Evaluating Trilingual Language Teacher Training Programmes for Minority Dominated Regions in Xinjiang: Current practice and Challenges

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2016
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Abstract

Recent development in trilingualism and trilingual education in minority dominated regions in China has highlighted the importance of training qualified trilingual teachers to support the students to achieve additive trilingualism. While research has been carried out in the domains of policy studies, trilingual education models and practice across China in general, there has been relatively little research on trilingual teacher training, especially remote western regions such as Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (XUAR). Adopting a case study approach, this research evaluates the English language teacher training programmes, in order to identify issues and effective models for English language teacher training, and discusses them in the light of wider pedagogical implications for trilingualism and trilingual teacher training in China.

This research adopted a multi-methods approach, in which the data were collected through survey questionnaires and interviews among the key stakeholders involved in the training programme, and further complemented by data through classroom observations. This study found that while no one seemed to disagree that Mandarin Chinese as the national official language but the second language (L2) for minority students is, and should be, strongly promoted because of its importance in every aspect of education in XUAR, it could also be the bottleneck and barrier which minority students face in learning English (their L3). This is due to the fact that many minority student trainees came to the university with a rather weak L2 which was nonetheless used as the medium of instruction for all subject teaching. The participating key stakeholders showed, on the whole, positive attitudes towards trilingual language teacher training. However, awareness of the importance of the minority language (their L1) during their trilingual language training needs to be raised, and its relationship with Mandarin Chinese and English during the trilingual teacher training process needs to be properly addressed.

The research incorporates the results of the current research and theoretical perspectives regarding the nature of additive trilingualism and inclusive practice. In particular, the study proposes that the notion of English language teacher training should be trilingual teacher training in minority-dominated regions of China. As the notion of trilingual teacher training suggests, all three languages should be taken into account in designing the curriculum for English language teacher training. Appropriate incorporation of L1 and L2 into the curriculum would not only enhance their bilingual competence in their home language and Mandarin Chinese, but also facilitate their learning of L3, English. Finally, recommendations are made for trilingual teacher training and limitations are also acknowledged.
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Chapter One: Introduction

Research into trilingualism and trilingual education is an area which has gained recent attention in both research and practice in China, especially in minority dominated regions. The emphasis is placed mainly on issues related to trilingualism and trilingual education models across China in general. This research evaluates the English language teacher training programmes for minority-dominated regions in the specific context of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (XUAR hereafter), where tension exists between the political agenda and educational ideals, so as to identify issues and effective models for English language teacher training. It explores the pedagogical practices adopted in trilingual language teacher training in XUAR and discusses them in the light of wider pedagogical implications for trilingualism and trilingual teacher training in China.

1.1 The context of the study

1.1.1 Background of the region and the researcher

XUAR is a multilingual and multicultural region which inhabits 13 main officially recognized ethnic nationalities. Among these 13 ethnic nationalities, eight of them have their own oral and written language system (Han, Uyghur, Kazak, Mongolian, Uzbek, Kirgiz, Tajik, Tatar). Mandarin Chinese and Uyghur language are the two official languages in XUAR. Three out of the 13 main ethnic nationalities speak Mandarin Chinese (Han, Hui, Manchu), and 8 of them speak or can communicate in Uyghur without any difficulties (Uyghur, Kazak, Xibe, Mongolian, Uzbek, Tajik, Tatar, Daur) (China’s ethnic groups and religions, 2013). Despite its ethnic and language diversity, it is also necessary to point out that many ethnic minority groups generally inhabit in ‘the sparse oasis villages of the Gobi Desert’ in the Southern part of XUAR, whereas, ‘Han Chinese tend to live in cities and towns’ in the Northern part of XUAR (Ma, 2009, p.193). The mode of education at local schools were greatly influenced by its geographical distribution. It is obvious that great efforts need to be made in order to balance the educational development, including teaching resources and the recruitment of qualified teachers, between minority schools and Han schools in XUAR.

Bilingual education referring generally to teaching (in) minority home language (L1) and Mandarin Chinese (L2) has been carried out in this region since 1950 (Li. 2012), and English (L3) was added to the curriculum in 2001. In this sense, we can state in confidence that trilingual education in XUAR was developed on the basis on bilingual education principles, and thus, for this reason, trilingual education cannot be discussed or implemented effectively without the consideration of the context of bilingual education in this region.
I am an ethnic Han Chinese, and was born and grew up in Urumqi, which is the capital city of this unique region (XUAR); Urumqi is located in the Northern part of XUAR. My first language is Mandarin Chinese, and I have never learned any minority language that was offered in the curriculum in schools from Kindergarten to University. Most of my ethnic minority friends can speak relatively fluent Mandarin Chinese, and some of them were educated through the medium of Mandarin Chinese, with Han students together following Han students’ educational system. What often puzzled me is that many of those ethnic minority friends who were taught through Mandarin Chinese preferred to use Mandarin Chinese to communicate with each other instead of their mother tongues, the minority languages. A Uyghur friend of mine once told me about the situation in her family, and expressed her concerns. She mentioned that her grandmother can only speak Uyghur, and has no Mandarin Chinese or English knowledge at all; meanwhile, her mother can speak Uyghur perfectly, a little Mandarin Chinese but no English at all. However, with regard to the third generation, like her, she received all her schooling through Mandarin Chinese in Han schools. She can speak perfect Mandarin Chinese, has a relatively good command of the English language, but speaks very little Uyghur. She has no knowledge of Uyghur written scripts except her name. She stated that she could only write her name in Uyghur, and struggled to communicate with her grandmother without her mother’s help to translate on some occasions. She was worried about the fourth generation of her family especially as her son, who was attending a so called bilingual school, might speak Mandarin Chinese with some English, but would have no knowledge of Uyghur at all, including both spoken and written forms. She expressed her worries about this kind of situation and questioned the bilingual/ trilingual education as implemented in XUAR. Personal stories such as this raised my interest in the area of bilingual and trilingual education.

After I had been trained to be an English language teacher for four years in XUAR, I served as an English language teacher in a teacher training university (TTU), which trains pre- and in-service teachers for this region. The students or the trainees in TTU were from both the Southern and the Northern parts of XUAR. I noticed through anecdotal evidence that most of the minority students in TTU had high motivation to learn Mandarin Chinese and were interested in learning English. However, the learning outcomes were not seen to be very satisfactory by both educators and students themselves. After more than three years learning Mandarin Chinese, many of them still could not pass MHK (‘Minzu Han Kao’ which means Mandarin Chinese proficiency test for Minority students) exams, which would directly cause the failure in obtaining the Bachelor degree or a certificate. Regarding English language learning, many minority students showed their interest in learning this language, and even
took private lessons which caused financial pressures, in order to learn English in a better way. However, many of them felt that they were still struggling.

During my teaching practice over the past years, I also noticed that the students who sat in the same class had very different language proficiency levels in terms of Mandarin Chinese, minority language and English. Within a class, some of the students had relatively good Mandarin Chinese proficiency with experiences of learning English language since they were in primary schools; some of them could not understand the instructions in Mandarin Chinese, and had no contact with English language at all before they entered this university. However, although I was trained to be an English language teacher in this particular region, a minority language module was never offered in the curriculum during the training. Due to the lack of minority language knowledge myself, I experienced difficulties during lecturing, especially when some complex grammatical structures needed to be explained to minority students; they could not understand fully either in Mandarin Chinese and English. At that time, it was my belief that if I could speak the minority language, it would be helpful for me to deliver the lectures more effectively.

Trilingual education can never be achieved without qualified trilingual language teachers. However, how could trilingual language teachers be nurtured? What are the issues in existing teacher training programmes? These questions motivated to embark on the doctoral research to find out the status quo of trilingual education and trilingual teacher training in XUAR, and through taking into account the context, identify issues regarding language policies and their implementation, the current practice that is in place and stakeholders’ attitudes and perceptions during trilingual training implementation.

1.1.2 Rationale for the study

In its promotion and development of bilingual education in XUAR, China, many have highlighted a serious problem, that is the lack of qualified and experienced bilingual teachers in XUAR (Aibiban, 2011; Li, 2012). Bilingual education in this context refers to teaching and learning the minority home language (L1) and Mandarin Chinese (L2). In 2002, English as a foreign language (L3) was added into the school curriculum; and the lack of qualified multilingual teachers is therefore an even more serious setback (Yuan, Cao and Lu, 2009; Luo and Cui, 2011). Research shows that most of the teachers have had little or no special training before taking up their role as English language teachers particularly in minority dominated regions where multilingual education should take place (Liu et al., 2008). Even though some of the in-service teachers may have received some kind of training for one or two years, they still face challenges in speaking fluently or teaching the languages effectively in the institutions they return to work in (Abduwuaili, 2009; Wu, 2009; Aibiban, 2011, Wang, 2012). However,
rare attempts have been made to study and develop trilingual language teacher training in XUAR according to the related literature.

Thus, it is essential to know the current practice and challenges in order to explore effective ways for professional development for teachers, particularly for improving pre- and in-service trilingual language teacher training. In XUAR, Teacher Training University (TTU hereafter) is the main university for pre- and in-service teacher training. The Foreign Language department in this University is put in charge of training English language teachers. Therefore, this department was the focus for the empirical research presented in this Thesis.

1.2 Aims of the thesis

This study aims to evaluate how (in)effective current policies and practices are, and what the issues are in English Language Teacher Training programmes for minority dominated regions in XUAR. Specifically, it aims to address the following three sub research questions:

(1) To what extent do current policies support effective English language teacher training programme for minority regions in XUAR?

(2) To what extent do school practices support effective English language teacher training programme for minority regions in XUAR?

(3) What are key stakeholders’ attitudes and perceptions of the languages in use and in education, and of English language teacher training?

The research aims to search for a model that is both pedagogically sound and socio-politically feasible, that is, balancing politics and educational ideals. Practically, the findings aims to contribute towards the means of the current practice from different perspectives, help develop the trilingual language teacher training and trilingual education in a more effective way and will also inform language policy-making and improve language planning in XUAR.

1.3 Organisation of the thesis

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature relevant to pedagogy in the fields of multilingual education and multilingual teacher training. It discusses the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism in the 21st century, tracing the development of bilingual education and multilingual education worldwide. Some of the issues regarding bilingual/multilingual education have also been identified with reference to research literature. The need for quality multilingual teacher training is identified in order to promote multilingual education. In particular, the definition and model of additive trilingualism and trilingual education are highlighted as these would be adopted as the main framework for the research. The chapter also traces the development of multilingual education in China, critically
discusses the studies in terms of trilingual education and trilingual teacher training implementation in China, especially with regard to the context in XUAR.

Chapter 3 revisits the overarching research question together with three sub questions, outlining the research methodology used to address them. The chapter reviews the mixed-methods approach while exploring positionality and reflexivity which are two essential terms regarding this approach. The overall research design is explained, together with the research questions and the rationale behind the option of the mixed-methods approach. The detailed procedure for conducting the research is reported, including the results of two pilot studies and the revisions to the pilot instruments. The chapter also presents the methods and procedures used in the data analysis. Ethical considerations are also highlighted in this chapter.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. It provides an overview of the profiles of the participating key stakeholders which are the students, the teachers and the policy makers involved in this teacher training programme. It presents the results based on three sub research questions related to current policies, school practice and key stakeholders’ attitudes and perceptions respectively. Attention is drawn to the issues and difficulties during the implementation of trilingual teacher training in TTU in XUAR.

