, holding a foreign passport. Most of them did not have a clear understanding of becoming Chinese language teachers before choosing the BA programme of CLIE and the TCIL pathway. Due to the small number of students, participants’ profiles are presented generally on the basis of confidentiality, with their names coded as below, indicating their reasons for choosing the university and their intention before choosing the teaching pathway.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name Code</th>
<th>The reasons to choose the university</th>
<th>Intention before choosing TCIL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Randomly, by accident&lt;br&gt;Did not make any plan</td>
<td>Not sure what kind of teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>International environment&lt;br&gt;Parents</td>
<td>Enjoyed classical Chinese and changed to TCIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Father and his colleagues&lt;br&gt;Quality of the university&lt;br&gt;English medium</td>
<td>Did not think too much about teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Discussed with parents and teachers&lt;br&gt;International environment&lt;br&gt;Study abroad</td>
<td>Want to try something different</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fascinated in Chinese literature, poetry, Chinese civilization and culture Taught in an international way and learn more English

Be a Chinese cultural teacher
Be a private teacher

Table 4.1: Summary of research participants

All the interviews were audio recorded and transcribed, as noted in Chapter 2. A thematic analysis was undertaken and three major aspects emerged from the data on 1) learning and teaching the curriculum in English, 2) practice of teaching Chinese language and 3) imagining the future professional selves, which are composed of five specific sub-topics: language of instruction, content and structure, teaching model, practice, imagined future. These topics integrate the intertwined changing process presented in Sections 4.2 to 4.5 below. Confusion over the language of instruction; substantive content and structure; invisible teaching demonstration; and imagined future, which are illustrated by the participants’ own words in each section respectively to describe the dynamic interrelationship between learning and becoming. Direct quotes from the interview transcripts support the examination of the participants’ learning experiences regarding their understanding of the future image as Chinese language teachers.

4.2 Confusion over the Language of Instruction

As mentioned in the discussion on the background of TCIL, most of the modules were designed to be taught in English except for Classical Chinese and Chinese Writing. All the participants viewed learning in English generally as beneficial because it helped with their study in the university and increased more confidence in learning other subjects. It created learning communities of participation and engagement in English to develop social meanings as association with their future professions. On the other hand, they also felt confused and found it peculiar to learn about teaching Chinese in English. The common experiences shared in the interviews
indicate their understanding of instructional language choice for TCIL as a dilemma due to its controversial influences, which also described the challenges of TCIL design in English regarding Chinese language teaching.

4.2.1 Controversial role of English

Five out of six participants chose the university because of its international environment and because English is the major medium to learn and communicate. They believed it would bring them more opportunities in the global market with competitive English or bilingual skills, broader views and up-to-date knowledge connections to the world. Learning in English increased their confidence in academic studies from participants’ perspectives, as many essays or assignments are required to be written in English in this university.

Participants thought learning theories like linguistics or SLA in English was good and positive. Participant A felt it was necessary to have English knowledge to learn teaching methodology because it was systematic in English teaching field, such as general teaching methodology. In C’s mind, there are advantages to learn teaching theories in English.

“In terms of learning the theories of language teaching, (for instance,) theories of SLA, it’s much better to learn these things (theories) in English because the academic studies in these areas are more developed in English.” Int.C

And for D, “theories like linguistics or SLA in English is Ok. It can teach us bilingual skills”, which means it strengthened the abilities of explanation bilingually by learning a lot of English vocabularies about Chinese linguistics and SLA.

By comparison to the passive English learning experience for exams without practical skills, B recalled:

“It (English learning experience here) certainly changed my personality. Before I got into this university, I did not like to talk to the others, except for my parents. You know, in my province, for English(education), we do not focus on practical experience of how to use English, but focus on how to pass the English exams, so I did not even practice
my speaking skills. In the first EAP class in the first year, when the teacher asked the students to communicate with each other, I could not open my mouth, but after I entered China Studies department, we have presentations in each module, and (when I gave) the first presentation, I think I just took my note and read it. After one semester, I could (speak)” Int.B

The process of presentation practice in English from EAP classes and other modules after entering the programme, gradually and certainly, has changed B to be more confident in leaning and speaking English. Constant participation as investment in English for achieving academic goals equipped the knowledge presented as generic that is transferable to different situations (Reid et al., 2011).

Apart from the purpose of learning to teach, English language engaged participants with another point of view on China in classes like Chinese history, Chinese literature or Chinese civilisation. These non-Chinese perspectives have provided a different way to understand China as a country and to see things differently, in E’s reflection.

“For example, maybe not (the class of) teaching Chinese, but in Chinese history class, I noticed the concept about Tainming [fate or destiny] when my classmates talked about it (here), but they said teachers did not talk about it (in their high schools). It’s another point of view on China and Chinese, from the western way (perspective), a different way to view China as a country.” Int.E

Acknowledging the benefits in general of learning in English, participants also expressed the difficulties in learning about Chinese language in English. B described a learning process as making a knowledge connection, and in the case of knowing more about Chinese language by linking this kind of connection, English could stand in the way by hindering the learning effectively.

“Sometimes I think it’s a barrier for us to learn Chinese language, because we learn Chinese language, and we should use Chinese.” Int.B

It seems knowledge of Chinese language presented in English provides fewer opportunities to connect to its social meaning of application. Understanding of Chinese language with its social connection in specific and realistic contexts as authentic (Felix, 2002) can promote deeper learning through constructing meanings. According to B, abstract knowledge without referring to its practical usage within an authentic setting appears ritual without any meaning by losing
a specific context (Dahlgren et al., 2006). It becomes difficult to understand, except for memorisation, or ineffective to learn by translating into Chinese. Learning relevant modules in Chinese language would probably help them engage better by understanding the contextual relationship between the knowledge and the applicable situation in a real world, as B reflected:

“*I think ... some classes about Chinese grammar ... we learn Chinese Linguistics taught in Chinese, we will know it better.*” Int.B

With respect to learning in English, C and D distinguished the knowledge about Chinese language and practice from other modules, expressing the need for learning Chinese language in Chinese as the target language because this professional content in Chinese language teaching cannot be simply adopted from the English department (Jin & Fu, 2011). To B and C, English is not considered to be as authentic in learning to teach Chinese as Chinese would be because it lacks the genuine materials in a realistic setting (Abdallah, 2015). As indicated, C felt unsure about learning all the modules in English, especially if trying to understand everything about teaching Chinese in English, new sentence is not suitable to think of another language in teaching Chinese as the target language, which creates a kind of paradox or contradiction here:

“*You are going to teach in Chinese, but you are learning how to teach this thing (language) in English, I am not really sure about that, but I guess there are some negative influences. How could you learn teaching Chinese language completely in English? You need to know the appropriate language instructions in Chinese, the exact language that you are going to use in Chinese teaching. Completely learning in English could refer to theories, approaches, methods ... but not authentic.*” Int.C

*Authentic* materials in Chinese language teaching will combine learning with applications in the real world (Weliwita & Witharana, 2019). Learning authentic knowledge through presenting its real-situation activities could engage participants with studies that can make them understand better what they are learning and the meaningful link of that learning to the profession (Reid et al., 2011). During the interview, C did not agree that knowledge of Chinese language and Chinese language pedagogy totally learned in English could be applied appropriately in a real Chinese class that requires its *authentic* presentation.

Tied to the programme specifications and mission statement of internationalisation, the TCIL
The curriculum is developed in interdisciplinary domains with the language of instruction in English. So, to a large extent, the decline of local cultures relevant to a particular profession might occur as a “by-product of internationalisation” (Reid et al., 2011, p.12). An obvious presentation of this concern could be construed in delivering the TCIL curriculum mostly in English language. Beliefs about Chinese language and TCIL may not be perceived as it is titled. When discussing English as the language of instruction in delivering the curriculum, C pointed out the concept of internationalisation by comparing to the concept of Englishisation in curriculum design (Shimauchi, 2018) that many universities seek to attract more international students (Kirkpatrick, 2011).

“This module (course or pathway) is called TCIL, but the university is still using English as the international language, so it’s really contradictory.” Int.C

Apart from some colonial influence on the dominant position of English language, international activities of communication under the development of globalisation requires a shared language which has strengthened the power and influence of English in this global context (Chang, 2006). Internationalisation has been connected with the dominance of the English language (Bottery, 2000) despite this not being able to fully represent its multicultural and multilingual intention (Kirkpatrick, 2011). English taught programmes are more applicable and appropriate to mix both local and international students, avoiding the exclusion of understanding (Risager, 2006), because students share English as the common language. Some interdisciplinary modules are delivered to students from different programmes across different departments, in which case students may not have learned any Chinese before. Increasingly, international students as one aspect of internationalisation (De Souza, 2014) rely partially on programmes delivered in English as an apparent indicator to internationalise academe for non-English speaking nations (Mihut et al., 2017). Critically speaking, internationalisation is a means to enhance educational quality rather than a target in itself. The challenge is taking classes with students from other professional areas, like English teaching, to create an inclusive learning environment but have a different learning community related to a different social meaning (Noble et al., 2014; Norton, 2016).

Considering the strategy of attracting more international students through English taught courses, C wondered if the language choice in designing TCIL could be Chinese for
international students as part of internationalisation due to the Chinese context (Brown, 2017) and the disciplinary nature (Xu, 2014), since the programme aims to prepare future Chinese language teachers in theory, even though it is in a university based on the British educational system as a transnational institution. After all, potential international students need to meet a certain level of Chinese language proficiency in order to use Chinese academically, socially and professionally, as a second language rather than a foreign language in terms of its function (Holmen & Risager, 2003; Risager, 2006).

### 4.2.2 Dilemmas of language in practice

After learning in English generally, participants reflected that English language influenced them in language choice of talking and writing as it became more comfortable to use English in classes or within the university. E preferred to communicate with classmates and teachers in English as it feels more natural. Interestingly, D took English language as something “professional” that is associated with a social meaning, and alluded to losing Chinese language competence as in the comment below:

“Actually my Chinese has been reduced (laughing)… when I take some notes, the first word I type will be in English. When I cannot use English to explain my points or something, I suddenly change into Chinese. English we gained from the class is more important because that is something we cannot gain from the daily life. That’s something professional.” Int.D

Taking English as a global language, A and E commented on the advantage of using English in Chinese teaching, especially in a foreign context, because the learners need English to process the new knowledge as “we all have knowledge in English”. D felt more comfortable with teaching Chinese in English as students could understand quickly and efficiently with a given example in English for their level of limited Chinese. Similarly, in their understanding without teaching experience yet, F imagined:

“Honestly, I don't think this question deeply, but just think I could use English to explain something to students or other people. Maybe it helps.” Int.F

For all the participants, the definition of a Chinese language learner, has been interpreted to include learners of various ages but to exclude those who do not speak English. The Chinese
language learners that the participants met in this English medium university are all familiar with English. When thinking of a different situation in which students do not know or do not prefer to speak any English, both A and D described that as a “problem”. In this sense, learning in the English language affected participants’ perception of English and forms of knowledge presentation in Chinese language teaching, whether in reality or in imagination. From the interviews, participants either explained English was their instructional language in teaching Chinese for its communicative function as a global language or anticipated that it would be. The process of immerse learning in English influenced participants' understanding of Chinese language teaching, especially in the beginning of teaching practice. E did not notice that Chinese language could be taught in Chinese until observing Chinese language classes.

“In the group task, I used a lot of English... to explain Chinese, but I have realised I should not use too much English (in teaching Chinese). And for the later teaching practice, I used more Chinese...” Int.D

Following observation and discussion with some mentor teachers as volunteers for TCIL, participants gradually noticed the option of adopting Chinese as the main instructional language in teaching Chinese to learners. Observing teaching in a real situation contributes to learning the characteristics and interactions of teaching Chinese language. E’s attitude and D’s choice of switching to using Chinese in teaching actually explains the knowledge construction through participating in a community of practice (Wenger, 1999). Seeing how it works in the real situation and learning from experienced teachers in this community of teaching Chinese encouraged participants to reflect on the activity, the meaning and the connection to their knowledge. This was their situated experience of understanding the instructional language choice in a professional situation, more importantly, understanding of who their future students are and what they themselves need to do.

The confusion about using English or Chinese in teaching Chinese language arose in participants’ teaching practice and this encouraged more reflections during the interviews. In B’s opinion, learning of Chinese language in English somehow constructs the knowledge of Chinese language in English as the original form. Participants demonstrated what they learned by delivering in English language as it is more natural. The contradictory language choice in teaching and learning Chinese was reflected in B and C’s interviews, with a summary of the discussion that it was hard for them to understand Chinese language if learning in English.
According to them, it is not authentic but paradoxical to think and express in English when teaching the target language - Chinese.

4.3 Substantive Content and Structure

The learning experience of various subjects provided participants a wider perspective, increased their social and global awareness as well as relevant knowledge. According to the interviews, linguistic theories of learning and teaching are useful to know how language learners feel about languages. This contributed to the participants’ understanding of language learning and teaching. Knowledge about language teaching is helpful in preparing them for becoming a teacher, for instance, teaching methodology, translation, communicative language teaching approach, especially the practical part (observation and teaching practice) no matter whether within the university or outside China as part of a cultural exchange programme. Despite the valuable knowledge about linguistics, all the participants recognised the influential role of Chinese language, and language teaching theories in learning. They reflected on the critical learning experience as preparation for becoming a Chinese language teacher, however this also demonstrates their unsure feelings about what exactly to teach in a Chinese language class. Without enough knowledge about Chinese language and the basic process to design a Chinese lesson, participants struggled with the disconnection of learning and practising, wishing they could have already learned something different, regarding teaching Chinese as an international language. All of them have wondered if the curriculum needs more focus on Chinese language, the content of teaching Chinese language and importantly an interconnected structure which can help to engage them in a professional community of teaching Chinese.

4.3.1 Modern Chinese

It is not unusual to encounter a situation where people assume a native-speaking person with a certain educational background can teach the language to foreigners, related to their language proficiency. In this study, all the participants were assumed to have sufficient knowledge of the ‘language’ as they are Chinese as E commented:
“Maybe they think we are Chinese, we have already known the Chinese grammar.””
Int.E

Even as a learner of TCIL, D also thought being Chinese was enough to be a Chinese language teacher and believed their knowledge of Chinese language was sufficient, but later realised the difficulty in explaining the language to their cousins and private students. It shows that native speakers of a language who might teach it as a foreign language will not necessarily be effective in doing so (Duff & Lester, 2008). For student teachers in Chinese language teacher education who speak Chinese as a mother tongue, it does not mean they naturally understand Chinese, characters, Chinese language structure and rules, language construction and application. In fact, these technical aspects are probably what they lack the most but indispensable in future teaching (Li, Q. 2012). Therefore, it is not the case that ‘anyone who speaks Chinese can teach the language to foreigners’, because it requires knowledge and skills to be a qualified Chinese language teacher (Lv, 1989; Shi, 2008).