Chapter 5 summarises the major findings of the current research and discusses them in light of the related research theories and literature presented in the previous chapters. The study proposes a model which is likely to be pedagogically practical and makes recommendations for training trilingual teachers and practice in the fields of multilingual education, especially in the context of XUAR based on detailed analysis and research findings. Theoretical perspectives regarding the nature of English teacher training in minority dominated regions in China and inclusive practice are explored. Finally, the contributions of the current research are highlighted and its limitations acknowledged, with suggestions and recommendations made for further research.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

As discussed in the Introduction chapter, understanding of trilingualism and trilingual education in XUAR, where the empirical research was conducted, could not be achieved without discussion of bilingualism and bilingual education in this region. This literature review has, therefore, adopted an approach that gives a critical account of the literature from bilingualism and bilingual education to trilingualism and trilingual education, from worldwide related research to research which were carried out in China and then in XUAR. The review has been written with clear purposes, taking the key issues into consideration, for instance, research questions, the participants who took part in that research and the research context, so as to identify a theoretical framework for the research study.

The review begins by drawing on the phenomenon of bilingualism and multilingualism which has been seen as the norm for the 21st century. This is followed by an exploration of the literature relating to bilingual education and issues regarding bilingual education, with particular focus on identity. Then, with the spread/ expansion of the English language worldwide, research on trilingualism and trilingual education are discussed, including the concept of additive trilingualism in context together with factors which affect third language acquisition. Research on trilingual teacher training, including differences between bilingual and trilingual teacher training and the related principles, are also reviewed. Finally, a revision on research with regard to bilingual and trilingual education, and trilingual teacher training in China and in XUAR are discussed; Socio-linguistic background of XUAR, where the current research has been conducted, is also presented.

2.2 Bilingualism and multilingualism in the 21st Century

In this increasingly globalized era, many individuals across the world have to cope with multiple languages on a daily basis. This is due to numerous factors, which include increased migrant mobility between the nations in the world, socioeconomic and geopolitical restructuring and revolutionary developments within the field of communication technologies (Abello-Contesse et al., 2013). With the rise of such new and complex language and cultural interactions, there is no doubt that both bilingualism and multilingualism constitute a major fact of life in the today’s world. According to the Ethnologue (2014, 17th edition), there is an estimated 7,106 languages which are spoken in 194 countries worldwide (Lewis et al., 2014). Furthermore, the governments of many countries officially recognize the multiple languages
spoken throughout the country. Thus, multilingualism is ‘a powerful fact of life around the world’ and not seen as the exception (Cenoz and Etxague, 2013, p.86). It would be difficult to find a country that is linguistically homogeneous; the majority of the countries and regions in the world boast a wealth of linguistic diversity (Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh, 2012). However, with reference to the Ethnologue, 94% of the world’s population are reported to adopt approximately 5% of the world’s languages. For example, many languages such as Hindi, Arabic, Chinese, Bengali, Portuguese, Spanish and English are spoken by large populations in many different countries around the world (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2013). Despite the domination of these languages, bilingualism or multilingualism is currently the norm throughout the world and will become increasingly so in the future. It is not the aberration but a normal and unremarkable necessity for the majority of the people to be bilingual or multilingual in the world today, even for the people who were supposed to speak only a ‘big’ language (such as English) (Gorter, 2008).

Such a linguistic situation necessitates that many people live with bilingualism and multilingualism as the norm. David Crystal (2003) stated that two-thirds of the children in the world grow up in a bilingual or multilingual environment. Of the approximately 750 million people worldwide who speak English, over 235 million or 41% are bilinguals or multilinguals in English as well as some other language(s). The advantage of adding another world language to people’s linguistic repertoires is continuing to be recognized and emphasized; and the processes of globalization now in progress can only speed up the pace of bilingualism and multilingualism (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2013). Therefore, research in bilingual education and multilingual education is extremely important in order to ensure best practice, and has attracted the attention of many researchers and practitioners over the decades, and this will be discussed in the next section.

2.3 Bilingual education and multilingual education

To evaluate and develop an effective model for trilingual teacher training in the XUAR, which is the focus of the present study, it is necessary to review the scholarship and research in bilingual and multilingual education in general. For decades, Bilingual Education (BE) has been the most common term used to refer to using two or more languages in teaching and learning in most areas worldwide with distinctive linguistic, ethnic and cultural diversities. There is sufficient evidence to demonstrate that bilingual and multilingual education are enhancing ‘Education for all and other goals, and that these go a long way towards accommodating diversity’ (Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh, 2012, p.vii). Despite the complexity of language use and pedagogical emphasis, BE usually refers to the regular use of two languages for teaching and learning within instructional settings (Abello-Contesse et al., 2013). Multilingual Education (ME), on the other hand, refers to ‘the use of two or more
languages in education provided that schools aim at multilingualism and multiliteracy’ (Cenoz, 2009, p.4). As the umbrella term, BE has been used for decades in the literature to cover both. It is defined ‘as a generic concept that refers to various types of educational programs which provide systematic instruction in two or more languages’ (Abello-Contesse et al., 2013, p4). According to this definition, ME is inclusion in the definition of BE, and as such, will be adopted as so in this chapter.

BE is a very complex phenomenon and it can be investigated from different perspectives including psycholinguistics, anthropology, linguistics, education and sociolinguistics. For instance, a psycholinguist can study the effects of BE in the way a bilingual person may obtain different languages whilst a sociolinguist may be interested in the vitality of languages with which they are in contact (Cenoz, 2009). It is also possible to investigate language use, language acquisition and language processing by studying individual learners at school, and in this case, schools are linked to the society and context in which they are located. Schools are not only shaped by society but can also have an important effect on society. Therefore, for BE studies, it is important to take into account the whole complexity of the society and the context where BE is being implemented (Cenoz, 2009). The challenge is to provide quality education with learners’ needs being borne in mind, whilst balancing these with contemporary political, cultural and social demands at the same time (Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh, 2012).

Before exploring BE in context further, it is necessary to discuss the typology and models of BE more explicitly. The implementation of various BE models has increased rapidly in the last decade all over the world. Cenoz (2009) listed considerably more than 90 varieties of bilingual education by the inclusion of multilingual education. Ten different types of BE were portrayed by Baker (2011), and these to illustrate the different and often implicit aims of BE. These ten types of BE were categorized into three forms: the monolingual forms, the weak forms (leading to limited bilingualism) and the strong forms (leading to stronger levels of bilingualism) (Baker, 2011, pp.209-210). Monolingual forms of bilingual education that result in subtractive bilingualism, and it includes three types of programmes: structured immersion, mainstreaming/ submersion with withdrawal classes/ sheltered English and lastly, segregationist.

For various social, economic, political, educational, and cultural purposes, different nation states may carry out BE in either a ‘weak’ or ‘strong’ form (Baker, 2006). The ‘weak’ forms of BE are intended to promote strong dominance in the community’s majority language and achieve a cultural and social assimilation by shifting students’ language from their native minority language to the dominant majority language (Baker, 2006). Furthermore, it is treated
as a pathway to achieve the intended social and cultural assimilation. The type of programmes include transitional, mainstream with foreign language teaching and separatist. The basic aim of these ‘weak’ forms of BE remains for assimilation of language minorities rather than cultural pluralism and maintenance of their native languages, and it is not intended for genuine bilingualism or biliteracy (Baker, 2011).

The ‘strong’ forms of BE, on the other hand, aim at helping students achieve bilingualism, bi-literacy, biculturalism and multilingualism, and multiculturalism with an appreciation of human diversity (Baker, 2006; Baker, 2011; García, 2009). They are also intended to strengthen the use of minority languages and assert ethnic identities, thus promoting the notion of additive bilingualism and/or multilingualism. The strong forms of bilingual education include immersion, maintenance/heritage language, two way/dual language and mainstream bilingual. The aim of these types of programmes is bilingualism and biliteracy, with the societal and educational aim on maintenance, pluralism, enrichment and additive bilingualism as well (Baker, 2011). Furthermore, the varieties of ‘strong’ forms of bilingual education can differ in the amount of time allocated to both majority and minority languages in the classroom; however full bilingualism and biliteracy are expected to be the educational outcomes (Baker, 2011). For certain communities, strong forms of BE are perceived as a gateway to equality of educational opportunity, cultural transmission, chances for heritage continuity, and ethnic language revitalization (Fishman, 2001; Gardner, 2000; Wang, 2011; Hornberger, 2005).

2.4 The advantages and disadvantages of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism

BE is a controversial and debatable phenomenon and there are considerable on-going debates regarding the conflict and confusion surrounding what BE means, what goals are set for its target populations and a bilingual programme, and whether or not BE is or can be effective (García and Baker, 2007). Advocacy for BE varies according to the status and power of majority and minority languages and local politics. However, there is also a solid research base that provides support for the effectiveness and advantages of BE (García and Baker, 2007). This research base revolves around the advantages of BE for individuals from three different perspectives: cognitive, communicative and cultural (Baker, 2003).

**Cognitive advantages**

Research has shown that for bilinguals who have two well-developed languages, there are some cognitive advantages (Bialystok, 2001; Liu, 2010). Bilingualism provides options in reading and writing in two or more languages, giving more opportunities for different viewpoints and perspectives, widening the choice of literature for both academia and pleasure, and leading to a deeper understanding of traditions, heritage and history (Baker,
It also helps bilinguals develop new ways of learning to know, learning to do and learning to be, and helps develop mutual respect and understanding (Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh, 2012). Due to their bilingualism, bilinguals may be able to think more flexibly and creatively than monolinguals (Lu, 2009; Yao, 2013; Baker, 2003). Their progress in early cognitive development may also be accelerated through BE and ME. Therefore, a bilingual person is more likely to have enhanced executive function abilities (Hala, et al., 2010; Bialystok, 2011; Friesen and Bialystok, 2013) and more linguistic flexibility, which may leads to more creative thinking and awareness than a monolingual.

**Communication advantages**

BE and ME allows both languages (sometimes three languages or more) to develop fully or partially. In this way children are able to engage in wider communication, resulting in more alternatives in patterns of communication across cultural groups, generations and regions (Cummins, 2000). Being a bilingual or multilingual increases the opportunities of communicating with a wider variety of people in a wider community than a monolingual. This may lead to the development of new relationships with people of other nationalities and ethnic groups when they are travelling within a country as well as internationally (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2013). In addition, being able to transfer between two or more languages may lead to more sensitivity in communication. Research show that being bilinguals or multilinguals increase empathy and listening skills during conversation, therefore being more attuned to the communicative needs of others with whom they talk (Baker and Jones, 1998).

**Cultural advantages**

Apart from cognitive and communication advantages, BE and ME provide the opportunity to experience two or more cultures which are constituted across a wide spectrum of differences including histories, traditions, literatures, music, religious traditions, forms of entertainment, ideas and beliefs, ways of thinking and of interpreting the world, etc. (Cenoz, 2009; Baker and Jones, 1998). Educating ‘in and for diversity’ promotes tolerance, respect and equality for others (Skutnabb-Kangas and Heugh, 2012). It develops a broader enculturation, a more tolerated, sympathetic and appreciative view of different cultures (Francis and Reyhner, 2002; Cenoz, 2009). In the model of developmental maintenance BE, also termed heritage language education, students’ self-esteem may be raised (Cummins, 2000). Confidence in a student’s own ability and positive self-esteem interact in an important way with regard to achievement and success, as well as curriculum success (Baker, 2003; Lu, 2009; Yao, 2013). Rather than being token multicultural courses, bilingual education also offers deep insights into other cultures and heritage associated with the languages. People from different countries or ethnic groups foster understanding of differences in a much broader way. This avoids the stereotyping of different social groups, and fosters, instead, a more multi-perspective
viewpoint (Cenoz, 2009; Baker, 2003). However, being bilingual does not automatically lead to being bicultural, but provides the potential through BE and ME. Additionally, as Jiang (2003) suggested, bilingual education can help broaden learners’ opinions of the world and this can help the students become better equipped at intercultural competence to meet the requirements and/or challenges of globalization.

Whilst not an exhaustive list, in addition to the above noted advantages to being bilingual, the economic advantages to being bilingual are increasingly being claimed. In today’s world economy, the ease in international communications has resulted in a demand for bilinguals and multilinguals in many occupations (Baker, 2011). Bilingualism could well be of value when working locally for multinational and international corporations. In order to secure a job as a school teacher or in universities, to work in the mass media, to work in local government and increasingly in the civil service in countries such as Wales, Canada and the Basque Country, bilingualism has become an important requirement (Baker, 2003). Additionally, for those who need to travel or conduct their business abroad, languages have also become increasingly essential (Baker, 2011). Nowadays, the Mass Media, Tourism, Information Technology, the Internet, and the Economy sectors have been contributing towards the development of bilingualism (Baker, 2011). It has provided the potential benefits for bilinguals as well. According to Cenoz (2009), BE is also considered a necessary requirement for the survival and revitalization of minority languages.

2.5 Issues regarding Bilingual Education

Whilst BE has an increasing number of world-wide supporters, it is not without some virulent critics. In contrast to the positive effects of bilingualism found for cognition, communication and cultural advantages, some researchers have made the following counter-arguments: most immigrants succeed without bilingual education, as Baker (2003) made references to other critics in his review; the decline of the bilingual students’ interest in their own native language and culture (Liao and Yan, 2004; Xu, 2003); BE failed in California (Baker, 2003); and finally, there are also limitations to BE (Baker, 2003). BE is no absolute guarantee of educational success or effective schooling. It is only one ingredient of a wider important matrix of variables which interact and take effect in a complicated way to make schooling more or less effective among many (Baker, 2011).

Bialystok (2009) has drawn attention to the negative effects of bilingualism on vocabulary size. It is argued that bilinguals generally manage to use a smaller size of vocabulary in each language than monolinguals (Oller and Eilers, 2002; Perani et al., 2003; Portocarrero, Burrigh and Donovick, 2007) (cited in Bialystok, 2009). It is also argued that bilinguals experience deficits in lexical access (Bialystok, 2009). In Bialystok’s (2009) research,
bilinguals obtained lower scores than monolinguals of the same age. Vocabulary size is usually considered to be a central measure of a bilingual’s progress in language development in both literacy and oral forms (Bialystok, 2009). However, others have argued that this vocabulary deficit is a natural outcome of bilingualism due to the Distributed Characteristic (Oller, 2005) of bilinguals’ knowledge. Bilinguals, it is said, must distribute their time and resources when learning about things in their world across two languages, never able to devote 100% of their time learning about everything through one language alone. Vocabulary, then, will develop at different rates in the bilingual’s or multilingual’s languages and at slower rates to monolinguals. Vocabulary and the language of the curriculum is often complex and specialized in BE. The students who have learned through BE sometimes report difficulty in communicating appropriately with the native speakers in local communities (Baker, 2003).

A further concern noted by Baker (2003) that language learning in BE contexts can stop at the school gates in some cases. A minority language needs support not only in the classroom or within the school setting, but also outside of schools, such as at home or other social community. As soon as the students are outside the school gates, they may switch into the majority language, leaving the minority language at school. Extending a minority language learned at school to use in the community and alive outside the school gates is something that is vital and difficult to plan. In response to this concern, a research project was conducted on an international basis by the Center of Language and Communication Studies, Trinity College, Dublin in July 2001. The aim of this project was to assess how the students behaved in after schools activities with regard to language use outside of the formal school contexts; these students are being taught through a second language or a minority language. The findings demonstrated that language use in non-school organizations and activities impacted on the overall quality of minority language acquisition (Oriagain et al., 2008). Moreover, the best possible models and practice were recommended to encourage the teenagers to continue using the languages outside the formal school context in this project report (Oriagain et al., 2008; Thomas and Roberts, 2011; Thomas, Lewis and Apolloni, 2012; Thomas, Apolloni and Lewis, 2014).

Issues involved in BE are never purely linguistic, but are always unavoidably and strongly associated with society and politics (Wang, 2011; Baker, 2003). It is possibly unfair to attribute the presence of two or more languages within a community to the problems such as social unrest (Baker and Jones, 1998). In Feng (2007)’s writing, ‘concealed assimilation’ can be found in bilingual education for minority students in China. Mandarin Chinese is always placed before minority languages in importance in the educational system, often in the name of facilitating socioeconomic development, for instance, in the western region which is
Xinjiang. The ethnic minority students’ achievement is measured using majority language criteria, and ‘linguistic and cultural hegemony and ethnic harmony are clandestinely set as the aims in bilingual education’ (Feng, 2007, p.272). Thus, BE is interwoven with politics and society, and to some extent, it also plays a key role in establishing identity at a local, regional and national level (Baker and Jones, 1999), which will be discussed in next section.

2.6 Bilingual Education and identity

Bilingual education ‘takes its rightful place as a meaningful way to educate children and language learners in the world today’ (García, 2009, p.6). However, the reciprocal relationship between language and identity is always complex and the views regarding it are always contested and conflicting (Norton, 2013; Salaberry, 2009; Block, 2009). According to Del Valle (2009), when defining particular groups, language is not an essential factor in a collective identity compared with other relatively unchangeable characteristics, such as gender, to define particular groups. However, Baker (2011) states that language is a highly influential element and is regarded as one of the strongest boundary markers and symbols in differentiating a group, a culture, a regional or national identity.

There are also recent changes with regard to the way that identity can be viewed. No one does only purely own one label and an identity; people are always with multiple identities or sub-identities (Baker, 2011). If a bilingual child has both an Italian and a French parent and can speak each language fluently, the question is raised if he is Italian or French? He may be raised in France, but also ‘feel’ Italian, or raised in Italy but also ‘feel’ French. This raises the issue of multiple identities. People all have multiple identities. A man may have the identities of father, company executive, son and grandson, husband and lawyer. These identities are sometimes moved in and out of a selection of roles in different circumstances and contexts, with diverse supporting players and varied audiences; speaking two or more languages can contribute to the number of sub-identities of a person (Baker and Jones, 1998). For some individuals, their ethnic identity does not appear to be a problem; although they could speak more than one languages, they regard themselves as being identified with one ethnic or cultural group. At the other end of the spectrum, the situation may be different. Taking some immigrants for example, they sometimes may actively want to lose the identity of their home or heritage language (Baker and Jones, 1998). Between the two extreme examples discussed above, potential cases exist with regard to identity crisis and conflict.

Identity crises and conflicts are never static. As Baker (2011) notes, ‘our individual identity is not fixed’ (p.398). These identities may change and evolve gradually, with varying experiences, collaborations and interactions within and outside a language group. It is socially and daily developed, re-constructed and shifted by interpreting our sociocultural experiences
and by taking multiple roles in the society. Identity conflicts are not inevitably the result of language. It can be found in a poem, described like this:

‘I am a lost identity; I am a struggling soul… I don’t know who I am;
I was born with a voice but lost it; I am told English is all that matters,
I am told my identity doesn’t matter; I am persuaded my voice is worthless,
I am taught to learn what is popular; I am told to ignore who I am…’

(Maganda, 2012, p.xi)

Globalization has made it possible to own two or more languages and not experience any form of identity conflicts. However, languages are clearly a contributing factor when such conflicts arise. Languages offer a person the opportunity to participate in different cultures, to think and act within two or more different ethnic groups, and to identify himself/herself with each or neither group. However, on the other hand, language is a channel that can cause identity conflict. For some bilinguals, ethnic identity, cultural identity and self-identity can be a problem (Baker and Jones, 1998). ‘Audibility’ is also an issue that needs to be considered which is defined as ‘a combination of the right accent as well as the right social and cultural capital to be an accepted member of a community of practice’ (Block, 2009, p.41). It is always associated with ‘right to speech’ and the ‘power to impose reception’ (Block, 2009, p.42). For many language minorities, it tends to be difficult to gain power and status and thereby hard in maintaining a continued language minority identity in some regions (Baker, 2011), such as Xinjiang in China. From this perspective, boundaries can be valuable to preserve minority language identity and maintain the heritage language.

Therefore, BE does not exist in a vacuum. It should be studied under the lens of a bigger sociocultural discourse, including language policy and planning, reform of assessment systems, school-based curriculum development and qualified bilingual or multilingual teacher training which will deliver the bilingual programme in a more effective and successful way.

2.7 The spread/expansion of English and trilingual education

Bilingualism is already the norm in many countries and learning a third language is becoming an increasingly common phenomenon (Gay et al., 2008). English is generally regarded as the main language of science and technology. The acquisition of English becomes a requirement to access academic books and journals which are mostly published in that language. Without a good knowledge of English, there will be the possibility that the scholars cannot keep up with the latest findings of research in their field (Cenoz and Etxague, 2013). It is the language of international communication and a tool that bring opportunities. According to 2010 data, English was the top language on the internet with 536.6 million users (Cenoz and Etxague,
Therefore, English is frequently the second or third language of choice in many countries and areas.

The study of English as a third language is becoming more common. A special issue in the *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* has illustrated the research on trilingual education in Europe, which is the usage of minority languages alongside the respective national language, and English is the most common as a third language (Cenoz and Gorter, 2005). Examples of this situation are Basque in the Basque Country, Swedish in Finland and Catalan in Catalonia (Cenoz, 2009). It is not only the case in some European contexts but also in some Asian countries, such as some minority regions in China. For other language speakers, learning a third language is not limited to learning a foreign language but implies learning the language and culture of a host country.

With the growing recognition of foreign language learning, research has recently shifted its focus to the process of third language acquisition. The aim of learning the mother tongue plus at least two additional languages has been proposed as a long-term objective for European citizens (EC, 2005) (cited in Cenoz and Etxague, 2013). As Jessner (1999) stated ‘the field of third language learning has established itself as a field in its own right, not just as a by-product of SLA research’ (p.203). Research on trilingualism and trilingual education has been conducted on several topics or areas during the past years, for example, the significance of trilingual education (Li and Tong, 2009), the differences between a trilingual and a bilingual (Gay et al., 2008), language transfer (Ni and Zhang, 2011) and a few trilingual approaches that were carried out in a practical way, such as when to use/teach English in the real classroom setting (Liang, 2010).