The prediction of knowing cannot provide a solid and systematic knowledge for teaching at a professional level, which means teaching requires specialised knowledge as a profession. C felt it would be easier for them to teach better in practice if they knew what substantive content would be appropriate to teach. The disconnection between knowledge as presented and what is required in practice made participants reflect on what is missing. Feeling disorientated in teaching, participants could not contribute to the interaction with their students in relation to instructional information, despite having learned how to teach as general principles. The quote from C represents their confusion:

“We learned the principles of how to teach, like... for the Chinese language learners at this level, you could provide (this instructions) or the way to care about and understand the learner’s language level. These are principles and theories of how to teach, but not the exact content of what to teach.” Int.C

Clearly, A and E realised the importance of certain knowledge about Chinese language when answering students’ questions in class. It was very uncomfortable for them to explain and they concluded that they needed to acquire enough relevant knowledge which was identified by them as “basic”. A did not know the distinction between “shanglai” [come up] and “shangqu” [go up] or how to teach them as this was not part of the learning experience.
Classical Chinese did increase their insights into the development of Chinese language, but with no credit of confidence added for them in terms of what to teach in reality. This reflection from all the participants can be summarised with E’s expression:

“We need to learn the system and theories in Modern Chinese, (including) grammar and... because we just use the language, but we cannot explain how and why we use it.” Int.E

This “basic” knowledge means the concrete content and specific subject of Chinese language as the domain for TCIL. Thorough knowledge of modern Chinese (Wei, 2014) plays the central role of linguistic knowledge in language learning and teaching (Attaran & Yishuai, 2018). Native speakers of all languages who become language teachers need to be educated about the facts of their languages, understand the learning challenges and make sense of how to help their learners to deal with language problems (Orton, 2011; Attaran & Yishuai, 2018). Without enough modules in Chinese language, student teachers could suffer from a deficit of knowledge which can influence the educational quality (Wang, 2011).

Based on the interviews, participants did not have much exposure to this “basic” as the core knowledge about Chinese language. In part, participants could learn from observation, but this did not fit every learner such as E, because they still cannot understand completely by observing other teachers’ teaching without relevant learning experiences of the content knowledge and how to apply it as pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). With limited access or emphasis on this particular knowledge in learning, participants were not able to make the judgment as a professional discretion when teaching (Boote, 2006). This discouraged their interaction with Chinese language students and engagement with teaching practice, which therefore, more or less cut off the connection to the professional field of teaching Chinese that participants tried to build in the process of learning and practice.

4.3.2 Focused content

Learning different modules in the second year that include history, politics and literature, provided a comprehensive understanding about China, which is taken as more relevant to the other
C expressed that learning about Chinese language by positioning it as one among many languages in the world did not ensure a focused content of studying this particular language. Modules of Chinese linguistics are primary (Zhou & Wang, 2008) and solid systematic knowledge of Chinese language is essential (Li, 2009). In other words, Chinese is the foundation, teaching skills then make a difference (Lu, 2005). Participants learned teaching skills, teaching approaches and methods, but surprisingly, did not know what to do with a specific task in a Chinese lesson as C reflected:

“... but we don’t know the specific content and specific language about what should be taught in a Chinese lesson.” Int.C

They felt the content in learning to teach was too general, and some information about Chinese as a global language was not practical or theoretical, it is more about how the language can be used or spread. F raised the focus of Chinese language in designing their assignments, e.g. if they choose the TCIL pathway, coursework, essays or research questions could be related to this specific field, which in turn can engage their studies within a particular disciplinary area as a learning direction. Otherwise, learning something outside of Chinese language or teaching made them struggle in the final year, which is what happened to A:

“We do not need to know English literature. I made a lot of efforts to do the coursework.” Int.A

In the first two years, A and C invested in learning which excluded Chinese language teaching by completing other modules related to university foundation and social studies. C was particularly involved in the media field and A completely used on English teaching with a general concept of being a teacher in mind. E’s engagement in cultural areas and English enabled them to think of cultural teaching and translation. The dialogue and participation in different learning
communities (Pavlenko, 2001) while trying to understand Chinese language teaching turned out to be inconsistent with respect to negotiating a social meaning of learning (Wenger, 1999; Norton, 2010).

4.3.3 Systematic structure

To avoid or reduce any confusion in learning, all the participants reflected on the arrangement of the TCIL curriculum in the interviews, discussed and concluded how a careful curriculum structure designed with a relatively clear professional role could fit in throughout learning from earlier stage, including assessment design.

Students’ engagement with their studies can be heightened by helping them define a future professional identity as learning to fit. Participants expressed their need to fit the role of being a Chinese language teacher through learning more about language teaching, especially regarding the Chinese language. How the knowledge is presented in a particular course or programme will influence how students understand it, and affects their construction of personal connections to the social situation regarding knowledge (Reid et al., 2011).

“In the second year, I learned Chinese literature, politics and society, in Year 3, (I also learned) contemporary society… (learning these modules) helps, but it doesn’t help with teaching Chinese itself.” Int.A

Different disciplines and different ways of presentation demonstrate whether the knowledge appears to be abstract or applicable in a relevant profession (Abbott, 1988; Reid et al., 2011). Spending time in different learning communities did not encourage A to work on teaching Chinese as the knowledge presented may not be applied in teaching practice or FYP particularly for TCIL.

“This year is the fourth year, but the course is mostly about English… I feel very frustrated.” Int.A
As a student, passing all the modules for graduation is the main goal, whether they can really apply what is learned for any meaning seems not to be their preference, even it is not the expectation, based on what D shared in the interview:

“I want to gain more experiences from the practice but I need to graduate.” Int.D

The concept of identity formation is not static but dynamic and allows “consistency and contradiction” (Reid et al., 2011, p.87) in the process of negotiation as a personal experience, it is influenced by interacting with social contexts rather by achieving a completion of learning.

For the learning experience, all the participants suggested that learning earlier was critical as they felt they were “wasting a lot of time” in terms of becoming a Chinese language teacher. B changed their mind about being a teacher after one year due to the curriculum setting. Some courses were very informative for language learning and teaching, but D felt it was too late to learn in the final year considering the FYP, less attention could be paid to this area. So, based on their learning experiences, participants hope to change the time and order of some modules arranged in the curriculum, in order to have a logical system in the discipline.

“In Year two, we have a lot of social science studies, I have discussed (with the department) if we could put some social science courses as optional for students on the teaching track...” Int.D

Presenting the option of teaching Chinese earlier for a learning investment in relevant modules of Chinese language and teaching, would potentially create a holistic mapping process in building social connections. F wondered if students could be offered more options relevant to Chinese language teaching in Year 2, it might increase student numbers on TCIL as they would be aware of it through participation in productive activities.

To emphasise the meaning of authenticity in their learning process, D argued Chinese language teaching could be a greater part of the assessment with credits, and then students on TCIL would engage more with their academic assignments through active learning. The key point here is that authentic assessment design will positively promote the application of problem-
solving (Weliwita & Witharana, 2019) that constructs knowledge in situated practice (Barab & Duff, 2000).

“Sometimes, if we have other coursework, we will ignore this practice unless we have to do that.” Int.D

D further explained that seniors might lose attention or be less motivated for participating in teaching practice partly because it was not assessed. To design teaching practice as part of students’ academic assessment in the TCIL curriculum structure would enhance their involvement both academically and socially, which automatically increase the engagement (Hu & Kuh, 2002), in turn, strengthening the social meaning of learning for becoming (Dall’Alba, 2009b).

### 4.4 Invisable Teaching Demonstration

On an educational programme, teachers can serve as role models for students regarding particular tasks (Reid et al., 2011). Participants appreciated the advantages of having experienced English-speaking teachers who taught the modules relating to Chinese language or teaching Chinese language, with their different perspectives of both being a language teacher and language learner, especially through their encouraging guidance and feedback in learning and practice. This improved participants’ understanding of Chinese language teaching as a profession and their self-confidence. Meanwhile, participants shared a common dilemma that Chinese language teaching could not be demonstrated in classes as direct instruction, and further indicated their common desire for Chinese language teaching experiences from module teachers.

B once considered becoming a Chinese teacher due to the impressive and meaningful learning experience with the professor that B took as a professional role model in Classical Chinese. Before starting the module of teaching Chinese, E thought teaching Chinese mainly would be culture related, then realised that language comes first because of the module
teacher’s influential insights. Participants shared their lesson plans and materials for teaching practice through discussion with their module teachers. Useful oral and written feedback were given after each practice and follow-up discussions for any improvement played a critical role in preparation and construction of becoming a teacher, and A addressed the idea that teachers’ encouragement is very important to form the future role.

“What he or she believes in teaching Chinese greatly influences the learners. My teacher from this module always encourages us… it helps me build my confidence, even I know I’m lack of the knowledge (in teaching Chinese).” Int.A

To extend TCIL of preparing future Chinese language teachers as (language) teacher education, module teachers demonstrated general teaching or language teaching as models for participants in learning. Compared to traditional “school-based, grammar and theory-focused, teacher and textbook-centred” approaches (Wang et al., 2013, p.127), participants were exposed to foreign language learning and teaching which increased their pedagogical knowledge and how to organise a class in an international context. Besides, module teachers who had experience in learning Chinese offered valuable understanding and viewpoints from a learner’s perspective in teaching the language, sometimes by giving examples of what will and will not be useful in learning Chinese language. And this preparation and perspective assisted F to understand students’ motives of learning Chinese language. As a different approach of showing participants what their future students think and need, it necessitated a situated interaction within the context of teaching Chinese, which more or less, encouraged participants to be aware of the professional role.

On the other hand, to develop professional skills and teacher roles through modelling and instruction in language teaching, participants considered themselves prepared more as a teacher instead of a specific Chinese language teacher. This is because certain confusions in what exactly to teach were abstract to them, especially when they encountered some questions about Chinese language in learning or after they went to observation and teaching practice. The gap between what participants learned and what they observed or applied came into existence as C’s indication that teaching theories cannot work without the real content of language teaching. Participants mentioned none of their teachers in TCIL was a “real Chinese language teacher” except for Classical Chinese and Chinese Writing that are not the focus of language teaching. Educators’ experiences in Chinese language teaching influence students’ learning in terms of
fitting the gap between theory and practice (Wei, 2014). The situation of learning to teach Chinese without seeing how it happens in formal classes thus made C, D and E share the common concern of whether it might be different to learn directly from their teachers as models in classes.

“Maybe the school could get more Chinese language teachers. They know how to teach (Chinese) grammar and vocabulary, they can teach me how to teach, they have their teaching experiences and their own knowledge.” Int.E

The difference in their opinions meant the experience of Chinese language teaching for module teachers who can provide specific instruction and preparation (Wu, 2014). Imagining having some module teachers with Chinese language teaching experiences, E assumed a more comfortable atmosphere and sensible connection in terms of observing others’ Chinese classes or teaching practice, by referring to the way that it could be taught through role models during learning. In this authentic learning space, possible selves can be practised before entering the profession as the real world (Scanlon, 2011).

4.5 The Need to Expand Practical Learning

The TCIL pathway provides observation and teaching practice in the module focused on Chinese teaching, where participants had some opportunities in their own teaching of applying language teaching theories to practice through observing good models in the teaching community of practice, with feedback from peers and experienced professionals. It is a constructive process to formulate a teacher role as most participants started to develop the concept of teaching in a situated context as authentic. They discussed the indispensable role of practical learning and the gap with professional knowledge in Chinese language due to the dilemmas in teaching practice based on their experiences in this community that involves practicum opportunities for understanding Chinese language teaching and themselves as future Chinese language teachers.

4.5.1 The teaching community of practice
The interactive activities of sharing the common goal, in “a collection of people” (Eckert, 2006, p.1) that consists of module teachers, peers, students and mentors or professionals, creates the community of Chinese language teaching practice where participants can develop the meaning of what they engagement, imagination and alignment (Wenger, 1999). Trials, feedback and role model are involved in the process of participation and negotiation for the participants to understand Chinese teaching as well as themselves in relation to the community, which is interactive, reflective, constructive and experiential (Duff & Lester, 2008).

Teaching practice of applying theories learned from the modules and developing Chinese language teaching skills engaged participants through trials in Chinese class with Chinese language students and professional Chinese language teachers, as well as interaction with peers and module teachers. B emphasised it helped to correct errors or mistakes in practice and how to modify it after failures. E felt the same and noticed problems when observing classes. At the same time, this encouraged them to think reflectively how to prevent from making that mistake again as C expressed:

“In teaching practice, I tried to avoid these problems in my lesson plan, and tried to gradually make some progress and improvement.” Int.C

Participants felt they developed how to teach classes through practice. E learned how to explain why to use language in a certain way. To tutor private students as informal practice, D tried different forms of focus on language skills, by referring back to the notes taken in the classes. C definitely agreed whatever was learned in classroom would be useless without standing in front of students to present. B and F’s understanding of teaching experiences additionally reflected the link between theoretical design and practical application in teaching.

“So, after the practice, I know that you cannot just learn from the lecture, you have to touch it (practice and experience it).” Int.B

“Teaching experience (is important)… If you design activities but students are not interested, how to manage a class?” Int.F
The situated opportunities of observation and practice taught participants how to apply theoretical knowledge and to make sense of Chinese language teaching as a social process of learning within the context rather than abstract concepts or ideas (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013).

Apart from constructive critique to enhance practice, feedback from diverse resources was critical to participants in relation to their potential to become a member of the Chinese language teaching community (Boaler et al., 2000). Mentor teachers pointed out issues for attention and progress was helpful, while encouraging support from module teachers empowered A with courage and strength in the practical learning process. However, the complex feelings held among participants indicated different interpretations of the feedback.

From the first teaching practice in [place], A felt welcomed and also contributed to the curricular development, hence, considering as imagination to be part of that environment although “that is not real” because A did not need to demonstrate a lot of Chinese language and the feedback was very positive. The second teaching practice that revealed the essential role of Chinese language got A into a dilemma. Similarly, B, C, D, and E expressed their confusion and discouragement in Chinese teaching practice as a natural reaction to the feedback that they needed to demonstrate what has not been focused on during learning. Lacking real participation in the community of practice due to the professional knowledge in Chinese language, E felt they were “a problem maker” based on their interactions with the mentors, and not having a sense of self (Wenger, 1999) as an imagined competent Chinese language teacher.

Even with the consideration of a mentor teacher’s feedback as a professional judgment by recognising what they did well, A and C felt under-confident in their aim to become good Chinese teachers in response to the feedback from mentor teachers. C still took peers’ comments as more encouraging:

“I think what encourages me the most is the feedback from my peer students. I feel that the positive feedback from my friends would be a big encouragement (for me) to keep doing the point that they said I did well in teaching.” Int.C
Professional judgment from mentor teachers (Roberts, 2006) indicates the dominant knowledge reflected in its relationship with power (Reid et al., 2011), which did not engage participants as an equal in the relationship in the same way as with their peers.

Participants on the other hand, reflected and considered that mentor teachers in their observation and teaching practice took an influential model role in relation to understanding the concept of teaching and being a teacher, particularly being a Chinese language teacher. Through observation, participants found teaching Chinese was different from what they thought before according to mentor teachers’ role of modelling.

F realised it was not really as difficult or boring as imagined after the observation. C appreciated the mentor teachers’ organised skills in teaching and awareness of what is supposed to be taught. A expressed they were very experienced in making the same grammar or the picture more interesting and helpful in teaching, as well as how to design the PPT in a more effective way, which could be learned for real. The turning point of language choice in teaching Chinese took place when D observed intermediate class where the teachers did not speak any English with the students, and noticed that most teachers wrote characters without Pinyin - Chinese phonetic system to help with the sound of Chinese characters. This exposure and experience also brought E to the reality of teaching Chinese from an imagined concept of teaching Chinese only in English.

A teacher is perceived as “a certain kind of person” (Gee, 2000, p.99). The image a mentor teacher creates as a role model in this community of practice will influence participants’ understanding of the profession for further imagination and alignment (Wenger, 1999). The negotiable relations in the process of dynamic identification with mutual influences (Goldie, 2012), to a great extent, will help participants to navigate the sense of belonging (Wenger, 2000; Norton & Toohey, 2011) that acts critically in the imagination of who they would like to become as others in a professional area, with certain specific characteristics (Gazzola, et al., 2011). Confident teachers who can control the teaching pace well even with lots of problems from the students, were considered as a good model to practice and learn in the future:

“I really want to learn to be like her as a Chinese language teacher.” Int.D
The interpretation of the image could be changed if the exposure to the value and belief in the professional role is negative, therefore, it may eliminate desire to belong to this professional community (Wenger, 1999; Norton, 2000). The internal conflict takes place with respect to understanding what participants want to become or avoid:

“I don’t even want to be a Chinese language teacher. A teacher shouldn’t speak like that. At that moment, I even did not want to be a Chinese language teacher.” Int.D

A sense of belonging is developed through participation in the relationship between participants and experienced community members (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and it is the construction of an image of this community and membership (Chen et al., 2017) that is desired, extendedly aligned to the professional world for becoming Chinese language teachers as an imagined professional identity.

4.5.2 The practicum opportunities

Participants addressed the important connection between gaining enough teaching practice and becoming a teacher. Fieldwork experience of teaching can primarily enhance the process of developing professional identity (Weidman et al., 2001). The critical role of the teaching practicum was pointed out by participants in terms of the understanding and negotiation of their future professional images for teaching Chinese language. In spite of the positive voice, participants did not think their practical learning was sufficient in terms of length, form and varieties.

Observation started from year three with 13 hours devoted to it, but only 4-8 hours of teaching practice were not ideal according to A. C suggested 14 hours instead of just 4-8 hours for teaching practice. Scheduling the practicum only once every two weeks in the whole year four, from B’s perspective, was insufficient and needed to be extended. Meanwhile, D discussed the challenge of practice in the final year alongside other intensive modules as well as the Final Year Project, because of the limited attention to the practice, both in terms of preparation and post-session reflection:
Apart from the timeline, various students at different Chinese language levels could contribute to participants’ teaching experiences addressed in the interviews. D did not consider foreign staff’s Chinese class as a typical class for Chinese language learners, so in D’s understanding, it was not like what they will face in the future with limited number and category of students. Seeing the importance of practice in private teaching simultaneously, D desired more class teaching experience with a wider range of audience. E expressed the same restriction as well as requirement of different language levels. Due to practical limitations, C was thinking of alternatives such as practice in learning modules with different assignments design or demo tasks in class without teaching real Chinese language learners, but in a way to adopt the similarity to the real teaching situation (Newman, 1998).

“For teaching practice, we could practice without teaching Chinese to real students, but as our learning tasks in class.” Int.C

Whether they are various types of students or they are using different means of practice, the participants revealed the importance of creating a situated environment as authentic learning for knowledge acquisition and application (Rule, 2006). Knowledge about students and various class settings (Duff, 2008) can assist theory and practice to coincide with each other within contexts (Li, 2009), in a dynamic way, engaging participants with professional knowledge and skills. The professional role of a Chinese language teacher is a developmental process of preparation by acquiring specialised knowledge and skills, incorporating professional practice through participation and engagement in Chinese language teaching.

4.5.3 Dilemmas of teaching Chinese language

Recognising the importance of knowledge construction through practical learning in real situations in terms of becoming a teacher, participants viewed it as a meaningful process that “cannot be achieved through the accumulation of theory and through book learning alone” (Duff &
Motivated by the positive experiences from teaching practice, some of the participants started to realise and connect with the profession of teaching Chinese, although in an imagined form by negotiating if it is real or not, on the other hand, most participants anticipated to teach Chinese with fears and hesitation.

One-to-one lessons with private students as informal practice was helpful for D to understand being a teacher in the beginning, because it could build confidence in teaching Chinese when solving specific problems of Chinese language. A’s teaching practice in [place] was positive because of informal and good relationships between students and teacher, feeling welcomed and needed in that community, experience of designing a curriculum, which increased A’s confidence and sense of being a teacher in the following quote.

“The teaching practice there actually greatly increased my confidence to become a teacher.” Int.A

In C’s reflection, practice is learning about the attitude towards teaching, and C considered it as an enjoyable process by interacting with students. Although C thought being a language teacher was tough and difficult, after experiencing it through practical learning, C explained:

“I didn't have the accurate or authentic understanding of being a language teacher. I feel that teaching and interacting with students is enjoyable. That was the moment I changed my mind (to feel) I am a language teacher. That’s partly related to knowing us.” Int.C

Sharing the same comment about teaching practice although it was not a positive experience generally, B expressed:

“I have to say that the teaching practice teaches me how to be a teacher in a practical way. So, we have to take the teaching practice again, because this part can help me know what I really want to do.” Int.B

However, the dilemma of feeling “not real” for the positive teaching experience in [place] by comparing to another teaching practice within the university made A realise the weakness of lacking the knowledge in Chinese language. Chinese grammar, vocabulary and Pinyin, as well as how to design a PPT, details like how to use the characters in PPT, how to be consistent in
A’s opinion probably should have been presented from the beginning, step by step. This kind of disappointed feeling emerged with internal conflict is a hindrance to imagining the professional world as “real” (Gazzola et al., 2011).

E shared the same concern when teaching because Chinese grammar was the most difficult part and E did not know how to get out of that awkward situation. C self-evaluated that the teaching performance had not reached the right level by comparing to the teaching community and peers. Similarly, D did not have the confidence in teaching Chinese language because:

“We are prepared, psychologically, to be a teacher, but not a Chinese language teacher, just a teacher. I mean, not professionally.” Int.D

In contrast to other participants, B clearly did not enjoy teaching because of a fear in communicating with students, feeling like acting on the stage when teaching. Without any teaching experience yet, but through imagination of teaching in class, F was not sure but assumed to offer a simple explanation to students’ questions or no need to explain in class.

The negotiable relations in the community of Chinese language teaching practice indicates that the process of identification is dynamic with interactive influences (Goldie, 2012), underlining the sense of belonging to the teaching group dependent on their feelings of being included and secure (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). As a conclusion, it seems they all tried to avoid unconfident feelings in that situation. The gap between content knowledge and situated practice did not enable participants to have a stable and firm connection to teaching, and the interaction with Chinese language students was fragmented. Fear of teaching Chinese appeared to be a contradictory imagination in learning to become a Chinese language teacher.

4.6 The Imagined Future

Through the programme learning experience, with different degrees of understanding, participants were hesitant in imagining themselves as Chinese language teachers. Except for the one
participant from Year 3, all the other five had completed their learning and reflected the dia-
logic process of negotiating for a possible future image. By learning as a social activity, they
constructed the meaning of what is learned and who they can become within the contexts, not
static but dynamic as a changing process of imagination.

4.6.1 From being unspecific to being “not real”

Before entering the programme, A did not have a specific plan in terms of becoming a teacher.
Learning in English throughout the programme till Year 3, A was very sure about teaching
English in the future. Engaged through participation in different learning communities in Eng-
ish language, A perceived a strong relationship between English language and social meaning
by formulating a sense of belonging in that context. After going to a European country for
Chinese language teaching practice, A changed the mind:

“I am gonna be a teacher, and I didn’t know what Chinese teacher or English teacher
would be, but after teaching in [place], I want to be a Chinese language teacher in that
culture.” Int.A

Teaching practice in a situated context through interaction with different surroundings greatly
affected how A interpreted what they were doing by referring to the connection to the social
world. Feeling accepted by the community of teachers and students, A achieved the sense of
recognition and contribution to modifying the teaching curriculum.

Experiencing the second teaching practice within the university, A changed again in the reflec-
tion:

“After teaching practice in Staff Chinese class, I changed again. I still want to teach
Chinese, but ... I did not enjoy the teaching process and the learners did not enjoy much
in my class. It made me realise how to use the language (is essential) and this knowledge
you have to learn step by step, (such as) this grammar point and that grammar point...
it’s a different experience.” Int.A

In [place], communication of Chinese language in class was the focus, while the second prac-
tice made A identify the difference required for teaching. Apart from communicative function,
how to use the language in a certain form clearly is also important, but this has been missed during learning. A avoided it intentionally because they were not confident regarding supporting professional knowledge in Chinese language. Repeated in the end, A constructed an ideal professional identity in the future as “not real” with a description:

“More specifically, I want to be a teacher there in [place], Chinese language teacher. Firstly, I enjoy English language and English culture. I want to be part of it. If I have any chance, I want to be a Chinese language teacher in that kind of culture and community. I don’t have to teach them (Chinese) grammar, maybe I could teach the aspect I am good at...that’s my ideal (job)....” Int.A

Knowledge presentation in the curriculum, to a large extent, influenced the absence of consistency in the social connection to A’s learning, which by the end of learning formulated A’s imagination of becoming a Chinese language teacher in an English-speaking community without self-understanding how and why to use the Chinese language in an accurate way.

4.6.2 From being interested to avoidance

The interest and experience in learning Classical Chinese encouraged B to link with a future professional role, “I wanted to become a teacher because of classical Chinese”, but after learning for one year, that idea was changed because of a gap between learning and future profession as B reflected:

“I strongly suggested they (the programme) should change the order of the modules. Maybe because of the content? It was not interesting. And later during practice, sometimes I could not use simple and clear structures with examples to teach (Chinese language learners) how to know my real meaning...” Int.B

The conflict occurred in learning to become a Chinese language teacher. Without much discussion about Chinese language teaching during the interview, B emphasised the experience of the Final Year Project which was about writing and analysis. By engaging in a meaningful social activity through knowledge application, B built up a social connection within this learning community of writing. Disliking being stared at or “playing on the stage” might indicate a personality factor, while the evidence of using English more comfortably and confidently as
a changing outcome through learning and practising, somehow, strongly supports the influence of curriculum design on B’s understanding with regard to the sense of being in a social context.

“After one semester, I could speak without notes…I could communicate and talk in English, it makes my parents and friends feel confident as well.” Int.B

The choice for FYP topic area is dependent on what is presented and what B can contribute. Experiencing “impractical” knowledge, B completely avoided the social interaction in teaching Chinese by getting into further study in the field of heritage culture, in English.

4.6.3 From exploring to leaving

C started to develop certain curiosity about TCIL as a different pathway in learning. Thinking of becoming an editor was derived from taking a module about Chinese literature and participating in that learning community, according to C’s expression:

“At that time, we were having a module of Chinese literature. I found it’s attractive to be an editor.” Int.C

Then after teaching practice, C started to be aware of the meaning of social interaction, and self-becoming regarding a future profession.

“I feel like being a language teacher is a good thing (profession)...I would like to teach in the rest of my life as a career, I think it’s mainly about the teaching practice.” Int.C

Being aware of the possibility of being a language teacher, at the same time, C was still thinking of doing something else, self-reflected as inconsistent. The Final Year Project was a milestone in the exploration process as to C’s focus:

“I don't consider myself as a future Chinese language teacher...umm... currently I am really interested in China Studies. This is mainly because my final year project was a research kind of related to social science. I think I gradually got interested in social science and China studies.” Int.C
Similar to B, engagement in FYP with a focused disciplinary area to participate and contribute, C indicated a great interest in topics related to China, especially the relationship between literature and political context, a broad sense about China. Understanding the influence of learning and importance of professional knowledge, C realised the meaning of being a teacher through teaching practice. However, the Final Year Project studying China rather than specifically on teaching Chinese encouraged C to invest more in China Studies instead of TCIL.

4.6.4 From having no concept to feeling limited

The original plan for D was to study abroad without any specific major area.

“I didn't decide (if I would be in) language, political or economic field, but I have already had the plan to go abroad. I want to be in an international context. I did not have any concept of being a teacher.” Int.D

Afterwards, D noticed the interest in teaching Chinese to brothers and cousins from year two, and devoted more to learning the theories as well as interaction with language teachers’ modelling role in class before year three. D started to interpret what they were doing and thinking about what to do in that context, especially by referring or connecting to what was learned from TCIL. The application of abstract theories was complemented by activities outside of TCIL before the teaching practice, and the reflection on this social practice encouraged D to understand the close relationship between knowledge and profession as well as learning for a professional role.

Earlier teaching practice created a certain learning environment with connective elements that D could seek for a particular social meaning, alongside later formal teaching practice. More focused than the other participants, D had a stronger desire to become a language teacher, and with more engagement than others in learning to teach Chinese, D chose a topic related to Chinese language teaching for FYP, despite struggling with various subjects in learning that may not be practical in teaching Chinese. Meanwhile, D expressed a concern with forgetting Chinese language and made a further indication:
“But to be a Chinese teacher, the only thing I lack is the knowledge of Chinese language. If I can master that by myself or take extra modules, I think it is easier for me to make a decision. So... for this way (to make up the knowledge)... we need to wait.” Int.D

The interplay between theory and practice earlier enhanced D’s engagement in learning, but the knowledge presented to D did not make a holistic basis for D to participate fully in this professional community of teaching Chinese.