### 2.7.1 Trilingual education and additive Trilingualism

According to Cenoz et al. (2001), third language acquisition (TLA) within the school context would ‘refer to learning an L3 as a subject’, and trilingual education could ‘refer to the use of three languages as the languages of instruction’ (p.3). However, there can be different forms of trilingual education according to different educational goals towards the different languages, the different approaches or models used as well as their different weight in the curriculum. A programme can choose to use two languages as mediums of instruction with the third as a subject rather than three languages altogether; this can still be regarded as a trilingual programme. Ytsma (2001) broadened the definition of trilingual education and provided 46 types of trilingual education, which illustrates the great diversity and complexity of education involving three languages. Trilingual education was further classified based on three criteria: the linguistic characteristics of the context, such as monolingual, bilingual or
trilingual areas; typological distances between the languages and sequence of the introduction of the three languages, either simultaneously or one after another independently.

Moreover, Adamson and Feng (2015) identified four models of trilingual education based on 11 teams’ empirical research across China namely the Accretive, Balanced, Transitional and Depreciative Models (p.243). The two former models of trilingual education (Accretive and Balanced models) promote additive trilingualism in students in order to help them become trilingual, and facilitate advantages in areas such as education and the economy, which result in positive or additive consequences. Additive trilingualism in the Chinese context is defined as ‘the development of very strong competences both in L1 (minority pupils’ home language) and L2 (Mandarin Chinese) and peer appropriate competence in L3 (a foreign language, usually English). Peer appropriate competence in L3 refers to oral proficiency and literacy in L3 comparable to that of the peers of the majority Han group’ (Feng and Adamson, 2015, p.8). In comparison, the two latter models, Transitional and Depreciative models, aim to achieve limited trilingualism or bilingualism (even monolingualism) and they are weak models. It is more likely to have subtractive consequences when a weak model is used in which students learn a second or third language, at the cost to competence in their first language or to their academic development.

Additive trilingualism could be achieved if the learning of three languages had no detrimental effect on any of the languages (Adamson and Feng, 2009). Within the school context, this means that three languages would have to be equally valued, and when taught in schools, they should form an integral part of the school curriculum. However, as the three languages would be introduced gradually and to differing degrees, additional support and strategies would be needed in the form of the development of written scripts in the minority languages together with provision of space in the school curriculum for all three languages. The three languages can be developed subsequently or in a more balanced approach. For example, L1 is taught as well as being used as the medium of instruction; L2 is taught as a subject in the early years of primary school, later to shift to use L2 as the medium of instruction around the third year with L1 still being taught as a subject. Alternatively, both L1 and L2 are taught as subjects and adopted as the medium of instruction from the early stages. The new language proficiency is being built upon the proficiency of the existing languages (Adamson and Feng, 2015, p.245). However, according to Adamson and Feng (2009, p.331), the low social status of minority languages would be one of the important barriers to additive trilingualism due to their lack of associated political and economic capital. To sum up, additive trilingual education aims for effective educational outcomes, with the potential benefits for students. It could potentially empower the students not only educationally, but also socially, politically and economically (Adamson and Feng, 2015).
2.7.2 Factors affecting third language acquisition

Various factors affect the learners’ third language acquisition (TLA). For example, the medium of instruction, proficiency in their mother tongue (L1) and in second languages (L2), language transfer, length of exposure to the target language context, typological distance, the order of language acquisition, attitudes and motivation, and the learning environment, are some of the contributory influences (Cenoz, Hufeisen and Jessner, 2001).

Among these factors, the medium of instruction (MoI) was considered to be an important factor, and was discussed by many scholars. Cummins (1988) pointed out that instruction through the students’ native language, being hereditary or indigenous languages, had positive linguistic and academic outcomes. Some of the research findings in China also suggest adopting students’ mother tongue as MoI to learn a third language (Xiao, 2003; Duan, 2011; Ye, 2013). It showed that explanations given in students’ L1 facilitated their understanding and made them more motivated, thus leading to more effective outcomes. For example, the Philippines government encourages Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education; Malaysia has decided to shift from the teaching of science and maths through the English language to teaching in Malay from 2012. Additionally, the Hongkong Government policy is to encourage the use of Cantonese which is the mother tongue as the MoI, particularly at primary school level, believing that it is the best way for students to learn school subjects (Kirkpatrick and Chau, 2008; Wang and Kirkpatrick, 2013). While some believe that it would be better to use L1 as the explanatory language when there are problems arose in comprehension (Mercer et al., 2007). Others point out that students’ L2 proficiency influence their L3 acquisition at the early stage and that a high level of proficiency in L2 can facilitate their L3 acquisition (Sanz, 2000; Sun and Liu, 2012). In Cenoz’s (1994, 2001) research, for Spanish and Basque bilingual students, either Spanish or Basque can be chosen to be the medium of instruction by the students. For example, Spanish-speaking students can choose to be instructed in Basque. The findings proved that the use of L2 (Spanish) as the language of instruction can have a positive linguistic outcomes on the acquisition of L3 (English) for both Basque and Spanish speaking students (Cenoz, 1994). In this instance, L2 is also an option for learning a third language. In some empirical research conducted in China, the findings show that ethnic minority students with high scores in L2 (Mandarin Chinese) always have advantages or achieve more in learning L3 (English) than those with low scores in L2 (Sun and Liu, 2012; Liu and You, 2014). However, it is not always the case. In Hu’s (2007) research, it shows that students who did very well in L2 might not perform well in L3. Thus, as a teacher in Hongkong pointed out, it is important to address MoI issues to help students with their language development and address it fairly, in order to avoid some students being disadvantaged (Wang and Kirkpatrick, 2013).
Another important factor to consider in influencing TLA is the degree of linguistic interrelationship between the language varieties concerned; it is typological similarity or typological distance (Cenoz, Hufeisen and Jessner, 2001; Ytsma, 2001; Falk and Bardel, 2010). Ytsma (2001) claims that as a general rule, languages which belong to the same language family will have greater similarities than those which are derived from different families. As to the influence of linguistic distance on second / third language acquisition, the more similar or closely they are typologically to the mother tongue and the target language, the more likely it is to evoke have positive language transfer, and thus potentially facilitate to the acquisition of the target language for the learners, and vice versa. Examples of this can be seen when studying what is referred to as the ‘Romance languages’ compared with what are referred to as the ‘Germanic languages’. It has been confirmed by many empirical research evidence that the affinity between varieties in second or third language learning offered the students greater proficiency and understanding when studying a new language(Ytsma, 2001; Cenoz, Hufeisen and Jessner, 2001; Han and Liu, 2012; Zhang, 2013). In the Chinese context, the Uyghurs in Xinjiang are Muslim Turkish in ethnicity, and their language written script involves the traditional Arabic-based script (Adamson and Feng, 2009). Then, the Uyghurs’ mother tongue falls in the Turkic language family and it is closer to English than Chinese in terms of typological distance (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011).

According to the related literature, on the whole, much focus has been on the third language learner and the trilingual teaching methods rather than on trilingual educational conductors which are the trilingual teachers; and trilingual teacher training for trilingual education presents a great vacuum (Li, 2009). As Wang (2011) stated, a trilingual education programme cannot be successful without qualified trilingual teachers and trilingual teacher development. Thus, the training of trilingual teachers becomes more essential and has drawn much attention by researchers in recent years. Acquiring English as a second or a third language can have some differences as discussed in the following section (2.8) because third language learners can develop metalinguistic awareness and language learning strategies when facing the task of learning an additional language (Cenoz, 2009). Being aware of these differences and the real educational challenges faced by trilingual teacher training is necessary.

2.8 Trilingual teacher training

Trilingual teaching is one of the most challenging jobs in many countries. According to Benson (2004), trilingual teachers should be trained to fulfil different roles: linguist, community member, intercultural communicator and advocate (pp.211-215). They are expected to teach literacy, whilst teaching communicative language skills together with curricular content. In addition, they are required to be trilingual and have the task of bridging the linguistic and cultural gap between home and school. With regard to this job, some
trilingual teachers are usually less trained, and mostly have no option but to work in schools with insufficient resources (Benson, 2004).

2.8.1 Differences between bilingual and trilingual teacher training

There is a common consensus that both the third language acquisition and second language acquisition do not follow the same processes (Gay et al., 2008; Zhu, 2012; Li, 2009). It is stated that L3 and L2 learners have different ways of approaching the task of language learning as well as the effects of their efforts. Firstly, the third language learner has a minimum of two language systems at his/her disposal while learning the third target language (Cenoz, 2009; Baikeli, 2010; Stakhnevich, 2005; Zeng, 2010; Chen, 2008; Singleton and Little, 2005). Secondly, third language learners have had at least two kinds of language learning experiences, which also affects the approaches that they employ in the new learning situation (Zeng, 2010). Moreover, the memories of their previous positive or negative language learning experiences may influence the student’s self-worth, readiness to take risks, attitudes to language learning and motivation in learning a new language (Gay et al., 2008). Thirdly, the third language learners may also have the exact expectancies of the functions and role of the third language teacher (Aronin, 2005). Lastly, some research findings also suggest that the third language learners have the advantages in receptive skills over the bilingual learners; the positive influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition has been shown in these studies (Cenoz and Genesee, 1998; Cenoz and Jessner, 2000; Cenoz, Hufeisen and Jessner, 2001).

However, recent research has indicated that third language acquisition varies from second language learning, with many teachers insufficiently equipped to teach their L3 students (Li, 2009; Gay et al., 2008). One of the reasons for this is that most methodology courses deal only with first or second foreign language acquisition and learning only (Gay et al., 2008). It is suggested that third language teachers should be capable of identifying and understanding their students’ attitudes, motivation and expectations that is associated with the new learning situation. They should be aware of the students’ preferred learning strategies and learning styles, level of intercultural awareness, complex linguistic knowledge and rich language learning experience, which will probably be fundamental to them when acquiring a new language. The teachers should have the ability to conduct contrastive analysis and a needs analysis (Zhu, 2012). Furthermore, the third language teachers should be made aware of the procedures and resources used in the country or region for their students’ second language teaching, so as to be able to make appropriate links to the students’ already existing knowledge which they are familiar with (Liang, 2010; Gay et al., 2008; Zhang, 2015). They should realize that compared with the second language learners, the third language learners must be given additional cognitive activities and be encouraged to discover facts about the
new language independently for further learning (Gay et al., 2008). More importantly, they must be capable of adapting or designing sufficient materials and programmes which can aid their students to attain the best learning success. Another issue is that of the lack of third language resources. These are the skills and knowledge that the trilingual teacher training courses should offer for future trilingual teachers (Li, 2009; Gay et al., 2008).

### 2.8.2 Principles in trilingual teacher training

According to Baker (2001), teacher training programmes should include language learning theory and demonstrative language teaching techniques so that appropriate and effective practices are modelled and experienced, thus aiding the leap from knowledge to application of knowledge in teacher training programmes. In addition, with the increasing variety - both culturally and linguistically - teacher education programmes should particularly tackle issues of diversity (García and Pugh, 1992) and assist pre-service and in-service teachers in developing conceptual frameworks that are responsive to the educational needs of students who come from different cultural backgrounds with diverse language backgrounds (Banks, 1993; Luo and Jiang, 2009; Zeichner, 1993). The courses which introduce political, cultural, and social patterns of the larger society, as well as the student teaching experience, should also be included in the preparation of qualified trilingual teachers (Zhang, 2009; García and Pugh, 1992). It is also suggested that the teacher trainers and syllabus developers must have sufficient experience, as they cannot be expected to teach or write about trilingual methods which they themselves have never experienced (Benson, 2004). The implications made from this discussion concerning the trilingual teachers’ training should preferably capitalize on their strengths whilst attending to their needs. The efforts discussed above might be helpful for improving the quality of trilingual teacher training to some extent.