4.6.5 From teaching culture to being unsure

Generally understanding that the programme generally could teach people how to teach the culture, E found learning Chinese history was very interesting in Year 2. By acquiring good English skills, E constructed a picture of teaching “Chinese information” in English in the future. The social connection in E’s learning was associated with English language and something about China that were presented throughout the interaction within these learning communities.

After starting the module about teaching Chinese language, the discussion about whether teaching Chinese culture is important enlightened her understanding of teaching the language first. Attention was then shared to Chinese language teaching by learning and practising later. When asking what they want to become in the future, E took a long pause and explained:

“... I want to be a Chinese teacher ... but... I will just try to be... maybe a private tutor for someone who only needs some help with homework. I do not know what I can do. Maybe I can work in a Chinese cultural group to teach the culture ... maybe I need to go to the Confucius Institute to be a cultural teacher, sometimes, I am not sure...” Int.E

E has shown a great interest in teaching Chinese culture rather than Chinese language but in English, as it would be the same as teaching many subjects about China in English which entails the influence from the learning experience of engaging in different modules about China. After teaching practice, E made a slight change in the vision of a future profession by partially switching from teaching Chinese culture in English to possibly being a private Chinese language tutor without too many responsibilities of systematic knowledge in Chinese language.
All the participants seem to have a hesitation in thinking of becoming a Chinese language teacher in the future, except for F who “has no idea about teaching in China or out China” as a current third year student. As the only participant who has not experienced any Chinese language teaching, F did not have much understanding of the profession, nor as a TCIL learner, and there was no vision of what to do in teaching Chinese. Learning without interaction in the context of teaching Chinese for its social meaning, in a way, restricted participants’ identification of who they are and imagination of who they can become. Their hesitations are mostly due to the learning experience which has eventually affected their choices for the future in relation to what they want to become.

4.7 Summary

Learning is generally conceptualised as being situated in social relationships (Goldie, 2012; Monrouxe, 2010) as a dynamic process of identity formation (Ivanova & Skara-Mincâne, 2016). The learning experience of TCIL as a changing process refers to the language of instruction in English, substantive teaching content and knowledge structure lacking a specialised focus on Chinese language, teaching model without particular Chinese language teaching experience in module learning, as well as the critical section of practice in an extended teaching community through trials, feedback and role model of professionals, which interactively influenced the participants’ understanding of learning TCIL for its social meaning, however, negotiating their respective visions of the future professional images with hesitations in teaching Chinese language.

Learning and using English intensively enhanced participants’ engagement and investment in English, which in turn strengthened their desire of belonging to English speaking settings. Learning with others creates a community of practice (Wenger, 1999) where social meaning and identity are developed through interaction with people, books and even other media (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Participants shared and constructed their knowledge in these learning communities through interacting in the English language, at the same time, negotiating the meaning and understanding themselves in different social settings other than teaching Chinese.
Content design of less core knowledge in Chinese language teacher education did not associate learning and teaching Chinese closely in the professional context as situated, nor did the demonstration of teaching Chinese by module educators to build that connection. Experiences in practice and interactions with people especially mentors during practice including teaching practicum developed their desirable or undesirable self-image in relation to Chinese language teaching profession. A well-designed structure with supervision, mentoring, feedback and suggestions from experienced teachers (Duff & Lester, 2008) therefore is required for an effective teaching practicum in any form to develop participants’ future professional image within Chinese language teaching contexts. Learning through participation in Chinese language teaching constructs the meaning in relation to what it is in that social context, in other words, who they are in that social group of specific professional future (Boaler et al., 2000). Disconnection of authentic learning in Chinese and teaching Chinese in practice, on the other hand, created challenges and prevented participants from imagining to become Chinese language teachers.

Overall, the six participants of TCIL shared similar learning experiences which induced hesitation in becoming Chinese language teachers, while one has not thought about it having not yet experienced any Chinese teaching practice. Leaving one participant still in a process of navigating without a clear orientation, five out of six participants, therefore, made different choices in shaping their future professional areas outside of teaching Chinese, except for one who is contemplating whether to focus on teaching English or Chinese. Learning TCIL in English did not prepare participants with sufficient competence and confidence to teach Chinese, which is challenging to align their imagined professional identity with becoming Chinese language teachers in the future.
Chapter 5: Discussion of Key Influences on Teacher Identity Formation

To answer the research questions, the findings presented in Chapters 3 and 4 are elaborated in this chapter with respect to the relevant literature. The data and information has been generated from the documents and interviews which deal with domain knowledge, practice, educator and mentor roles as well as programme structure in curriculum design. Together they demonstrate a major part of the impact on learning and understanding the profession of teaching Chinese as an international language, as associated with the influence from being taught in English. The language of instruction and curriculum design are interrelated to impact on participants’ desired future choice as their professional track. The TCIL at ECIU as formal Chinese language teacher education has its unique design with wide content knowledge in English, which engaged participants in an interactive and reflective process of understanding what they learn and what they want to become. This chapter is structured around the key concepts in the literature review and the research questions:

- Does curricular design influence students’ imagined professional identity? How?
- Does the language of instruction influence learners’ understanding of their future professional identity? How?
- To what extent do TCIL students’ experiences demonstrate that the aims of Chinese language teacher education are met?

5.1 Curriculum Design and Imagined Professional Identity

Although the process of professional identity formation can be influenced by various factors as a dynamic course throughout human life (Nyström, 2009), the design and delivery of individual and programme modules in formal higher educational learning play an important role in developing students’ understanding of self-becoming with respect to a particular professional field (Reid et al., 2011). Knowledge, context and structure are considered effective in specialised curriculum design for imagined professional identity and these are dealt with in turn in the sections below.
5.1.1 Domain knowledge

The TCIL curriculum provides students with a wide-ranging knowledge base through sequential and parallel modules delivered in lectures, seminars and tutorials. The nature of the knowledge (Bruner, 1960) in the curriculum of TCIL reflects a diverse selection of subjects in social science without sufficient core content in (language) teacher education based on the programme specifications in this study. The knowledge for teaching Chinese language appears to be relatively fragmented in TCIL professional area according to the documents and interviews, while positively leaving more space to explore multiple disciplinary domains. Despite different universities have their own preferences in the curriculum arrangements of Chinese Language International Education (Yang, J. 2010), a solid and integrated knowledge base of Chinese language is highlighted in this study.

The key role of core knowledge, skills and attitudes in TCIL learning is associated with students becoming competent Chinese language teachers and in understanding their individual future professional identity (Remen, 2001; Holden et al., 2015). The core knowledge of the target language as a metalinguistic aspect in Chinese language teacher education directly offers an essential basis for developing a Chinese language teacher’s professional repertoire, as knowing the language forms and functions with sensitivity (Carter, 2003) will be closely related to teaching Chinese (Elder & Manwaring, 2004). With insufficient knowledge of Chinese language to participate in the process of negotiation to teach, the data from the interviews showed that participants did not acquire a positive image of being valuable and acceptable in that particular social world as their future professional community. In negotiating the possible self as a future professional, their self-evaluation that they were not achieving the teaching level and any uncomfortable feelings about teaching is mainly due to the missing knowledge in Chinese language. This discomfort due to lack of competence in using Chinese language underlines the importance of the requirement of basic knowledge of the Chinese language as a domain in terms of linguistic information and expertise so that the job of teaching can be accomplished. In simple words, a solid knowledge foundation of Chinese language is essential (Lu, 2005; Wang, 2011; Chen, 2017) and crucial to engage participants effectively in the communicative process of teaching Chinese.
Apart from the theories of general (English) language, knowledge of Chinese linguistics, has therefore been considered as the most useful and helpful knowledge when undertaking Chinese language teaching that includes practice. All the participants have concluded that they value and appreciate the importance of formal knowledge preparation for Chinese language teaching practice, however, the limitations in this curriculum have restricted the possibilities of becoming Chinese language teachers with respect to what they know about Chinese language in teaching, as “who we are and who we become is dependent on what we know” (Pinho & Adrade, 2009, p.317). Without formal access to the knowledge and practice, only limited self-learning of relevant information about Chinese language did happen to inform knowledge preparation for teaching practice. Although self-directed learning can be significantly helpful to construct a professional identity (Paterson et al., 2002), formal curriculum design of well-prepared learning content as essential knowledge through practice can provide more effective opportunities to develop students’ abilities in and achieve their intentional desire of becoming professional teachers in the future (Ryan & Carmichael, 2016).

5.1.2 Contextual interaction

There are complex factors involved in the long process of forming a professional identity such as cultural, political, personal factors, however, an academic environment is expected to stimulate its relevant work environment through developing students’ knowledge and skills for future employment (Holland, 1997). This emphasises the interplay between the subject and the context (Beijaard et al., 2004). TCIL is a professional preparation focused on specific language teaching, contextualisation to the profession through learning community, development of a professional role, teaching practice and extended connection. These elements are all interactively engaged with, inform and enable the students’ negotiation of becoming professional Chinese language teachers, alongside some contradictions and issues with the course and its intentions, as these intentions relate to the students’ needs and programme aims.

First, learning about China in English takes a large part of the TCIL curriculum as a different learning community for TCIL students. Students participate and engage in learning groups with
the same learning aims of knowledge construction and improvement widely related to China, in a sense, create a community through the interaction with teachers, peers, books and other resources. Learning experiences and the process of sharing the modules with others play both positive and negative roles in participants’ understanding of the subjects and themselves. The beneficial impact of various perspectives from teachers and peers increased the intercultural and global awareness, however it also brought up confusions as to whether what they are learning is a good fit for their needs or whether it is actually an inappropriate design for them as TCIL students. Also, it rather more suited for other students on a different pathway within the same BA programme that has a completely different professionally oriented programme within the university. It seems various modules in different knowledge domains including the Final Year Project with flexible options, did not encourage participants to have a clear identification of themselves as the TCIL students. The first step of negotiation for understanding who they are as learners is contextually critical to help them figure out what they want to do in the future.

The consistent participation and interaction with others as engagement for sharing the same goal of developing a repertoire of knowledge, values, practice, especially through a common language actually creates a learning community of a particular context (Chen et al., 2017) where participants can build and see the connections with their teachers and peers or seniors in the process of interaction. It has been argued that this part of the learning process brought to classroom as one form of situated learning could lead to students’ informed ability to imagine where and what they want to be (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1999), through making sense of their participation in the learning community. However, participants in this study negotiated their identifications in different learning communities that potentially encourage them to interpret the connections and imagine different social worlds. Sharing the same learning community of English literature, for instance, participants from TCIL in their later years either engaged with learning to negotiate a connection to the social group out of Chinese, or stopped participating in learning (Wenger, 1999) as they could not see any meaning of it in relation to their practical teaching. Perhaps by getting exposure to different learning communities associated with where they can be called TCIL students, they will have the opportunities of more contributions to that community for learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Understanding the specific discipline of teaching Chinese as an “international” language depends on the discourses and activities organised in the learning communities of the programme.
The curriculum design of learning communities can explicitly socialise the participants to understand themselves as the TCIL students in a disciplinary area and then potentially as part of a specific profession that is distinct from others (Trede et al., 2012). This distinction can help participants invest in the Chinese language teaching field and in turn navigate their social role for the future profession as imagination and alignment in a wider sense (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Learning as only knowledge acquisition like passing exams, or learning within different professional contexts, cannot promote participants’ engagement with the study of TCIL, as this will break the learning away from the construction of meanings or privilege intensive participation in different social contexts other than teaching Chinese language. More generic applications in various disciplinary areas pull participants out of the learning community and so puts them at risk in developing a future professional identity (Reid et al., 2008) related to teaching Chinese.

The second is about professional role. Seeing and taking the professional role as authentic can significantly improve TCIL students’ participation for social learning in situated context because it will help them get more familiar with the particular teacher role by teaching Chinese in the professional situation, which all the participants expected to experience. This situated learning environment could be a simulated model of authentic learning in class (Herrington & Oliver, 2000; Bennett et al., 2005) and an apprenticeship model with professional mentors in practicum later (Baccarini, 2004; Oakham, 2001). Module teachers are the direct role models for the participants. They learned what a teacher or language teacher means and how to handle Chinese language students through observations when present in classes. Module teachers’ professional experiences and values can influence the course content design and learning process (Mitchell, 2013). Close interconnection between a professional role and integration of the experience in curriculum design, would be useful in order to keep a focus on professional formation in the learning process (Reid et al., 2008). Teaching tasks designed in class but contextually related to the situations of Chinese language teaching would be meaningfully constructed as their professional knowledge with relevant social implications. The influence of observing and experiencing how to teach Chinese language, whether in a real setting or borrowed from the real-world as a practice or activity in class, is positive and has been reflected by the participants to be effective. And the important role of modelling and mentoring is absolutely
recognised in the process of shaping participants’ future professional images during learning the TCIL curriculum, after all, this necessity is not just for in-service stage at work but also during the pre-service stage of learning (Gazzola et al., 2011; McAllister et al., 2009; Ticknor, 2016).

A professional role can be presented and communicated in the developmental process for an idealised perception (Thorton & Nardi, 1975) of becoming. However, the participants’ imagination of being a Chinese language teacher was limited or restricted within the professional role presented to them. Generally speaking, participants’ professional knowledge and skills about language teaching methods have been developed, to some extent, through the modelling of discourse, class participation and learning feedback, which is tied more closely to teaching in English language before the Chinese language teaching practicum, or rather teaching practice here in terms of time and form. The professional image of being a language teacher or a Chinese language teacher in the participants’ understanding is therefore more or less connected to the world of English language teaching. Through observing professionals as models and interacting with appropriate role models (Goldie, 2012) in the community of Chinese language teaching practice even at learning stage for understanding the role, participants could reflect on their authentic experiences (Stein et al., 2004; Rule, 2006) to formulate connections and aspire to the role.

The third key influence for this section of discussion is teaching practice. The apprenticeship model in practicum (Baccarini, 2004; Oakham, 2001) is a straightforward process of authentic learning through role taking, and it is often interpreted as a core element in developing professional self-image (Weidman et al., 2001). The gap between theoretical knowledge and reality of teaching can be filled by professional field experiences (Ivanova & Skara-Mincāne, 2016). Confusing understanding and different vision of language teaching due to inconsistent exposure to the professional role in learning, comparatively highlight the importance of teaching practice where abstract theories and practical applications meet, more reflections and negotiations occur for the specific meaning within that situation. Participants could evaluate their experiments in teaching and relate to social connections which will enhance their understanding of teaching Chinese as a real-world profession (Attaran & Yishuai, 2018). Within a profes-
sional context for learning through practice, participants would have more opportunities to receive feedback and associate it to the community of teaching practice, which promotes a reflective thinking process for possible selves.

The critical influence of teaching practice that emerged in this study is especially concerned with understanding participants themselves and the meaning of learning TCIL. The complex process of interpreting how, why and what they did in the social context of teaching Chinese, demonstrated the impact of learning as a process of socialisation, through making an interrelationship between knowledge acquisition and application in teaching. In this sense, one participant without experiencing the teaching could not “think deeply” as high level of reflective process to understand the profession for knowledge construction (Rule, 2006). The common experience of insufficient content knowledge in pedagogical knowledge application (Shulman, 1987) during the Chinese teaching practice did not prepare participants with an accurate and confident response as an engaging interaction with Chinese language learners. In other words, the function of teaching practice as seen in this study was not seen to fully encourage participants’ development to be part of this educational setting as their professional field. The feeling of not being accepted in that situation as well as feedback from teaching mentors who stressed the importance of having a solid knowledge of Chinese language, in turn, require a reflective practice with respect to teaching and knowing themselves in and for that social setting. If participants self-evaluate that it is possible to achieve the requirement based on their practice experience, for instance, interaction with Chinese language learners and various forms of feedback, then they will feel more suited to that world. By contrast, if they think it is not easy to make up the fundamental knowledge of the target language, which is required, they will not try to envision themselves as members of that particular social group. The interaction of participants, Chinese language learners as their students, mentors and module teachers in teaching practice is constructive for learning to teach, as knowledge application and contribution instead of just awareness and correction.

The fourth discussion is extended connection to the professional community as a real social context. The process of interaction with professionals and language learners as teaching practicum both inside and outside the university, incorporated with observation, mentoring and feedback, increased the participants’ awareness of teaching Chinese language as a professional field
and formed the professional relations (Wenger, 1999). However, fewer opportunities of this exposure earlier in the TCIL curriculum, and less involvement of Chinese language teachers in learning TCIL, thereby did not promote modelling and instruction effectively in class and so did not create enough spaces for the extension of classroom to learn with and within the professional group of teaching Chinese language. An early interaction with mentor teachers or professionals and Chinese language learners within the context of Chinese language teaching is necessary. It would guide the TCIL students to perceive their learning as meaningful participation in the social group of a specific profession. A contextual learning environment of (Chinese) language teaching with a professional direction here means an extensive dimension of relating to the professional community of Chinese language teaching. It is not a real community of practice at work but a contextual group of practice with teachers, peers and mentors in learning, for acquiring and applying the knowledge of teaching Chinese as the common goal. With this influence on how the participants understand themselves as acceptable or not in that social setting, they would be able to negotiate a wider connection as the sense of belonging (Wenger, 1999) to that particular professional community.

Participants’ interactions with professional Chinese language teachers and Chinese language learners indicated the need for consistency and diversity in participation within the professional context. This consistent process promotes intensive interaction with mentors and Chinese language teachers (Alexander, 2011) from the professional community and that could help them to imagine such interactions in the future. The close interplay between learning and its social meaning will in turn engage them with studying TCIL as investment in a systematic knowledge construction for being part of Chinese language teaching community.

5.1.3 Systematic structure

Educational programmes for particular professions need to provide integrative knowledge that engages students within specific disciplines. A systematic structure in curriculum generates a dynamic circle for knowledge construction and application, which can reinforce students’ learning trajectory. The ways of organising the discipline and embedding the professional paradigms affected participants’ ways of thinking, communication, even writing and speaking, which eventually greatly influenced their ways of interaction in learning the discipline (Reid
et al., 2011). When they experienced the confusions about the language of instruction and how to present Chinese language in teaching, the participants reflected on the knowledge structure of TCIL and saw it for a change.

Inadequate content knowledge of Chinese language affected the integrative knowledge construction involved with Chinese language pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Wang et al., 2013). Linguistic knowledge for the content of what to teach, pedagogical knowledge of how to teach, and understanding of how to apply the teaching theories with particular content as pedagogical content knowledge need to be interconnected within the Chinese language teacher training programme (Shulman, 1987; Duff, 2008). Insufficient knowledge from these three dimensions in TCIL design as Chinese language teacher education and disconnection to the real-world of teaching Chinese language, caused participants’ learning experience of ritual knowledge acquisition simply for assessment and graduation (Reid et al., 2011). Although the participants have learned general linguistic aspects and theories of language learning and teaching, their engagement and interaction in particular Chinese language teaching context could not occur fully but was viewed as fragmented. The concept of teaching Chinese as an international language relies on the exposure to a holistic meaning construction within a wider range of contexts. Integral understanding of Chinese language learners and Chinese language curriculum as contextual knowledge (Richards, 1998; Duff, 2008) in Chinese language teacher education would supplement for a whole vision of the profession.

Frustration of learning irrelevant modules in the final year does not seem to be helpful to Chinese teaching practice, and neither does learning and completing unrelated modules for their degree completion. Devoting to the FYP out of Chinese and teaching as learning investment significantly engaged participants with social practice, mutually accelerated their interest, confidence and knowledge in a different context. Additionally, learning a module with social connection to the relevant profession, for instance, linguistic analysis of English language structure, encouraged participants to focus on the materials of English language teaching as a professional context of studies. Obviously in that situation, participants seemed to be led away from teaching Chinese titled as an expectation of the programme. Without inter-connective knowledge support in learning, the feeling of incompetence or knowledge conflicts in Chinese teaching practice at late stage has caused participants to find it difficult to connect to the image
of being Chinese language teachers. Meaningful connections between different modules can keep them staying with deep learning. A learning environment through knowledge designed with links to the future professional skills and role would make a great contribution to the participants’ view of professional practice.

The generic feature “everyone can study the course” undermines the specialism of the curriculum. It does not strongly keep the social exclusivity developed from being a TCIL student. As a result of the mixture of TCIL students and other disciplinary majors, participants from TCIL did not feel that they achieved what is specialised. The curriculum structure of TCIL needs to add the exclusive feelings (Weaver, et al., 2011) by differing from other programmes for its extensive connection to the professional area of teaching Chinese language (Boaler et al., 2000). Differentiating and learning about the boundaries between themselves and graduates of other disciplines relate to different professional domains, the boundaries between themselves as future Chinese language teachers and future students as Chinese language learners (Trede et al., 2012), can empower participants to develop a sense of who they are as TCIL students in the context of Chinese language teaching.

5.2 Language Influence in the Process of Socialisation

English language is a major component of the learning process in the TCIL curriculum, and so influenced participants’ language choice in both academic and professional settings. Preference of English language in speaking and writing as well as in teaching indicates the significant effect of their investment in learning and using English. In contrast to Chinese language, participants were presented with much more knowledge in English including Chinese linguistics that is required in the reality of language teaching. Without sufficient authentic form of knowledge acquisition in Chinese as the target language, the proportion of English experiences through almost exclusive participation influenced participants’ interpretation of Chinese teaching practice and their vision of Chinese language teaching as a profession.
5.2.1 Language choice and social meaning

The English medium of this international university environment provides and requires intensive participation in learning and using English language. Gradually and apparently, engagement in English language as investment throughout three to four years influenced participants’ understanding of themselves and future professional roles as to what they want to do as a career because language has a social meaning of interaction and participation for social becoming instead of simply linguistic structure of words or sentences (Norton, 2016).

In order to achieve academic learning outcomes in most modules taught in English, it promoted the advantages and importance of English through participation in the learning environment with peers and educators, for different topics largely with respect to studies about China, language learning and teaching. And the learning process with English language as communication tool creates a social world where learners’ identity can be constructed, as “language is not just conceived as a neutral medium of communication, but is understood with reference to its social meaning” (Norton, 2010, p.350), in which context that English is described by the participants as “global”. With emphasis on the necessity of studying theories in English as systematic knowledge of language learning and teaching represents an authority of certain community extended from classroom, participants face the possibilities of identity options for the future (Norton, 2010).

This process of negotiation for a social power and cultural capital gained from investment in English language potentially engaged participants with the imagination of connection to a social group (Pennycook, 2001), which extends their understanding of learning to a global level, however, it may not focus sufficiently on Chinese language. The crucial role of English in class and outside was identified as “professional” by comparison to Chinese language. More confidence in English usage after learning in TCIL supported participants’ choice of English as transferable knowledge across different professional contexts for more future options. Participants’ learning and using English intensively as a second language is therefore a social process of identification for a sense of becoming through interaction within a specific group, which involves “confidence, happiness, imagination and self-knowledge” (Reid et al., 2011, p.94).
Investment in English undermines, limits and deviates the participants’ Chinese linguistically installed ability, as well as culturally inflected attitudes and perceptions, not conventionally but in a general sense with respect to the globalised concept of English. The linguistic knowledge, skills and cultural connections are central to teaching the language in terms of content, values and context. Therefore, investment in English affected the participants’ becoming Chinese language teachers with extension or limitation of the meaning. On the other hand, their desire and commitment to learning and using English derives from a mutual interplay of getting “comfortable” in a context eventually provided a guidance for their language choice and being part of “something professional”, establishing a meaningful connection between their investment in English and social roles within English context (Norton, 2010).

5.2.2 Alignment to professional community as possibility

In training language teachers, it is important to provide opportunities of exploring language not only as a linguistic pattern but also as a practice in social context (Norton, 2016). The presentation of Chinese language as content knowledge and teaching Chinese language as pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) in the form of English language did not sufficiently support the social practice of teaching Chinese. Dilemma in learning about Chinese in English and understanding Chinese in Chinese resulted in an uncomfortable scenario of teaching Chinese in practice. This obstacle caused by the mismatch of knowledge learning in English and knowledge application in Chinese reflects the paradoxic experience and situation that participants need to cope with for the possible professional options. Associated tightly with English as the language of instruction in learning throughout TCIL, a professional community of an English-speaking environment was desired even it is “not real” for teaching Chinese language because of its less focus on Chinese linguistic knowledge. It is challenging to form a self-image of “real” Chinese language teacher in the future with the prepared “systematic knowledge” that the participants have learned as well-established theories mostly in (English) language learning and teaching.
On the other hand, because of learning in English, different perspectives and understanding of Chinese and China through participating and interacting in these learning communities enhanced their critical thinking and broader view in the frame of social sciences. English language holds its essential role in participants’ learning process by responding to these communities that do not necessarily relate to Chinese language teaching. Presentation of the content and engagement in English accelerated participants’ professional competence as transferable language skills in other situations. It highlighted the changing process of practice in English and eventually the outcome of feeling natural and confident in using English. The changes in English competence in presentation and writing were dramatic and affected how participants thought of themselves as belonging, not in the particular world of teaching Chinese language but in a world where English language works. By contrast, fear and avoidance of responding to learners’ questions about Chinese language because of a lack of solid knowledge foundation, as well as the evaluation of their teaching practice, to a large extent, prevented participants from further participation in teaching Chinese as a result of the negative self-perception as Chinese language teachers.

Therefore, the more similar to professional practice that the form of knowledge is presented, the more comfortable and confident the students will experience during the knowledge application in practice, and the more contribution will be made, the more recognition will be received, the more desirable the students can feel to be a member of that professional area or community. Absence of reflective thinking and less interaction associated with the social practice of teaching (Borthwick et al., 2007; Dall’Alba, 2009b; Tochon, 2000) will drag participants away from the focus of becoming teachers, as the meaning of practice is lost in the process.

5.3 Learning to Become

Viewing learning as socialisation through higher education, the TCIL design for formal Chinese language teacher education undertakes an indispensable role and responsibility in relation to participants’ understanding of the profession as teaching Chinese language and negotiation of future choice as their potential profession.
5.3.1 Aims of TCIL

The BA programme of Chinese Language International Education from the Chinese Ministry of Education presents the aims as a guideline for all universities by emphasising the specialisation with solid knowledge of Chinese language, comprehensive understanding of Chinese culture and communication outside China. It provides professional preparation for future Chinese language teachers to speakers of other languages, working for culture exchange and practical linguistics in various fields (MoE, 2012). Chinese is the target language as teaching mission, and it places great importance on linguistic knowledge in Chinese and its application in teaching, which is closely associated with what is needed for being international Chinese language teachers in the STCSOL (Hanban, 2012).

Curriculum design is subject to external influence through educational policies and internal university organisation. As demonstrated in the introduction and section 3.1, an updated vision of the BA programme as a mixture of three majors from MoE has extended its aims for an international context and a wider range of professional potentials (2012). This modification in the BA programme of CLIE, mandated by the MoE, has influenced programme design regarding specifications and curriculum structure in universities in China, including those independent universities with overseas partnerships such as ECIU. Additionally, the programme titles in Chinese and in English do not share the same focus, which potentially caused a dilemma in curriculum design and students’ choice and number in studying the programme. The curriculum is not only tied to the complex nature of Chinese Language International Education as an interdisciplinary major with a primary aim of preparing qualified international Chinese language teachers, but also to the university mission statement (Reid et al., 2011). The Internationalisation of ECIU is embedded in the specifications of TCIL through developing the curricular structure with interdisciplinary domains and using English as the instructional language of choice.

Concerning the overall aims of TCIL stated in the latest CLIE programme specifications from ECIU, the direction to the world of teaching Chinese language to speakers of other languages appears to be merged within the discipline of CSS, which entails a broad sweep of professional characteristics in social science with appropriate language teaching rather than specifically
Chinese language teaching. To follow this description as a guideline, the TCIL curriculum design at ECIU aims to prepare participants with language teaching in general while learning various subjects to enhance their social awareness, analysis and communication. This design opens opportunities to explore alternative options through learning different subjects and participation in different learning communities. At the same time, it is not easy for participants to make a clear connection between learning of these modules designed for the overall aims and the “real” professional world of teaching Chinese language as an international language. There appears to be a gap between the aims for general CLIE as Chinese language teacher education and the TCIL pathway as Chinese language teacher preparation in this study, which is evident in that the STCSOL for international Chinese language teachers (Hanban, 2012) has not been fully demonstrated in preparation of the TCIL students to become Chinese language teachers.

5.3.2 Negotiation for the future

Knowledge presentation relies on the aims of TCIL through curriculum design. If this knowledge does not refer sufficiently to the professional context - Chinese language teaching practice, participants perceive it as abstract and only for passing their assessments. Given the limited time allocated to teaching practice, and especially located it in the final year, even the knowledge initially might be designed to focus on the transferable aspect of application in different professional areas, different disciplinary fields without specialisation in Chinese language and teaching can shape participants’ learning track for different professional options and somehow take a risk to make the process of identification of their future professional roles more confusing or sometimes contradictory. Ideally, with a good understanding of learning in an educational programme as contextually specific, curriculum design of TCIL could be extended to learning for the future profession (Eraut, 2002).