Language teacher education is a diverse subject area and teacher training is regarded as ‘one of many factors that may influence student learning’ (Jacob and Lefgren, 2004, p.59). Various ways of regarding trilingual teacher training are based on concepts and judgements, that usually give a partial interpretation of the complexities involved. Moreover, each of these deep-seated differences between teaching and talking about teaching terms involves a complex ways of knowing and acting. There are always degrees of explicitness and implicitness, and individual personal and context-bound differences (Grenfell, 1998). Establishing a concrete opinion on the appropriate method to train teachers usually takes place in this space of conflicting forces and often seeks to lessen such conflicts in the teacher training programme. Training itself is a practical activity, and behind the training itself, there are real places and real people. Therefore, it is clear that most training processes and outcomes achievement cannot be evaluated without consideration of the context to which the literature review now turns/addresses.
2.9 The Research Context

As Cohen, et al. (2011) stated, ‘behaviour and, thereby, data are socially situated, context-related, context-dependent and context-rich’ (p.219). To fully understand the situation, the researcher does need to understand the context because situations affect behaviour and perspectives and vice versa.

2.9.1 Trilingual education and trilingual teacher training in China

China has a huge population consisting of 56 nationalities. The Han nationality is the dominant group, comprised of approximately 92% of the total population (Feng, 2005). Mandarin Chinese (Putonghua), which is the official language in China, or a variety of Chinese, is spoken by this majority population. Nowadays, only about 60 million people, who occupy 5-6% of China’s population, speak minority languages (Feng, 2005). These minority groups are mostly scattered in five autonomous regions, these ethnic autonomous areas are always resource-rich but economically under-developed (Adamson and Feng, 2009). There are five regions, Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (XUAR hereafter), Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, Tibet Autonomous Region, Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region and Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region. These five regions are regarded as a very important part of the country for the following three reasons: (i) they cover 62% of the total area of the country; (ii) they border 90% neighbouring countries; (iii) they have a great amount of natural resources, for instance, mining, oil and gas, tropical crops and forestry (Duan, 2011). Thus, the education of these ethnic minority groups of people, who are the majority living in these regions, is vital for the government in terms of political stability and unity, and for the country’s economic development.

The concept of bilingualism in China can be dated back as far as the 3rd century by some historians (Feng, 2005). At this time, the Han majority population was beginning to populate the furthest reaches of the country, living under the rule of the Qin Dynasty. According to Feng (2005), formal bilingual schooling started when the late Qing government officially began opening bilingual schools for the higher classes of the minority groups in both major cities and minority areas by the dawning of the 20th century. Li and Huang (2004) defined BE in China in three stages according to different historical periods in the PRC era with the consideration of the policies and its implementations; it started from 1949 when the People’s Republic of China (P.R.C.) was founded. These three stages can be seen as the ‘start-up stage’ (1949–1965) when efforts were initially made to promote BE; the ‘stagnancy stage’ (1966–1976) in which the Cultural Revolution interrupted BE’s development and an assimilation mindset predominated. The final stage was the ‘recovery and development stage’ (late 1970s - present) when bi/trilingual education was robustly promoted once more (Feng
and Sunuodula, 2009, p. 685). Furthermore detailed divisions of the three stages, particularly the most recent stage, were also identified by other researchers in response to political and social changes (Xu, 2006).

BE has been conducted under the communist government since 1949. With the English language increasingly perceived as a crucial tool for both Chinese economic development and individual advancement in the society in China, two parallel systems of bilingual education for the majority Han and the minority groups have been differentiated clearly according to different aims and practices (Feng, 2007). For majority Han groups, a foreign language, such as English, was added into the curriculum with the aim of adding to students’ knowledge and linguistic competence. It is ‘additive bilingual teaching’, which can be described as a kind of strong models and develops bilinguals with no displacement of their mother tongue and culture (Feng, 2007). For the majority Han students, the role of a foreign language such as English is ‘just a tool’ (Orton, 2009) whereby they are speaking English, but being Chinese (Bianco, 2009). However, for minority ethnic groups, ‘transitional bilingual education’ is adopted, and that aims for transition to the mainstream educational system and the development of their ethnic identity, and more importantly, their national identities, and allegiance to the state (Feng, 2007, p.3).

There is a long history of BE for ethnic minorities in the five autonomous regions mentioned above. The implementation of BE aims, ultimately, to produce bilingual speakers with a strong competence in Mandarin Chinese, which is spoken by the majority Han nationality population. This is done so that the minority groups of people can incorporate their indigenous languages and cultures into mainstream society and cultures (Feng, 2005). The main purpose of minority education in these regions is to maintain political stability and unity of all nationalities, and is stated explicitly in official educational documents (Feng, 2005). Recently, great efforts have been made by the state in order to maintain political stability in a way of producing collaborative policies that take into account the minority groups’ identity and concerns. As the government also makes efforts to promote national cohesion through the promotion of Mandarin Chinese, a potential tension has arisen (Adamson and Feng, 2009) which is evidenced recently by continuous conflicts in XUAR (BBC News China, 2013, 2014; Palmer, 2014).

In minority dominated areas, the two predominant forms of BE among minority groups are the submersion approach and the transition model as indicated in the previous section. In the latter, the minority or home language is only used at the initial stage as the language of instruction, and gives way in a short time to Mandarin Chinese as the medium of instruction for all school subjects. These forms are what Baker (2006, 2011) mentioned as ‘weak forms’
of BE, with the aim of eventually assimilating minority groups into the monolingual mainstream society. Nevertheless, ‘strong forms’ such as the heritage or maintenance bilingual education models with emphasis on the minority language of the students which is their mother tongue, were found to exist in some regions, such as ‘Xinjiang (XUAR), Inner Mongolia and Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture’ as Feng pointed out (2005, p.529). However, this may not be the case in most parts in XUAR nowadays, which will be discussed further in the section of XUAR context.

From Bilingual to Trilingual education

With the globalization and the recognition of the importance of the English language, the acquisition of the English language becomes a requirement in the school curriculum and also for job hunting, and it has played a prominent role in recent years in China (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011). The claim made by China of its ‘open-door’ policy, being a member of WTO (the World Trade Organisation) in 2001 as well as Beijing’s successful hosting of the 2008 Olympic Games have all helped to promote bilingual and trilingual education, and to reshape China’s education system in general (Feng, 2005). In 2001, a document entitled ‘Guidelines for Promoting English Teaching in Elementary Schools’ was issued by the Chinese Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2001). It showed that the compulsory learning of English is lowered from the first year of junior high school to Grade 3 in primary school. The aims of learning English language shifted from receptive language skills, such as reading and grammar, to the productive use of English and interpersonal communication. This was a shift from the traditional ‘instrumental’ rationale to adding a ‘humanistic’ goal. For the language instruction, a document named ‘Guidelines for Improving Teaching for University Undergraduate Students’ suggested that the usage of English as an alternative medium of instruction at university-level should be imparted through 5-10% of a foreign language during all undergraduate teaching. Thus, English has shifted from a subject to an option as the medium of instruction to teach other subjects (Bianco, 2009). Bilingualism and bilingual education, referring to both English and Mandarin Chinese, is widely seen as a useful tool by the Han majority with the aim of achieving both subject learning and language proficiency simultaneously (Feng, 2005). For minority groups, English, as a third language longstanding with their home language and Mandarin Chinese, can be added into the school curriculum in the regions where there are adequate resources (Tai, 2008).

Blachford and Jones (2011) argue ‘trilingual education is problematic for minority peoples in China as a result of practical difficulties… particularly the shortage of qualified teachers of English from within the minority community’ (p.235). As Feng (2005) stated, in most autonomous regions where most of the minority groups are living in, insufficient effort is made in developing learning and teaching resources for ethnic minority students; the obstacle
which is a shortage of qualified bi/trilingual teachers often stands in the way of the development of bi/trilingual education. The situation of the shortage of qualified trilingual teachers in the northwest of China is more severe than in other regions in the country (Luo and Jiang, 2009; Duan, 2011). Poverty, lack of information, poor transportation, low social status and educational development of the minority groups in minority regions, have had a negative effect on the number of qualified teachers within the system (Lin, 1997). The shortage of qualified trilingual teachers required to meet the needs of school children presents a particular challenge for school settings, and it is also an educational problem that will profoundly influence education in schools (Aihaiti, 2008; Luo and Jiang, 2009; Duan, 2011).

To meet the challenge, the need for further attention and funding to train additional teachers is increasing (Aihaiti, 2008). Thus, two kinds of special plans for training teachers are currently underway in both national and regional level in China (Li, 2014). One plan focuses on training college students to supplement the existing teachers. The other plan aims to improve the quality of already - practicing teachers. The types of training models include: the ‘U-S’ cooperative model (U stands for University, S is for school), teacher exchanges and cooperative model, intensive training courses in the universities model, practical training based in schools model and far-distant training model (Li, 2010). These measures and types of training discussed above help to reduce the severe trilingual teacher shortage to some extent.

However, as Lassiter (1983) states, it is not sufficient to simply offer a greater number of teachers employment in order to deal with this shortage. It is vital that the quality of training programmes is also improved. Thus, the training of trilingual teachers becomes essential and attracts much attention by scholars and researchers. As Lin (1997) and Li (2012) pointed out provinces such as Guangxi, Guizhou, Tibet and XUAR, with their large minority population, still have a long way to go in respect of teacher training. Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (XUAR), as the largest autonomous region among the five in China, is the focus of the present research.

**2.9.2 Trilingual teacher training in XUAR**

**Socio-linguistic background of XUAR**

XUAR is located in the northwest of the P.R.C. and occupies one sixth of the country’s total land mass. It borders eight countries: Kazakhstan, Kirghizstan, Tajikistan, Russia, the Republic of Mongolia, India, Pakistan, and Afghanistan as well as three provinces or regions in China: Gansu, Qinghai and Tibet (Tsung and Cruickshank, 2009). XUAR is also regarded as having ‘great potential for international exposure both in sociocultural terms and economic activities’ (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011, p.261). Within the province, there were a complex
mix of ethnicities which included 13 main officially recognized ethnic nationalities of approximately 21 million people at the end of 2007 (XUAR Government, 2009). According to the 2007 census, there were 12.71 million minority people that occupied 60.68% of the total population in XUAR, with the number increasing annually. Uygur is the largest group in this region with a population of 9.65 million (Liu and Cai, 2010). China’s dominant Han ethnic group, having grown from just under 7% to more than 40% in the last 50 years, takes a close second position (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011). There are three nationalities (Han, Hui and Manchu) who speak Mandarin Chinese; Turkic languages are spoken by five nationalities (Uyghur, Kazak, Kirghiz, Uzbek and Tatar); and a substantial amount of minority people use Russian and Tajik (Tsung and Cruickshank, 2009).

**Bilingual education in XUAR**

XUAR is a multilingual and multicultural society. With this kind of special geographic location and combination of peoples, it is inevitable that different minority groups have to communicate and learn from each other. Different minorities interact and influence each other in many ways, including their language and culture. The government has been making an effort to promote ‘bilingual education’ in XUAR and it has a long, uninterrupted history since 1950 (Li, 2012). In XUAR, BE mostly does not refer to English and Chinese for the ethnic minority students, but to using the Mandarin Chinese language (L2) as well as minority languages (L1) as media to teach school subjects.