After three to four years of learning in English with only a little Chinese language teaching practice, participants developed an understanding of themselves with respect to the learning process, as well as their future choice for a potential profession. The visions of their future professional images have been formed in diverse paths with more investment in English and disciplinary knowledge out of Chinese language teaching, even by gradually “losing” Chinese language. Investment in English language not only by learning in English but also learning
about English, participants increased their capabilities and social power as exchange currency to negotiate for a social role with regard to its relevant context, which therefore cannot be necessarily associated with teaching Chinese. Whether thinking of teaching English, or teaching culture in English, or writing in English, even imagination of the world of journalism, eventually demonstrated the influential role of English language as “professional” in participants’ learning process.

During Chinese teaching practice, participants tried to connect learning with meaning for that particular professional situation, negotiating whether they potentially belong to it or not. The solid knowledge foundation of Chinese language that is missing in the TCIL curriculum design apparently influenced critically in this process of negotiation. The gap to the “real” Chinese teaching profession is created through the imagination of an ideal professional community of teaching Chinese without too much focus on Chinese language analysis and grammar. Experience of the “impractical” knowledge that was identified through teaching practice, participants got into a dilemma of understanding the social interaction in that educational context. The meaning of being a teacher and possibility of becoming part of the professional community were negotiated during this process. The connection of what they do and what they want to do was interpreted by referring what they learned and what they need to learn, in order to seek for a particular social meaning as their future professions.

To formulate a professional identity or a professional self in participants’ imagination, it is an ongoing process of becoming which can be chosen and modified according to what enables them to feel more confident, comfortable and acceptable in the professional context (Ibarra, 1999; Baumeister & Muraven, 1996). Without any experience of teaching practice, one participant especially did not have a clear understanding of teaching Chinese language, let alone the profession. Until they experienced teaching practice, the other five participants realised the shortage in knowledge of Chinese language in learning and felt disconnected from what is required in Chinese language teaching. This experience prevented most of them from developing a sense of belonging to the real world of teaching Chinese language, but encouraged them to seek alternatives where they can anticipate their potentials and values. Therefore, a further vision of becoming a Chinese language teacher is considered as “not real”, leading them to look for other professional options.
5.4 Summary

TCIL as one pathway of the BA programme CLIE in the study has been shaped in a transnational higher educational context that promotes English as its instructional language. The learning process with intensive engagement in English influenced participants’ language choice in teaching Chinese and developed their connection to the relevant social context of English. Curriculum design of various subjects created different learning communities without specialised knowledge in Chinese language which affected participants’ commitment to learning, thus created disconnection to the Chinese language teaching context. Participants’ understanding of themselves with respect to becoming Chinese language teachers indicated close relations to contextual involvement in learning, solid knowledge construction, exposure to the professional role, teaching practice and extended connection to the profession.

From the contextual situation for social practice in learning, the participants could understand the culture and start to appreciate their meaningful involvement for more powerful status in the professional area that can be imagined with English language. It is clear that graduates from TCIL were hesitant with regard to a future in teaching Chinese language to speakers of other languages. The aims of Chinese language teacher education, therefore, do not appear to be fully met in TCIL as titled and expected, and the theoretical and practical implications to be drawn from this study will be presented in Chapter 6.
Chapter 6: Implications for Educating Future Chinese Language Teachers

With the TCIL pathway, the CLIE programme aims at ECIU were shaped in the unique context of international higher education, both following a British educational system and requirements from the MoE in China, leading to a distinctive direction for preparing language teachers. A specific emphasis on the Chinese language is lacking, despite the programme focus on Chinese language teacher education. This small scale case study of the TCIL pathway, therefore, explored the interrelationship between student learning and their socialisation as Chinese language teachers, to understand how the interdisciplinary programme design, mostly taught in English, impacts on future professional identity formation. By exploring both official documentation and students’ perspectives on their learning experience, TCIL as Chinese language teacher education appears only to partially achieve the goal of preparing international Chinese language teachers. The study ascertained that curriculum design and language of instruction influenced the learning and future intentions of TCIL students. Authentic learning in Chinese language and application of content knowledge in situated professional contexts as it emerged in the study have a dramatic impact on how students envision themselves as future professionals through formal Chinese language teacher education. The significant insights and contributions of this research reveal the importance of Chinese language both as the content and the language of instruction in the process of learning to teach Chinese. It cannot be sidelined as it is this core knowledge for teaching Chinese as the target language contextually that is vital to success in authentic teaching situations. The theoretical and practical implications are explored in this chapter.

6.1 Theoretical Implications

The TCIL pathway to prepare future Chinese language teachers detailed in this study has been explored to better understand how the dominant language of instruction and curriculum design relate to its intention to support the imagined professional identity of future Chinese language teachers.
6.1.1 Learning and social connection

Learning to become a Chinese language teacher is a contextual process where students develop competence for the future professional world. Language choice in learning and teaching as a dilemma represents the effect of language with social meaning when it comes to envisioning future professional situations. Integrated knowledge presentation with a specialised focus through practice as contextual learning (Noble et al., 2014) can promote interaction and interrelation between what knowledge is and what students become. Apart from learning as knowledge acquisition, seeing clear professional connection as relevant learning for the future will engage students with formal university studies. Learning without connections to the professional setting, students will switch the learning focus or lose the commitment to learning consistently. Meaningful knowledge should be constructed intellectually with future professions being integrated.

6.1.2 (Chinese) language teacher education as a process of negotiation

As implied from these findings, learning is a dynamic process of socialisation, with language involved as part of this negotiation through specific communities of practice (Wenger, 1999; Pavlenko, 2001) for the relevant social roles. The form of knowledge presented with accuracy and opportunities of application available or not can play an enormous impact on students’ understanding what the learning means (Weidman et al., 2001). In language teacher education, content knowledge of linguistics and pedagogical knowledge of teaching methodology have to be combined appropriately for the pedagogical content knowledge as application. The language used in this learning process influences language choices for social interaction where a particular community can be created either as real or imagined. In this particular process, core knowledge is foundational and new knowledge is constructed through participation, investment and negotiation that consists of reflection, with assistance of the language, for the identification of a specific connection to its social context, which leads to the orientation of a professional role. The interrelations of various components in the negotiative process of learning in a language teacher education programme is presented in Figure 6.1:
6.2 Practical Implications

Based on this study, great investment in English language marginalises the focus on the Chinese language in TCIL which can cause confusion in teaching the language. Furthermore, the social practices of teaching Chinese are minimal which undermines participants’ envision of a future professional self as a Chinese language teacher. Participants considered it far less beneficial or useful to learn about teaching Chinese in English, and they would find it rather more constructive to learn in Chinese itself, not least because of the need to focus on language structure and expression as authentic. Whether the connection to the professional setting can be built depends on the knowledge application in the real situation of teaching Chinese and therefore there was a desire to invest more in learning to be part of that social group as alignment to the community. They felt adapting the curriculum and language of instruction would also help to model good practice for their future teaching careers. Learning trajectories include identifying a relevant future profession and are greatly influenced by the ways of presenting that profession and communicating aspects of it through educational programme design.
Universities can critically develop students’ understanding of what they know and who they are becoming through learning the discipline with its particular professional characteristics embedded within the curriculum design. The university can take the responsibility to develop students’ understanding of learning and of themselves in terms of social relations. This could be undertaken by providing the conditions of knowledge acquisition and participation to negotiate social meaning in the process of engagement and reflection with the course (Cornelissen & Van Wyk, 2007; Hunter et al., 2007). The process of knowledge acquisition provided by the university through curriculum design is vital for students to participate in the negotiation of their future professional roles (Cornelissen & Van Wyk, 2007; Hunter et al., 2007).

The interrelationship between specialised knowledge, learning activities and generic skills should receive more attention in terms of preparing students for a specific professional area such as teaching Chinese as an international language. The TCIL curriculum should be designed with specialised content that is distinguishable from other professions (Trede et al., 2012). It would be positive and effective to align the curriculum with visions of the real situation for teachers as a social connection in learning communities, enhancing the professional identity formation by encouraging students to think of themselves as members of a specific professional community (Eraut, 2002). As learning is about becoming in addition to acquiring knowledge and skills (Wenger, 1999), university learning needs to provide the conditions and opportunities for this identity formation (Ivanova & Skara-Mincāne, 2016) through systematic knowledge structure and contextual participation. On the one hand, ECIU has great advantages to prepare Chinese language teachers beyond a national level through its curricula taught in English while providing sufficient knowledge about China and the world from comparative perspectives. On the other hand, specialised knowledge in Chinese language as an essential part of the curriculum is desired to enhance the strengths in helping students form their future professional identity as international Chinese language teachers. Therefore, this necessary integration for engaging students to become Chinese language teachers would be better supported by choosing Chinese as the language of instruction for certain specialised knowledge, and refining curriculum content to focus on both the Chinese language and appropriate teaching methods.
Because of my professional roles as a Chinese language teacher and the co-chair of school learning and teaching committee, it is common to interact and have certain discussions on the TCIL curriculum design with the colleagues in my department and the relevant department from time to time, especially when I tried to reflect on my study. This process encouraged mutual reflection and development. While I am completing this thesis, some changes or adjustments in the curriculum have taken place or been in process. The implications of this study for curriculum design and student learning are presented below.

6.2.1 Programme aims and the Standards

Influenced by the educational context, the BA programme aims of CLIE at ECIU affect students’ learning process through its curriculum design and consideration of MoE policies, as indicated at the beginning of Chapters 3 and 4 as well as Chapter 5. The imagined Chinese language teacher identity can be developed through engagement with the discourses and activities reflected in effective curriculum design (Varghese et al., 2005; Ilieva, 2010) for the TCIL curriculum.

As a disciplinary major regarding particular professional fields, BA Chinese Language International Education at ECIU needs a more specialised description of the programme aims with respect to TCIL as one of the pathways. The current aims and expectations of TCIL seem to be subsumed by the larger pathway of CCS, which presents a challenge to prepare Chinese language teachers for international students. This dictates that the current TCIL curriculum structure is not ideal in relation to essential knowledge acquisition of Chinese language to teach it as the target language, which has been highlighted in the documentation presented in Chapter 3. As noted in the previous chapters, participants in this study were unequivocal that a revised curriculum that foregrounds the Chinese language in learning and sufficient teaching practice in Chinese is required, in order to ensure the TCIL curriculum is more in keeping with the criteria of a solid Chinese language foundation and teaching skills addressed in the STCSOL (Hanban, 2012).
The overall aim of a teacher education programme is conceived as to develop the professional identity of being a teacher (van Huizen, van Oers & Wubbels, 2005). The broad aim of CLIE at ECIU must then relate to Chinese language teaching for the TCIL pathway, to provide opportunities in terms of professional options, and to avoid a dilemma for students in learning to become Chinese language teachers. This could happen by reviewing the CLIE programme specification and modify the shared aims to make a distinction of the TCIL pathway from the CCS.

6.2.2 Collaborative language instruction

In terms of the TCIL curriculum, the language of instruction brings discussions on the dilemmas of learning and teaching practice in terms of English or Chinese as presented in sections 3.1 and 4.2. To meet the requirements of working as an international Chinese language teacher beyond a domestic level, English has a great influence on the learning process due to its significant role in communication across borders. English as the dominant language of instruction increased participants’ confidence of working in an international context. However, a greater investment in English language empowers students to have more interactions and communications with a wider range of people in an English-speaking context rather than encouraging adeptness in the use and teaching of Chinese. Study participants therefore connected more closely to professional settings tied to using English, especially before their exposure to a real situation of teaching Chinese found very late in the TCIL curriculum design.

It would be more authentic and practical to learn certain modules of Chinese language as content knowledge and modules of teaching Chinese language as pedagogical content knowledge, through the target language of instruction, Chinese. A learning community created in this way will increase students’ investment in Chinese language and teaching the language in this particular social context, which can more effectively meet the STCSOL regarding becoming an international Chinese language teacher. A new module Pedagogical Chinese Grammar was proposed in 2020 by the language department. As the school learning and teaching committee chair, I reviewed the module specification and made comments particularly on the language of instruction. It has been offered to the TCIL students and delivered in Chinese since Semester 2 of AY2020/21.
The Chinese language of instruction and the English language of instruction should be respectively employed in relevant modules with an appropriate and specialised focus on Chinese language and the teaching of that language. This collaborative language instruction will importantly provide an engaging context for Chinese language teaching through the curriculum design, while additionally preparing students with solid English language skills at international level.

6.2.3 Knowledge structure and curriculum

TCIL as a professional preparation of teacher education should integrate knowledge, skills and students’ understanding of being a Chinese language teacher. Careful design of curriculum structure as a whole in line with different academic tasks may enhance effectiveness of teaching practice for a focused way of being (Dall’Alba, 2009a). To structure an effective language teacher education curriculum, linguistics is important content knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Orton, 2011), language learning and teaching refers to pedagogical knowledge, and the combination of linguistic theories and language pedagogy is crucial (Shulman, 1987; Zhan, 2008; Wang, 2011), while recognising that students and curriculum cannot be ignored (Duff, 2008). Knowledge structure for curriculum design is critical to link educational processes and professional identity formation through engaging students with learning in social contexts. For achieving the STCSOL that consists of five areas: Chinese and language teaching theories, Chinese teaching methodology, teaching and class organisation, Chinese culture and inter-culture, professional ethics and development (Hanban, 2012), the general knowledge structure from language teacher education for an international Chinese language teacher is discussed as below.

Modern Chinese as the core content for professional competence and skills is essential to Chinese language teacher identity formation (Shulman, 1987; Remen, 2001; Ryan & Carmichael, 2016) and the findings from students in this study demonstrate that this area is weak in the current TCIL curriculum. Ancient Chinese is not considered to be directly related to Chinese teaching practice, however, the connection to the development of Modern Chinese has been
appreciated by the participants, which can lead to reflections on how to design ancient Chinese in a practical way to support learning to teach Chinese language. As a colleague and co-chair of school learning and teaching committee, I would like to share this idea and initiate a reflective dialogue for any innovation in teaching Ancient Chinese, informally or formally at the team or committee meeting. Importantly, knowledge of linguistics provides a theoretical frame that needs to be applied in Chinese language teaching, to understand how the language works. Domain knowledge in Chinese language as specialised knowledge can provide the future Chinese language teachers with recognition from social aspect as the basis of professional competence (Watts, 2000). As mentioned above, a new module specifically on Chinese language grammar has been introduced in the curriculum by the language department with my comments and support as the co-chair of school learning and teaching committee.

As language teacher education, pedagogical theories and practice from discipline of Education will strengthen students’ knowledge about teaching and learning (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Crandall, 2000). Modules of education or educational psychology would be benifical in TCIL curriculum according to the participants. This could be delivered by the department of Educational Studies through programme collaboration as others at ECIU. The theoretical interconnection to linguistic knowledge in how to teach Chinese as pedagogical content knowledge in the structure is particularly important. Modules TCIL 1 and TCIL 2 designed in the TCIL curriculum are close to this approach of pedagogical part without the content in Chinese language. As mentioned before, the new module Pedagogical Chinese Grammar was introduced to replace TCIL2 in the curriculum in 2020/2021 and this has created the connection between the content knowledge in Chinese language and the existing pedagogical knowledge in language teaching.

It is challenging for only a few modules to cover all the aspects on Chinese language teaching and practice. Diverse and multiple orientations of Chinese language teaching could add depth to learning how to teach specific components of Chinese language in practice, such as Chinese language lesson design, Chinese language assessment design. Additionally, case studies on Chinese language teaching in various contexts including overseas would enable students to be exposed to the real world in the process of learning to become teaching professionals. Because of the working relationship between the language department and the TCIL pathway of CLIE
at ECIU (A few modules relevant to language and teaching are delivered by the language department), my roles at work could make an influence on some module changes or new module proposals. It would be possible to have the module of Chinese as a Global Language in TCIL reflected and add some case studies from a teaching perspective at global level, or propose a new module specifically about these case studies, by working with my colleagues in the language department and the relevant department. Contextual knowledge of textbooks and Chinese language learners might help students of TCIL integrate their understanding of the profession, which require some compulsory and optional workshops that can be initiated through a collaborative work internally and externally.

Participants have demonstrated their outstanding English skills, intercultural and transformative abilities of foreign language preparation for the future communication as international Chinese language teachers. Supporting modules in English that related to Chinese literature, Chinese culture, society, along with foreign literature and culture, cross-cultural communication as comparative learning in the curriculum equipped the participants with extensive knowledge to react and interact in an international context, however, understanding the concept of ‘international’ should go beyond ‘English’ (Saarinen, 2012). Being a Chinese language teacher at international level undoubtedly relies on a global awareness and international perspective that regional resources should be considered as part of the curriculum as well. Perhaps a review of the concept of internationalisation would be beneficial in consideration of the situated knowledge in curriculum design, following a relationship between the global and the local (Gruenewald & Smith, 2014). There are diverse dialects and several major categories of local languages in China, with mandarin as the common language usually considered the target language in Chinese language teaching to foreign students. It would be beneficial for TCIL students to be trained with standard mandarin even if they can speak Chinese, as systematic knowledge of how mandarin works will help with future spoken Chinese language teaching. At the same time, consideration of local languages and cultures involved in the curriculum would additionally contribute to the balance between global and local dimensions. Communities (Farnsworth et al., 2016) created here involve the social interaction, cultural awareness and specific context for the profession of teaching Chinese language.
The major academic component of learning on the TCIL pathway is the Final Year Project. The process of an independent FYP on a specific topic under supervision appeared to be very critical in forming participants’ understanding of their possible future professional realms, as indicated in Chapter 4. Choice of topic for FYP relies on what is presented and what students can contribute, this active learning process as interaction within the theme in relation to a specific disciplinary knowledge basis will generate a picture of professional trajectory. In other words, engagement in themes of Chinese language teaching with relevant resources available will reinforce the process of socialisation in and to the professional world consistently throughout the programme integrating theory and practice.

6.2.4 Situated construction as authentic

A major part of a programme of teaching education should be the opportunity to try things that can be used later in practice as a way of opening the door to a professional role as a Chinese language teacher. Authentic situations bring the opportunity to build a link between knowledge and teaching practice (Herrington et al., 2004), navigating what it means and what a Chinese language teacher is like. Identity formation takes place in social group settings (Wenger, 1999), and also requires internalisation for personal understanding.

Teacher educators’ experiences in teaching Chinese language is considered to be the most effective way to demonstrate pedagogical content knowledge. The learning process of interaction with module teachers specifically within a real Chinese language teaching scenario will produce a natural transfer to practice through its close contextual relationship. This direct presentation of situated knowledge to students of TCIL can be constructed as a rehearsal of their possible selves to the “real” profession of Chinese language teaching (Scanlon, 2011), because the direct experience of interacting with these module teachers in learning will help to construct and reconstruct the image of being Chinese language teachers in participants’ imaginations (Iswandari, 2017). In curriculum design, placing participants in the role of Chinese language teachers facilitates authentic teaching tasks of thinking like a Chinese language teacher (Hunter et al., 2007). Role-taking as situated learning designed by module teachers or lecturers who maintain a close connection to the professional field of teaching Chinese language will bridge
the gap between knowledge presentation in class and knowledge requirement in practice (Trede et al., 2012).

TCIL1 and TCIL2 as the practical teaching modules in the curriculum were all taught in English without Chinese language teaching demonstration in class. With direct and indirect influence of my role as described in the beginning of this section, Chinese language teachers in the language school have taken the teaching role since the new module Pedagogical Chinese Grammar replaced TCIL 2 and took effective in Semester 2, 2020/21. Real-life scenarios in module learning through accomplishment of particular Chinese language tasks in class with instructions and guidance from the module teachers who actually have experiences of teaching the Chinese language, to a large extent, would promote knowledge construction for a professional setting of Chinese language teaching with its social implications. Module teachers present the knowledge or design the activities, by relating closely to what it should be in the situation of Chinese language teaching. Learning through these authentic tasks can engage students with their studies and, at the same time, encourage them to imagine a future professional world. A real teaching task presented and analysed, and particularly if experienced, would make participants recognise the connection of what they are learning and its meaningful link to the profession through application in that situation. “The more authentic a learning situation is, the more it develops students’ identity as professionals in the area” (Reid et al., 2011, p.136).

Combining both academic and professional, knowing the characteristics of the Chinese language teaching field, the TCIL curriculum could be designed in a holistic manner with a professional focus. An extended connection to the professional community as a real social context can be created by interacting with professional Chinese language teachers and Chinese language learners during the education. Chapters 3 and 4 have illustrated that this is currently limited. Observing teaching in appropriate situations contributes to learning by understanding the characteristics and interactions of teaching Chinese language. Structured lesson preparation with specific guidance from module teachers and mentors would provide a clear direction for teaching practice in relation to what and how to teach. Opportunities to involve participants in knowledge sharing and acknowledgement of their contributions to the Chinese language teaching community, encouraged reflections on the meaning of what they are doing within the professional context. This currently happens very late on the TCIL pathway. Mentor teachers’ role
in this community of practice can positively engage the participants’ teaching practice as learning through participation, however, the existing power relations due to an unbalanced knowledge exchange dynamic tied to authority, reflected in section 3.4.3, somehow causes non-participation as discussed in section 4.4.1. Experiences with mentors in teaching practice developed both what participants desire to become and not to become (Scanlon, 2011).

This interactive process requires collaboration with different units within the university and outside as well, to support sufficient Chinese language teaching practice in various forms with an effective mentoring system. My roles might help to initiate a discussion between the language department and the CLIE programme at the university to seek more possibilities of teaching practice in the TCIL curriculum design by creating a mentoring team particularly for the TCIL pathway in collaboration with the relevant module teachers in TCIL. Therefore, a systematic mentoring procedure and specific plan as part of the teaching practicum project could enhance practical learning for becoming Chinese language teachers as desired possible selves.

Apart from teaching observation and practice inside the university, more forms of practicum activities in a wider range of teaching contexts including different levels of Chinese language learners could also provide further authentic learning experiences. Certain periods of internship may be a helpful practical learning strategy to engage students in the Chinese language teaching community for the future professional role, as would be found in a British teaching degree. Participants were critical that not enough time was given over to this aspect, as shown in section 4.4. Overseas opportunities for teaching practicum through partnerships can also play a complementary role not only regarding the connection to case studies on overseas Chinese teaching but also the concept of being an international Chinese language teacher outside China, and this influence and potential as was been pointed out by participants regarding positive teaching experiences in [place] out of China.
Chapter 7: Conclusion

This chapter concludes that both English as the language of instruction and curriculum design with limited focus on Chinese language and teaching in the TCIL curriculum presented students with many dilemmas in becoming Chinese language teachers, although the TCIL pathway as currently designed, increased the participants’ confidence and competence in English-speaking contexts. The limitations of this study are also detailed in this chapter. Finally, I outline potential areas for further investigation.

7.1 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the learning experience of students on the TCIL as a teaching pathway in the BA programme of Chinese Language International Education at East China International University for preparing international Chinese language teachers, focusing on their understanding of professional skills and their image as future professionals. This is explored particularly in relation to the influence of English as the language of instruction and its unique curriculum design which involves less content focus on Chinese language. Much literature on learning particularly when related to professional development, such as teaching, suggests that such learning includes and goes beyond content and skills, is also social and can be seen as a crucial process of identity formation. In the context of this study in particular, focused on students learning to become Chinese language teachers, but studying in English as the language of instruction, this means that learning becomes a process of socialisation for the intended context. The thesis has argued that such learning requires the development of sound understanding through participation and negotiation in the authentic experience of what is to be taught, in context. This study shows that the TCIL curriculum at ECIU, with English as the language of instruction for most modules, increased students' language ability and intercultural awareness in an English speaking context, however, it simultaneously discouraged their engagement in the profession of teaching Chinese due to their misunderstanding of language choice and content knowledge in Chinese language teaching, which was especially noticeable before teaching practice occurs in the final year. A disconnect between what is learnt on the TCIL pathway and what participants do in reality therefore resulted in confusion and non-participation for their learning and practising to become Chinese language teachers and also negatively affected their developing sense of professional identity. As a contribution from this
study specifically focused on TCIL, it suggests that understanding the nature of professional knowledge in TCIL presented in formal education and perception of its meaningful connection to the nature of the future professional contexts could contribute to students’ engagement in learning and imagined future professional identity (Reid et al., 2011).

Students’ understanding of TCIL in relation to becoming Chinese language teachers is formed by what is presented and modelled through the curriculum. Currently the curriculum presents a dilemma in this respect since what is presented and modelled is English as a language of instruction, rather than the Chinese of which the students are learning to become teachers. Building on the findings, the thesis has argued that collaborative language instruction with a focus on Chinese is a way of overcoming this dilemma and of supporting building imagined professional identity to become Chinese language teachers. Specifically, it argues a change in the language of instruction to Chinese for content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. TCIL should be strengthened in a way that privileges the building of a community with a clear professional orientation and to this end, Chinese language as a core part of content knowledge is recommended to be presented in its original form in Chinese for preparing Chinese language teachers. Pedagogical content knowledge of Chinese language teaching requires sufficient practice in various forms with a solid knowledge foundation of Chinese language and linguistics, and teaching methodologies. Authentic learning in the context of Chinese language teaching should be enhanced in and outside class and this leads to a suggestion for an enhanced focus on the timing, the intensity and the kind of teaching practice offered.

In relation to the TCIL students’ learning experiences, the research suggests a number of other aspects. Demonstration of Chinese language teaching from module teachers is critical as part of situated learning and would be enhanced by collaboration with the workplace, which has partly been taking place as mentioned in implications. Minimal teaching practice in the final year should be supplemented by observation and practicum earlier in the degree through structured mentoring plans that involve professionals, contributing to learning and teaching through authentic tasks in the community of practice. Collaborative language of instruction has been argued for the TCIL pathway in terms of the target language and supporting knowledge, which can maintain a balance between Chinese language as teaching content and a mode of communication in an international context. Contextual knowledge presented through workshops or
case studies can increase the exposure to the profession of TCIL extensively and inter-connectedly. An integrated curriculum design based in a core knowledge of Chinese language could play an indispensable role in supporting and enabling the learning of students as professional teachers of Chinese language in terms of practical and academic skills, and their visions of their professional identities to become Chinese language teachers. This curriculum would engage students with a specialised focus on Chinese language teaching through demonstrating the application of theories in practice, using Chinese language in their teaching of Chinese language. With careful design of the curriculum in the context of teaching Chinese language, students can better integrate knowledge and practice for social meaning and a vision of themselves in this particular professional world.

Meaningful support from the university for students is not only about what they know, but also preparation for what they will become (Reid et al., 2001). To encourage students to build their imagined professional identity as future Chinese language teachers throughout their studies, development and refinement of the TCIL curriculum would lead to a stronger preparation. The thesis has claimed that providing more authentic and targeted Chinese language knowledge in Chinese as a focus through collaborative language instruction, pedagogic content knowledge with demonstration in class, and practicum opportunities with systematic mentoring plans, could have better prepared participants in this study for future professional practice (Reid, et al., 2008). Making these changes has the potential to increase interest and engagement in a revised TCIL pathway in the future, ensuring a future supply of suitably prepared teachers of Chinese as an international language.

7.2 Study Limitations

This case study was based on one specific TCIL pathway of CLIE at ECIU, so an obvious limitation is that only a small number of participants were available and cannot represent all students of Chinese language teacher education. To perceive this in an analytic way, the small sample encompasses all students on the chosen TCIL pathway at the time of data collection. It is important to note that all students involved chose the BA degree in CLIE, electing to follow the TCIL pathway only at the end of their second year. In other words, entry to the TCIL does
not denote an ambition to pursue a teaching career. In theory, the programme CLIE is open to both Chinese and international students, but all the students on the TCIL pathway when the study was undertaken were Chinese, although one has an overseas passport. It is possible that findings would differ if international students who are non-Chinese speakers were included.

However, the rich and in-depth data analysis permitted by a small sample can produce detailed information on understanding students’ learning experiences on this specific teaching pathway with a particular curriculum design for future Chinese language teachers. Possible concerns about the limited interview times, especially when one participant had not yet had any experience of teaching practice, suggests a follow-up interview later may provide information from a comparative perspective. On the other hand, having less information available due to the lateness of teaching practicum in the curriculum design highlights in particular an unclear self-understanding of becoming a Chinese language teacher. This suggests that the depth of data, even from a small sample, can lead us to a reasonable conclusion: the lack of teaching practice, and limited exposure to the Chinese language embedded in the curriculum design, undermines commitment to teaching Chinese. The investment in English, and late exposure to teaching practice, encouraged formation of alternative professional selves, which suggests that the aim of producing future Chinese language teachers to an international audience may currently be limited. Triangulation with documentary data complemented the interview data that shows that the aims of Chinese language teacher education are met to only a limited extent. That is to say, the language of instruction and curriculum design with its less specialised focus on Chinese language and teaching affected how the participants understand their future professional images, leading to their hesitation about becoming Chinese language teachers.