The education system of XUAR was divided into two principle parallel subsystems. It started from the end of the ‘Cultural Revolution’, and identified as the second stage of bilingual education development or the ‘recovery and development stage’ in the late 1970’s, until the promulgation of the XUAR bilingual education policy of 2004. For the minority students, their minority language was the medium of instruction with Mandarin Chinese as a second language school subject. Meanwhile, for the Han students, Mandarin Chinese was the medium of instruction for education with English as a preferred second language school subject. Therefore, the schools were divided following the ethnic groups or ethnic categorization on the basis of the medium of instruction in this system (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011). As the Uyghur language is one of the two official languages in XUAR, most of the Uyghur students were educated in their mother tongue with varying levels and degrees of Mandarin Chinese acquisition. Their competence in Mandarin Chinese mostly depended on where they lived, the opportunities for them to access the resources, such as qualified teachers, textbooks, etc., and the possibilities to interact with the Han population (Benson, 2004).
In 2001, there were 3507 Uyghur language medium schools which took 56.37% of all 6221 primary schools in XUAR (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011). The percentage of ethnic minority students receiving education in the schools adopting their native language as medium of instruction varied according to different areas. The north area in XUAR represented around 65% of the total number. However, in the south, where Uyghurs are dominant, the percentage reached up to 96% of the total (Zhao, 2004; Sunuodula and Feng, 2011). These figures can be seen in a recent survey (Cui, 2005), which shows that the number of Uyghur university students graduating from Uyghur language schools rested above 90% (cited in Sunuodula and Feng, 2011). Those who did not attend Uyghur language medium schools went to a range of other schools where the medium of instruction was Mandarin Chinese.

However, currently this situation is changing rapidly with the government promotion of BE in this region. Great efforts have been made through a series of strategies in order to strengthen, promote, and develop ‘BE’ in XUAR, with the aim of assimilation and maintaining stability in this multi-cultural region due to its particular location and complex social environment. The strategies include supporting ‘BE’ financially, together with merging all the minority language medium schools with mainstream schools where Mandarin Chinese is the medium of instruction by 2008 (Tsung and Cruickshank, 2009). Further strategies include training bilingual teachers, encouraging the minority children to attend pre-school bilingual classes, estimated to have reached as high as 85% by 2012 (Zhang, 2010). The children then would be encouraged to speak Mandarin Chinese rather than their native language which is a minority language. The aim of BE in XUAR is not to help students achieve bilingualism, bi-literacy, biculturalism or multilingualism (as Baker (2011) pointed out as the strong forms of BE), but for assimilation rather than maintenance of their native languages and cultural pluralism. In other words, it illustrates a weak form of transitional BE. As Grose (2010) stated ‘the ultimate goal for the PRC’s educational policy for minority peoples has been to integrate all ethnic groups into a single and unified socialist state’ and XUAR has been regarded as ‘an ideological battleground in which the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) has used state-sponsored education to promote ethnic unity (minzu tuanjie)’ (p.97).

**From Bilingual to trilingual teacher training in XUAR**

With increased recognition of the importance of foreign language acquisition for economic development, an increased emphasis has been placed on trilingual or multilingual education (ethnic minority languages, Mandarin Chinese, foreign language, such as English) in XUAR as a more integral part of the Chinese Educational system. In July 2002, the policy promulgated by the State Council stated that one foreign language (L3) can be added into the school curriculum in some regions if the condition is appropriate (Tai, 2008). Therefore,
English as a subject was added into the school curriculum. For Han students, according to the document issued by the Ministry of Education (2001), the English language is taught as a second language, instead of any minority languages, from Grade 3 in elementary schools or even from kindergarten in some economically developed cities. For minority students, although they have to learn Mandarin Chinese as the second language, they still have shown great passion towards learning English (Sunuodula and Feng, 2011).

The promotion of multilingual education in XUAR is hampered by the significant lack of skilled multilingual teachers within the education system (Ma, 2006; Aibiban, 2011). Up until the end of 2009, 2.09 million minority students had not received BE which refers to the education through a minority language and Mandarin Chinese. However, there were only 18,340 bilingual teachers (for minority language and Mandarin Chinese) in XUAR (Anatulla, 2009). With the addition of English language in the curriculum, the lack of qualified trilingual teachers in XUAR is an even more serious setback than in other minority regions in China. (Tai, 2008; Yuan et al., 2009).

In the past years, several measures have been devised to encourage graduates from the teacher education colleges to consider working in these regions to ease the problem of the shortage of trilingual teachers (Zhang, 2011). For instance, unlike graduates working in Han-dominated areas, they do not serve a probation period and as an incentive are given preference in terms of better working and living conditions. Another measure introduced by the provincial governments is the setting up of teacher-training institutes, which is aimed at drawing students from minority areas, by lowering admission standards. The students then follow a training course for one or two years and, after graduation, they are required to return to their home towns to teach (Li, 2012). However, the outcome is unsatisfactory for the following reasons. Firstly, the ethnic minority teachers may lack the skills to teach the subjects in Mandarin Chinese. Secondly, monolingual teachers who can only speak Mandarin are not required to learn any ethnic minority language. Furthermore, although some teachers are so called ‘bilingual/trilingual teachers’, most of them have had little or no special training before taking up the role as ‘bilingual/trilingual teacher’ (Liu et al., 2008). Research shows that even though some of the in-service teachers had received the training from the regional teacher training institute for one or two years, they still faced challenges in speaking fluently or teaching languages or teaching in languages in the institutions they return to work in (Abuduwaili, 2009; Wu, 2009; Aibiban, 2011, Wang, 2012). Therefore, the lack of qualified bilingual or trilingual teachers is still a fundamental issue and needs to be resolved in order to promote multilingual education in XUAR. However, rare attempts have been made to study and develop trilingual teacher training in XUAR according to the related literature.
The aim of the current BE in XUAR is in essence to promote Mandarin Chinese, which is L2 for the majority inhabitants of XUAR who are in the minority compared with the whole China. Against all odds, however, trilingual teacher training (TTT) has been placed on the official agenda of a teacher training university (TTU hereafter). At TTU, the foreign language college is given the responsibility for the training of trilingual teachers. Therefore, this college is the focus for the empirical research undertaken.

All research by practitioners like me is conducted with the intention to advance knowledge and to improve practice. My research, according to the literature review above, will be conducted, first of all, to attest the concept of additive trilingualism as the ultimate aim for TTT and in turn for trilingual education in general. The investigation will, thus, focus on finding evidences to show the interplay of three languages in English language teacher training and possible strategies policy makers and teachers can adopt to help learners develop strong competencies in L2 and L3, without losing their L1 and cultural identity. For TTT in XUAR, in practice, I also believe that a stronger model needs to be developed and this model should follow certain principles supporting additive trilingualism as identified in the review. To do so in the context of XUAR, an in-depth study should be conducted to truly understand the policies at various levels, to understand what is really happening in the TTT classrooms, and to investigate into the perceptions and attitudes of the key stakeholders.
Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology of the present study which aims to identify effective models for trilingual teacher training in the specific context of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (XUAR), where there is tension between the political agenda and educational ideals. Theoretically, the research aims to search for a model that is both pedagogically sound and socio-politically feasible; that is, balancing politics and educational ideals. Practically, the findings will suggest how to improve the current practice from different perspectives, including curriculum design in the school of Foreign Language, the physical environment and the teaching methodology aspect in XUAR. TTU is the main university for pre- and in-service teacher training in XUAR. The school of Foreign Language in this university has been put in charge of training English language teachers. Therefore, this school was the focus for this research. The overarching research question and key sub-questions are as following:

How (in)effective are current policies and practices in Trilingual Teacher Training programmes for minority dominated regions in XUAR?

It is are supported by three further sub-questions:

- To what extent do current policies support English language teacher training programme for minority regions in XUAR?
- To what extent do school practices support English language teacher training programme for minority regions in XUAR?
- What are key stakeholders’ attitudes and perceptions of the languages in use and in education, and of English language teacher training?

XUAR is a relatively sensitive region in China due to geographic, demographic and political factors which have been discussed in the literature review chapter. There are five autonomous regions in China: Inner Mongolia, Guangxi Zhuang; Xinjiang Uyghur; Tibet and Ningxia Hui. Among those five regions, XUAR is the biggest one, which takes up one sixth of China’s total land mass. The Uyghur is the dominant ethnic group in XUAR, taking up 43% of the total population, and a substantial number of Uyghur currently reside in the southern XUAR alongside neighbouring Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan. The Uyghur people have very distinct physical differences from the dominated Han Chinese, and are Muslim Turkish by ethnicity. This ethnic group is widely portrayed as a group which is always related with strong separatist desires, which advocates independence from the Chinese state and resistance
to Han domination (Adamson and Feng, 2009). These factors have made this region a particularly problematic one for cultural and social policy formulation for the central government. The stability and ethnic harmony of this region is always a big concern for the central government in the management of the autonomous region. Thus, historically, the region has been highly controlled and strict censorship towards the research in general from outside has prevailed. Fortunately, as a researcher who was born and brought up in this region, as well as a former lecturer in the university for five years, it became possible to have the access to conduct the fieldwork in the university in this region.

This research aims to gain a wide and in-depth understanding of the full spectrum in multilingual education and trilingual language teacher training, and specifically to those key research questions listed above. A mixed-methods approach was adopted which included questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and observations; these methods aimed to yield both quantitative and qualitative data, with an endeavor to obtain both extensive and intensive data, in order to explore various perspectives through triangulation.

This chapter begins by reviewing the mixed-methods approach, which is the main approach this research adopted while noting two essential terms that are particularly suited to explore: positionality and reflexivity. This is followed by the research designs and methods. Then, the main part of this chapter is devoted to the sample selection and research procedures and specifies how the technique for collecting data in this research attempted to overcome potential shortcomings of those methods in order to increase the reliability and validity of the research. Finally, ethical issues, limitations and methods which will be employed in data analysis, are also included in this chapter.

3.2 Mixed methods

Whilst ‘Objective reality can never be captured, we only know a thing through its representations’ (Denzin, 2012, p.82). The objective reality in the messy social and educational world is even more complicated to obtain due to its complexity, connectedness and contradictions (Cohen et al., 2011). It is multi-layered, constructed and holistic. For social research, one needs to examine the objective reality and situations as a whole rather than in fragments in order to reach a true understanding. Quantitative research often sets out to establish strength relationships or causal relationships among general variables and emphasize that neutral researchers generate reliable and valid data by using rigorous methods during research (Ellingson, 2011; Denzin, 2012). Quantitative methods help researchers understand a situation in general and help them discover trends, but they are unlikely to allow researchers to understand a phenomenon or a behavior in-depth, or to allow researchers to explore the reason behind a phenomenon or behavior (Esther, 2014). Qualitative research, on
the other hand, can be more interpretative and exploratory, eliciting more openly subjective and humanistic knowledge via the use of social tools such as photos, stories, videos and texts, emphasizing the examination of complex relationships among factors to understand truth (Ellingson, 2011; Denzin, 2012; Duff, 2007b; Esther, 2014). The combination of multiple methodological practice in a single research is regarded as a strategy to better understand the phenomenon and inquiry from a variety of perspectives (Denscombe, 2014; Denzin, 2012). Mixed-methods reflects an attempt to gain an entire and in-depth understanding of the phenomenon relating to a series of research questions.