As discussed in the study, imagined professional identity is a critical part of professional identity formation. The process of formulating a professional identity is very dynamic and complex in social settings as it could be affected by different factors or variables, such as family environment, social pressure, job market demand, life experience, culture and core values. Some people might find it is more practical to become English language teacher or there would be more English teaching job opportunities in China. It is understandable and reasonable that there are many variables in the long-term process of professional identity formation, and these are beyond the scope of this study though.
A further limitation in small-scale qualitative research is the possible subjectivity of interpreting participants’ understandings by the researcher. The values of the Chinese language teaching profession and Chinese language teaching philosophy or approaches may be present as issues affected by researcher bias in the process of interpretation and data analysis. To reduce this subjectivity, a systematic process of data collection and rigorous process of data analysis were implemented to exclude assumptions, as detailed in Chapter 2. The documents that structure the programme have been presented alongside the participants’ quotes, which directly entails the work to reduce subjectivity and bias. Constant self-reflection and discussion with others throughout the study helped to minimise bias from the researcher.

7.3 Future Research

Findings from this study flag potential future research.

With respect to the influence of learning processes on students’ imagined professional identity as explored in this study, further research could focus on the following aspects:

- Exploring the experiences of students from the other pathway within the BA programme, to understand whether students on the TCIL pathway share a similar learning experience for the first two years without any focus on Chinese or Chinese language teaching as specialised knowledge content;
- The relationship between the curriculum design and students’ choices in different pathways could be explored by extending the research further with regard to possible future professional identity goals;
- The experiences of non-native Chinese speakers who, technically, can also enrol on the BA China Studies programme and follow the TCIL pathway could be explored;
- What we can learn from good practice in preparing language teachers from other transnational contexts could enhance our understanding of this example;
A detailed exploration of Chinese linguistics and language pedagogies could be undertaken to inform curriculum change with the intention of encouraging students’ active engagement in their studies.

Given what has been established by this study, that the language of instruction, curriculum design and the late inclusion of any teaching practice, impact negatively on students’ potential professional identity formation, it is clear that the TCIL curriculum could benefit from revision informed by further theorisation regarding the status and limitations of using English as the preferred international language. Meanwhile, it is informed to focus on the core knowledge of Chinese language in the curriculum content design within a specialised professional context.
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145


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Yan, X. & Fu, Y. (2013). MTCSOL kecheng shezhi yu jiaoxue shixi qingkuang diaocha fenxi — yi Zhongshan daxue guoji Hanyu xueyuan weili [A Survey and Analysis of Domestic Internship Experiences of Master Students of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Language — Take School of Chinese as a Second Language of Sun Yat-Sen University as example]. Haiwai huawen jiaoyu, 3.


Appendix A

Participant Information Sheet

Research Title

The Influence of Language and Curriculum Design on Forming Students’ Imagined Professional Identity

I am investigating the BA TCIL as part of my Doctor of Education studies at Liverpool University. As students or soon-to-be graduates from this programme, I am interested in hearing more about your experiences and invite you to take part in my research. Your participation is completely voluntary, so please take a moment to read the rest of this information and decide whether you would like to take part. I am happy to answer any further questions you may have before you decide.

Research Purpose

I am interested in understanding the student perspective on the BA TCIL programme – how the learning and language of instruction influence your thinking about what you might do in the future. I hope those who take part in this study will be able to reflect on their learning, which may be useful for those who go on to work with other language learners and your feedback could also be useful for developing the BA programme further in the future.

The Researcher

I am a teacher of Chinese as a foreign language, and have over 10 years’ professional teaching experience. I am also currently studying for a doctorate in Education at the University of Liverpool. I am interested in how programme design influences students’ future images of themselves, and would like to explore further your experiences of the TCIL degree.

Data Collection

As a participant in this study, I would like you to take part in one audio-recorded interview, conducted on campus at a convenient time to you, lasting up to one hour, with coffee provided. In this interview, I would like to explore your thoughts on curriculum design and language of instruction. With your permission, I would also like to know more about your assessment outcomes and experiences of learning the programme. I will anonymise all data collected from you so that you can never be identified personally, and I will also be analysing curriculum and assessment documents from your teachers. If you decide to take part in this study, you can change your mind later and you can refuse to answer any question if you wish. There are no negative implications for you whether you take part or not.

Benefits for Participants

This research will potentially provide you an opportunity to understand yourselves in learning, which can be very meaningful for your transition to the future work. You may also gain insight into yourself as a second language learner which can inform your potential future work with second language learners. Your feedback may also feed into programme developments for future students.

Minimal risks

There might be some minimal risks that are related to your emotions during the interviews regarding teaching Chinese language, such as confusion or uncertainty which could bring you discomfort in navigating your directions in learning through reflections. However, you are free to stop at any time, especially if these negative emotions prevented you from understanding learning directions in a positive and meaningful way.

Anonymity and Confidentiality
Data will be collected through interviews and documents for EdD thesis research, however, all the personal information will be confidential and anonymized with codes. Data will be stored in the researcher’s personal computers for at least 5 years from the completion of degree with password protected to maintain confidentiality.

For any problem or further questions, please feel free to contact the researcher or the Principal Investigator for help. If you feel you cannot come to any of them, then you should contact the Chair of the Liverpool Online Research Ethics Committee or the Research Participant Advocate for any issue.

Next steps

Having read this information, if you would like to take part in this study please email yanfang.si@online.liverpool.ac.uk soon to arrange a convenient interview date. I am happy to answer any further questions before you decide. If you decide not to take part, thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Contact information

The researcher: yanfang.si@online.liverpool.ac.uk

The Principal Investigator: jan.smith@online.liverpool.ac.uk

The Liverpool Online Research Ethics Committee: liverpoolethics@liverpool-online.com

The Research Participant Advocate: liverpoolethics@ohecampus.com ; Tel 001-612-312-1210
PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: The Influence of Language and Curriculum Design on Forming Students’ Imagined Professional Identity

Researcher(s): Yanfang Si

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.

3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

_________________________________________  ___________________________  ___________________________
Participant Name                      Date                      Signature

_________________________________________  ___________________________  ___________________________
Name of Person taking consent          Date                      Signature

_________________________________________  ___________________________  ___________________________
Researcher                            Date                      Signature

Email: yanfang.si@online.liverpool.ac.uk

V1, 24th September, 2018
Appendix C

Interview Questions

1. How did you choose this university?

2. How did you choose to study Teaching Chinese as an International Language in particular?

3. Do you feel the TCIL pathway has prepared you to become a Chinese language teacher? Can you give an example of how the curriculum has (not) helped you with this preparation?

4. Have you participated in any Chinese language teaching as practical learning? Could you talk more about that experience?

5. What do you think of English as your instructional language in learning Teaching Chinese as an International Language?

6. What do you think now about what you want to do in the future? Has this changed since you started the TCIL?

7. Do you think there is any connection between your learning experience and your future career? Why? Can you give an example?

8. As a student or a graduating student, what feedback would you give to the programme team?

9. Is there anything else you would like to say that I have not asked about?
# Appendix D

## Ethical Approval

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<th>Dear Yangfang Si</th>
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<td>I am pleased to inform you that the EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below.</td>
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<th>Sub-Committee:</th>
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<td>Review type:</td>
<td>Expedited</td>
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<tr>
<td>PI:</td>
<td>Dr. Jan Smith</td>
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<tr>
<td>School:</td>
<td>Lifelong Learning</td>
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<td>Title:</td>
<td>The Influence of Language and Curriculum Design on Forming Students’ Imagined Professional Identity – For PILOT STUDY APPROVAL ONLY</td>
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<tr>
<td>First Reviewer:</td>
<td>Dr. Morag A. Gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Reviewer:</td>
<td>Dr. Greg Hickman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other members of the Committee:</td>
<td>Dr. Lucilla Crosta, Dr. Marco Ferreira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of Approval:</td>
<td>15th May 2018</td>
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The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:

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<td>M: All serious adverse events must be reported to the VPREC within 24 hours of their occurrence, via the EdD Thesis Primary Supervisor.</td>
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This approval applies for the duration of the research. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study as specified in the application form, the Sub-Committee should be notified. If it is proposed to make an amendment to the research, you should notify the Sub-Committee by following the Notice of Amendment procedure outlined at [http://www.liv.ac.uk/media/livacuk/researchethics/notice%20of%20amendment.doc](http://www.liv.ac.uk/media/livacuk/researchethics/notice%20of%20amendment.doc).

Where your research includes elements that are not conducted in the UK, approval to proceed is further conditional upon a thorough risk assessment of the site and local permission to carry out the research, including, where such a body exists, local research ethics committee approval. No documentation of local permission is required (a) if the researcher will simply be asking organizations to distribute research invitations on the researcher’s behalf, or (b) if the researcher is using only public means to identify/contact participants. When medical, educational, or business records are analysed or used to identify potential research participants, the site needs to explicitly approve access to data for research purposes (even if the researcher normally has access to that data to perform his or her job).

Please note that the approval to proceed depends also on research proposal approval.

Kind regards,

Lucilla Crosta
Chair, EdD. VPREC
Dear Yanfang Si

I am pleased to inform you that the EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI:</td>
<td>Yanfang Si</td>
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<td>School:</td>
<td>HLC</td>
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<td>Title:</td>
<td>The influence of Language and Curricular Design on Forming Students’ Imagined Professional Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Reviewer:</td>
<td>Dr. Rita Kop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Reviewer:</td>
<td>Dr. Deborah OuthWaite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other members of the Committee</td>
<td>Dr. Lucilla Crosta, Dr. Kalman Winston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of Approval:</td>
<td>16th October 2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
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This approval applies for the duration of the research. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study as specified in the application form, the Sub-Committee should be notified. If it is proposed to make an amendment to the research, you should notify the Sub-Committee by following the Notice of Amendment procedure outlined at http://www.liv.ac.uk/media/livacuk/researchethics/notice%20of%20amendment.doc.

Where your research includes elements that are not conducted in the UK, approval to proceed is further conditional upon a thorough risk assessment of the site and local permission to carry out the research, including, where such a body exists, local research ethics committee approval. No documentation of local permission is required (a) if the researcher will simply be asking organizations to distribute research invitations on the researcher’s behalf, or (b) if the researcher is using only public means to identify/contact participants. When medical, educational, or business records are analysed or used to identify potential research participants, the site needs to explicitly approve access to data for research purposes (even if the researcher normally has access to that data to perform his or her job).

Please note that the approval to proceed depends also on research proposal approval.

Kind regards,
Lucilla Crosta
Chair, EdD. VPREC
Appendix E

BA programme of CLIE

CLIE programme in BA degree categories from the MoE

05 学科门类：文学

0501 中国语言文学类
050101 汉语言文学
050102 汉语言
050103 汉语国际教育
050104 中国少数民族语言文学
050105 古典文献学

New Version VS Old Version

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>05</th>
<th>学科门类：文学</th>
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<td>汉语国际教育</td>
<td>050103*</td>
<td>对外汉语</td>
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<tr>
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<td>050106W</td>
<td>050108S</td>
<td>中国文学</td>
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<tr>
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<td>中国少数民族语言文学</td>
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<td>050105</td>
<td>古典文献学</td>
<td>050105*</td>
<td>古典文献</td>
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CLIE programme objectives

本专业培养掌握扎实的汉语基础知识，具有较高的人文素养，具备中国文学、中国文化及跨文化交流等方面的专业知识与能力，能在国内外各类学校从事汉语教学，在各职能部门、外贸机构、新闻出版单位及企事业单位从事与语言文化传播交流相关工作的中国语言文学学科应用型专门人才。
CLIE Programme Aims at ECIU

A. Educational Aims of Programme

The BA (Hons) in China Studies is designed to provide students with an introduction to and an understanding of the study of China. It caters to two audiences that reflect the two distinct but overlapping established academic traditions at the heart of China Studies. One is those more concerned to know about Chinese language and literature, largely in order to be able to go on and teach Chinese and about China to non-Chinese students. The other is those more concerned to understand the theory and practice of the social sciences provided by the example of China’s development, through one of four areas of specialization: government and international relations; business studies; social change; and communications. Its graduates will be bilingual and equipped with international vision as well as proficient language skills.

The overall aims are:

- To obtain an understanding of the disciplinary and interdisciplinary humanities and social sciences.
- To develop perspectives which enable effective analysis of China’s contemporary development.
- To provide a thorough working knowledge of institutional approaches to development.
- To develop an understanding of critical policy studies.
- To develop a comprehensive awareness of a range of techniques and approaches to the study of social change.
- To have close familiarity with the academic field of China Studies, its literature and intellectual organization.
- To raise a critical awareness of contrasting Western and Chinese perspectives in the development of the social sciences.
- To develop students’ English and Chinese language skills to a very high level, within the context of the social sciences.
- To develop students’ professional communication skills including for teaching, translation and interpreting.
- To offer practical experience in research and policy analysis, and where appropriate language teaching.
Appendix F

Samples of comments in MQ Reports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>active discussion and instrumental learning environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>native English teacher who have standard pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-class discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher has a good knowledge of teaching, which can provide us with extended interesting points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The clear organization and explanation of teaching, which can help us build knowledge hierarchy by ourselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation in interesting, coursework is clear, small class.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>more students could join us, which would be better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more homework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more observation hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. May be the module can attract more foreign students to join in the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. May be the module can provide more guest lectures which would help us gain more knowledge about teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No teaching experience for students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class is too small to be active.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Appendix G

## Samples of Mentor comments in Teaching Evaluation Form

| Instruction giving/ language use | 6 | Make sure the examples are standard mandarin. e.g. 你也太喜庆了。（from dialect）
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Loud enough</td>
<td></td>
<td>有去过独墅湖旁边的教堂吗？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Clear/succinct enough</td>
<td></td>
<td>（grammar mistake）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Appropriate Language use</td>
<td></td>
<td>Explain with structures, formats and simple sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Replied to students confidently</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Replied with appropriate language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Classroom management

| - Groups made well          | 6 | 7 minutes’ over time. The pace was influenced too much by the curious students. You spent much time explaining students’ questions about grammar. In this case it would be better if you can answer the questions briefly, but to the point （need more language knowledge）. |
| - Timing of phases         |   | |
| - Adapted class to needs of students | | |
| - Monitoring of students during activities | | |
| - Managed time correctly   |   | |

## Comments (Chinese or English)

| - What was the weakness in the aspect? |
| - How to improve the aspect? |

### Sample Comments

- **English**:
  - Good leading in by asking them the important skills to survive in China.
  - You can use different ways to practice the new words.
  - Instruction should be clear, you want students to ask each other or answer your question.
  - Don’t translate too much.
  - Give students some time to think.

- **Chinese**:
  - 语法是这堂课的关键点。确保你对这语法有很好的理解和掌握。
  - 写给你的ppt.