However, there is considerable debate and criticism aimed at mixed-methods from different perspectives. Creswell (2011) classified these debate and criticism into following categories: (a) disagreements regarding definitions, (b) the kind of study that can be identified as adopting mixed methods, (c) the extent to which they are incommensurable and incompatible differences between quantitative and qualitative paradigms, and (d) the value mixed methods can add to the research. Others have argued that since quantitative and qualitative methods depend on different paradigms—each of which has a complex disciplinary history and might be appropriate for different epistemological assumptions, it may not be easy - or perhaps impossible – to combine these paradigms within a study in terms of ‘incompatibility’ and ‘incommensurability’ issues (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2003, pp.14-15). Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2008) argued that mixed methods may confuse and blur the boundaries between quantitative and qualitative methods from a methodological perspective. Others state that the design of mixed-methods financially cost more than adopting a single qualitative or quantitative method and concerned about the analysis strategies on both qualitative and quantitative data (Maxcy, 2003).

To these criticisms and debates discussed above, others have provided possible responses to the question of compatibility and commensurability. With regards to the former, proponents of the mixed methods approach assert that there is no conflict between quantitative and qualitative paradigms, and no incompatibility between them at both the practical and epistemological levels, and combining these two methods is a valid approach (Denzin, 2012). Combining these two approaches contributes to the accuracy of the research findings in a way that provides an opportunity for the researcher to compare, build and develop findings - from different methods of data collection in answering the same question (Denscombe, 2014). Whilst support for the mixed methods approach is mixed, the general consensus is that it adds breadth complexity and richness to any inquiry (Flick, 2007; Denzin, 2012; Denscombe, 2014).
According to Cohen et al. (2011) there is no single methodological blueprint for any given research enquiry because there is no single picture of the world, and there are many ways of investigating any question. However, the adopted methods should fit the purpose of the research and the kinds of research question to be answered. As Denscombe (2014) states a particular method is never good or bad intrinsically; it can only be viewed as useful or not to the specific issue that is being investigated. Research has demonstrated the appropriateness of using mixed methods to study a cultural context of complex scope and multi ethnic groups. A mixed methods approach was chosen for the present study with the intention of facilitating the capture of a broader perspective in order to provide a more grounded understanding. The purpose of the present research was to develop insights into the cultural and educational phenomena under investigation, explore the problems, and seek possible ways to improve the current practice. Thus, mixed methods was considered to be appropriate for this study, as it is one of the research methodologies used by researchers to study similar cultural and social contexts in education settings. (Meng and Ao, 2012; Yin, 2009; Li, 2012; Esther, 2014; Long and Duo, 2014). The study is intended to gain an in-depth, detailed understanding of the status quo including both quantifiable and naturalistic situations, intentions, attitudes and behaviors. It also attempts to provide a voice to the people (students, teachers etc.) who are involved in the trilingual teacher training programs and probes issues that lie beneath the surface of social and cultural actions and behaviors, all of which are well served by this approach to research.

3.3 Positionality and Reflexivity

It is assumed that there can be potential bias in investigating site that researchers are familiar with in the sense that the researcher’s own perceptions or knowledge of the site may possibly influence their judgment or ability to reflect appropriately on their experience (Edwards and Furlong, 1985). However, others have contested this. Marcus (1998) argues that a researcher who investigates a familiar site can fully use their assets, such as their life experience, knowledge, resources and language to achieve the depth of understanding that is necessary to interpret the phenomenon, something that can be difficult, if not impossible, for the ‘outsider’ to achieve. Following this point, another important factor is how individual define themselves when conducting their research? Who is he or she in the research? How researchers locate themselves within the context of their research is an important consideration that requires a certain level of awareness in order that this does not unduly influence the research outcome (Emerson, 2001; Kusenbach, 2003). But how do we locate ourselves in research and prepare ourselves effectively to negotiate between ourselves and participants, and between subject and object relationships in research?
The researcher should realize that research is an interactive and socially constructed process shaped by, for example, culture, social class, personal and regional history, the environment of the setting and the people within it. In the context of the kind of study presented in this thesis, a researcher may have multiple identities during the project including a researcher, practitioner and theorist. Consequently, there is a need to work between and within those different and overlapping paradigms and perspectives (Denzin, 2012). It has been suggested that to be a good researcher, we should be aware that our personal stakes and investments do exist in research relationships; personal emotions, for example, anxieties, frustrations, happiness, disappointments even depression cannot be avoided totally, and these personal emotions and experiences are part of any relationship either as a researcher or a participant (Luttrell, 2000). It is therefore important to seek to appreciate and understand the difference between ourselves and other people, and try not to mix up our theories, fantasies, ideas and perceptions with those of the participant subjects of the research. Respecting the voice of the research participants is essential; it fosters understanding of their own position and perceptions towards the research questions in the research.

It should also be acknowledged that even an experienced researcher would be possible to make mistakes whilst conducting research due to the various psycho- and socio-emotional issues discussed above. Errors that occur due to, for example, a researcher’s social and/ or emotional involvement in the research and/ or with their participants can be compensated provided that the researcher is capable of reflecting on the potential influence of these factors on the research and on the research outcomes (Luttrell, 2000). Marcus (1998) stated that being reflective allows the researcher to utilize much of the resources they have obtained through their research. In this vein, to be a good researcher, he or she ‘is more or less reflexive, not either-or’ (Luttrell, 2000, p.516). And being reflexive during conducting the research indicates expanding the cultural, psychological and social including political fields of analysis rather than narrowing down them. Thus, given positionality the strength in the present study, it is important to ensure that no bias exists, so that reflexivity will be discussed in the following section.

It is unlikely when conducting research that there is no contact between the researcher and the researched; the researcher is rarely isolated completely. This is particularly the case in relation to qualitative lines of enquiry. All the researchers, to some degree, have some connections with or part of the subjects and topics of what they have researched (Davies, 2008). And depending on the extent of the connections between the researcher and the researched and the various position the researcher holds, the researcher’s presence in the research process will inevitably influence the results or outcome to some extent. For these reasons, considerations of reflexivity are essential for all forms of research.
Reflexivity is of central importance for social and educational research, where there are often unavoidable connections between the researcher and the research setting (Davies, 2008), as is the core in the present study. Reflexivity is often stated as ‘a methodological virtue and source of superior insight, perspicacity or awareness’ (Lynch, 2000, p26), however, “what reflexivity does, what it threatens to expose, what it reveals and who it empowers depends upon who does it and how they go about it”, as argued by Lynch (2000, p36).

Reflexivity can be categorized into several groups: mechanical reflexivity, substantive reflexivity, methodological reflexivity, meta-theoretical reflexivity, interpretative reflexivity and ethno-methodological reflexivity (Lynch, 2000). Although this list is not in a strict hierarchical order and overlap, it demonstrates the diverse meanings and functions of this term from both methodological and theoretical perspectives. One common point across these kinds of in those categories is that each type of reflexivity involves recursive turning back to some extent (Lynch, 2000). But it differs from category to category, even from case to case within one category for how it turns, what causes the turning, and with what implications.

In sum, for the two important elements discussed above, positionality and reflexivity have the potential to influence the research outcomes and therefore the researcher need to be aware of these. One (positionality) addresses power and trust relationships between participants and researchers and the other (reflexivity) addresses the influence of researcher-participant interactions during conducting the research. They also have the potential to increase the validity of the results in a social research (Hall and Callery, 2001).

As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) address what researchers should be not only concerned with the choice of a single ‘best’ research methodology, but also to consider the fitness of the research and the methodology. It means considering the purpose of the research and to match its research questions with the properties of the methodologies which would be adopted in research. The study conducted in this thesis investigated not only the learner but also the trainers, the programs and the school. The study is therefore a complex and dynamic entity in this regard. A mixed-methods approach is the most suitable and effective method to illuminate how the research entity, such as the trainers and the learners, interact with each element of teaching and learning in a particular real-life context. In a mixed-methods research, the quantitative method, such as questionnaire survey, helped identify the themes and trends that emerged in this research; and the qualitative method, such as the interviews, gives voices to participants and provides a detailed and intricate understanding of actions, both observable and non-observable phenomena, intentions and behaviours; and because people, objects, events and situations ‘have meaning conferred upon them rather than
possessing their own intrinsic meaning’ (Cohen et al., 2011, p.220), the observation allows researchers to examine learners’ linguistic development, learning outcome, attitude and communicative interactions in the real daily life settings and probes issues that lie beneath the surface of presenting behaviours and actions. In this way, it would facilitate researchers to learn more about the entity from the investigation, and to gain insights into issues which are relevant to the research questions and the mixed-methods is considered to be appropriate as it well-serves the research in examining the research questions. In using the mixed methods approach to investigating the complex and dynamic TTT programme in the XUAR context, the researcher must possess strong awareness of positionality and reflexivity as discussed above so as to maximize validity and reliability of the findings.

3.4 Research designs and methods

3.4.1 Method

According to LeCompte and Schensul (2010) ‘any and all types of data that could help shed light on the answer to research questions’ (p. 21), involving both qualitative and quantitative data, should be included. The qualitative data elicit the textual phenomena, and quantitative data present the numerical measurement to ensure validity and reliability (Byram and Feng, 2006). In this study, questionnaires, interviews, and non-participant observation were included in this study from three main groups of stakeholders of a specific trilingual teacher training programme. These involved policy makers broadly defined to include curriculum designers and leaders, trilingual teachers who are in the foreign language college or the college which is related (the trainers) and students (the trainees) in this foreign language department in TTU. There is no consensus on the best way to conduct research, and successful researchers use a wide variety of strategies which are fit for the research purpose (Bell, 1999).

In order to ensure that the research was as reliable and valid as possible, this project started with two pilot studies. These pilots took the form of open-ended interviews with 7 individuals and a questionnaire survey of 12 informants, that adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods. Apart from primary data, additional data were sought in the form of provision-related documents such as curriculum design, course guidelines, scanned textbook samples, photocopies of teaching materials, school activity arrangements and other relevant documents in order to supplement the data obtained from interviews, questionnaire and observations to achieve a more thorough understanding of the naturally occurring context under investigation. These course documents, together with the questionnaires and semi-structured main interviews with the students, teachers and policy maker, helped the researcher explore the status quo of trilingual teacher training programme implementation in
this university, identify the issues during implementation, and to build the necessary context for the data interpretation, and explore effective ways to promote professional development for teachers, particularly for improving pre- and in-service trilingual teacher training.

3.4.2 Sampling

Cohen (2011) stated that ‘behaviour and, thereby, data are socially situated, context-related, context-dependent and context-rich’ (p.219). To understand a phenomenon or situation fully, researchers need to understand the context within which they are working because situations effect perceptions and behavior and vice versa. Thus, following the general introduction of XUAR in the Literature Review Chapter, it is necessary to introduce the university setting here further, since that was the place where the empirical research was be undertaken.

As discussed in Chapter two (Literature review), a lack of skilled multilingual teachers is one of the biggest obstacles facing the promotion of multilingual education in XUAR. A teacher training university (TTU) is the main university for pre- and in-service teacher training in this autonomous region. TTU was initially founded in 1906 which was known as The First Xinjiang Normal school (Xinjiang Diyi Shifan Xuexiao), and it got its present name (TTU) in 1978. It has over 100 years of history, and the main focus for this university has been Teacher Training since 1906. Over the past 30 years, 170,000 teachers have been trained in this university. TTU currently comprises nine schools, which have courses and branches of study ranging from science education, the arts and history, Mandarin, foreign languages etc.. Within those nine schools, the foreign language school in this University is responsible for the training of trilingual teachers, and it is where the field work for this research was conducted.

At the time of the study, there were approximately 500 students enrolled in total in the foreign language school in TTU and among them around 300 were minority students and approximately 200 are Han students. The minority students here refer to the other ethnic group students except Han in XUAR which mainly include Uyghur, Kazak, Mongol and Hui ethnic groups of students. There are 42 teachers in total; the majority of the teachers (n=25) are of Han ethnicity and 40% of them (n=17) are from Uyghur, Miao, Kazak, Mongol and Tartar ethnicities. This study planned to target 200 students and 60 teachers (30 teachers in the Foreign Language College and 30 teachers in another two colleges which are related). However, based on the voluntary participation, 191 students (87 Han Students and 104 Minority Students) and 55 teachers (28 teachers in the Foreign Language College and 27 teachers in another 2 colleges which are related) in total were involved in this research. All participants were currently studying and working in TTU in XUAR. The students included in
this study ranged from freshman to senior including Han students and ethnic minority students.

Gender was not represented equally in this sample. This was due to the fact that there were only 41 male students in existence among approximately 500 students in total. Gender was, however, still used as one of the variables in this study with the possibility that its inclusion would nevertheless result in data that may have implications for future research. Sampling was based on voluntary participation with the volunteers recruited from within the college. Fitting the purpose of this research, variables cannot be totally ignored. According to Cohen (2011), ‘purposive sampling enables the full scope of issues to be explored’ (p.220); in that sense, variables such as nationality, grade, and gender were also considered during the selection of the sample. Although the minority students in this college may have different levels of Mandarin proficiency (L2), theoretically, most of these minority students should have achieved certain level of Mandarin Chinese proficiency after Yuke period. Yuke period is a one year pre-sessional courses which are only for Mandarin language training for minority students. The minority students have to pass the Mandarin Chinese proficiency exams after the first year of Mandarin study in the Yuke period so that they can move to second period study which is their major study-in this case- training to be trilingual teachers. Regarding their English proficiency (L3), approximately less than half of the minority students in this college possess a limited English proficiency before they enter this university (TTU). In this school, Han students were also trained to be language teachers in minority regions, especially in XUAR. Therefore, they were included in this research as well as ethnic minority students. With regard to Han students’ languages’ proficiency, none of them have previously learned a minority language during either their primary or secondary schooling. However, most of them have learned English as a school subject from around 9 years old when they were in Year 3 in their primary schools.

3.4.3 Procedures

3.4.3.1 The first pilot study
Researchers do not know what they will find out or see before they enter the field (Cohen, et al., 2011). With limited literature in the field of trilingual teacher training, open-ended interviews were piloted with the three main groups of stakeholders: policy makers, teachers (trainers) in this institute and the students (trainees) which elicited their perceptions, their views of the nature of trilingual teacher training, and information about what they consider to be the essential concerns and aspects in the trilingual teacher training programme. One policy maker, two teachers (trainers) and four students (trainees including three minority students and a Han student) were involved in this pilot study. As the data were from the interviews and the context of concrete events, the themes and statements that emerged would be more
likely to be grounded in actual perceptions and behaviours (Woods, 1996). Indeed, the information obtained from these interviews resulted in a number of explicit themes, statements and implicit presuppositions and assumptions. An attempt was made to distinguish the themes and the categories that emerged from the data as opposed to using an a priori set of themes and categories related to experience or the limited theoretical approaches to trilingual language teacher training as a basis for investigation.

Emergent issues were generally focused on minority students’ Mandarin Chinese proficiency, school curriculum, textbooks and teachers’ teaching methods. The most significant problem facing the minority students was that although they took a one year pre-sessional courses for learning Mandarin Chinese only, the outcome was not satisfactory, as seen either by teachers or students. Two out of three minority students who were involved in the pilot interviews felt that they struggled in using Mandarin Chinese as the only language of instruction for school subject learning. And they stated that they were not alone; more than half of their classmates had similar experience to them, and they had to take private Mandarin Chinese training classes outside the university. The expressed concern by the minority students is that the difficulty of communicating in Mandarin Chinese may prevent them from expressing their ideas and thinking during the survey. This point was valuable for the researcher and would be taken into account in the main survey. More importantly, the pilot interviews helped to identify the essential themes to be investigated further and provide the basis for the design of the following questionnaire.

3.4.3.2 Questionnaire
After the first pilot study, the questionnaires were designed according to the themes that emerged from the pilot interviews among policy makers, teachers and students. Three types of questionnaires were designed: (i) a questionnaire for teachers, (ii) a questionnaire for minority students, and (iii) a questionnaire for Han students. These were separated into three different questionnaires due to known differences towards language learning experiences (minority language, Mandarin and English) in the past and present. The survey was conducted among 60 teachers (30 teachers in the Foreign Language school and 30 teachers in another two colleges which are related - one is Zhongguo Yuyan school which is in charge of students pre-sessional Mandarin courses, and the other is Xueqian Jiaoyu school which focuses on pre-school education) and 191 students with 87 being Han Students and 104 Minority Students.

The questionnaires (see Appendix 6, Appendix 7, Appendix 8) consisted of five parts: (1) the participants’ basic demographic information, (2) the participants’ language learning experience with three languages (Minority language, Mandarin and English) and their views
towards the school they were currently attending, (3) the statements related to their current language learning, (4) their views towards language education and trilingual teacher training, and (5) four open-ended questions including their perceptions towards *Yuke* which is a one-year pre-courses on learning Mandarin for minority students, the importance of minority language, Mandarin and English in their opinions, and suggestions as to how to help them to be qualified or good trilingual teachers. For the student participants, their ethnicities, age, grade, gender, their hometown, proficiency in their three languages (L1 as their mother tongue; for L2, Mandarin Chinese for minority students and anyone of the minority language for Han students; L3 as English), and the length of learning each language were included in the basic demographic information section. For the teachers, their ethnicities, age group (25 or below; 25-30; 31-40; 41-50; 51 or above), their hometown, trilingual training/credentials they have obtained, number of years of teaching experience, self-rating of proficiency in three languages (L1 as their mother tongue; for L2, Mandarin Chinese for minority trilingual teachers and anyone of the minority language for Han trilingual teachers; L3 as English) were included in the first part of the questionnaire.

For the second and third part of the questionnaire, dyadic ‘Yes/ No’ type questions were designed according to the themes and issues that emerged from the previous pilot interviews. These questions were also developed on the basis of the principles of trilingual teacher training theory and covered two main aspects which were participants’ current language learning and their views towards language education and trilingual teacher training. For the fourth part of the main research, the questions adopted the 5-point Likert-like rating scale. For each statement, participants were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with the statements. All the questions in this part were written in both positive and negative forms and the answers ranged from 1 to 5: 1 = ‘completely disagree’, 2 = ‘disagree’, 3 = ‘not sure’, 4 = ‘agree’, 5 = ‘completely agree’ for the study. For the purpose of clarity, the direction of the number in relation to the possibility of the question/statement is provided under any figure presented in Chapter 4. Garrett, Coupland and Williams (2003) pointed out that supplementing quantitative scales-data together with adopting open-ended questions in the questionnaires are valuable in facilitating participants to elaborate on their judgements. Thus, the questionnaires included an additional four open-ended questions that explore attitude towards three languages and their views or suggestions about this trilingual teacher training programme. Simultaneously, it was hoped that this would enable participants to further clarify their responses and provide further depth to the given questions and any unanticipated but interesting points that would not otherwise be captured.

Some of the participants in the piloting interviews stated that they would like to take part in this survey, but that they would have difficulties if the questionnaire was only presented in
Mandarin. Thus, in order to obtain more valuable and valid data, the questionnaires and the answering sheets for minority students were presented into two versions, one was in Mandarin and the other was in Uyghur which is the mother tongue of the majority of ethnic minority students. In order to make the version of minority language questionnaires more user-friendly for minority students, the layout of the questionnaire was reformatted from right to left, consistent with their language’s culture and custom. They could choose the version they preferred or were comfortable with. In that case, it would hopefully serve to stimulate the minority students to be more willing to participate and express their ‘real’ or dominant opinions and ideas in this research. Each of the questionnaires was numbered according to their schools and different grades they are currently in in order to assist the following data analysis.

3.4.3.3 The second pilot study for the questionnaire

The questionnaires presented above were made more relevant to the purpose of the investigation with a pilot study. The pilot test in this study was undertaken with eight students including four minority students and four Han students and four teachers (two Minority Teachers and two Han Teachers) in two of the schools in TTU. As the processes of research is as important as the outcomes (Cohen, et al., 2011), the purpose of conducting a pilot study was to ‘try out the research approach to identify potential problems that may affect the quality and validity of the results’ (Blessing and Chakrabarti, 2009, p.114). Since Bell (1999) stated that the pilot study would ideally be ‘tried out on a group similar to the one that will form the population of your study’ (p.128), the samples for this pilot study and the chosen setting were selected and treated in the same manner as that of the main research study. That way, the results and participants’ reactions would indicate that the questionnaires would be workable or not for the major study.

If any problems appeared during this pilot study, the answering sheet and questionnaire would be revised in order to facilitate the task for the participants in the main study and avoid any misunderstanding of the statements. One minor problem did appear during this pilot study, which was related to an error in the translation from Mandarin to Uygur. Subsequently, the answering sheet and questionnaire were corrected in the main research. Despite this minor translation mistake, the participants felt interested and engaged in this pilot study, and the layout and instructions of the questionnaires proved generally clear. Those minority students who took the pilot survey were delighted to see the version of questionnaire in the minority language and formatted from right to left, consistent with their culture and custom. As one of the participants expressed:

“I am so surprised and glad that I can choose the version of questionnaire, either Mandarin or Minority language. I have completed so many kinds of questionnaires in
the past two years in the University, but it is the very first time I could see a Minority language questionnaire version and were told that I could answer in Minority language if I wish. I feel my language was respected and it is an investigation that really wants to explore the truth, and I am willing to tell what I perceived/thought”.

The quote clearly indicates that what we would often take as the objective truth in survey studies is socially constructed. Which language we use and how a study is conducted could affect the research outcome fundamentally. For this particularly student, his/her answers to the questions could be vastly different if the questionnaire were entirely in Mandarin Chinese.

According to the feedback obtained from the pilot study, the revised questionnaires were adopted in the major study. The results of this pilot study to some extent ensured the comprehensibility and clarity of all the presented questions (Blessing and Chakrabarti, 2009).

The adjustment of the questionnaires for students, along with the useful reflections, such as different questionnaires designs for minority students and Han students, questionnaires for minority students formatted from right to left to be consistent with their culture and custom highlight some of the key ethical questions that face researchers conducting fieldwork, especially with regard to the relationship between the researcher and those being researched. To some extent, it helped the researcher make the questionnaire more user friendly, and shortened the distance between the researcher and participants. One of the participants stated:

“I found it is a well-prepared survey, I can feel it is different from the other survey we have done before which are only in formality, but this survey, I will respond frankly and seriously, cause I can see you are really care about us, and want to help us!”

Thus, it can be concluded that the fieldwork is a dialogical and dynamic process which is shaped and structured by the researcher and the participants. During this process, the researcher’s understanding and respect of their participants seems essential, and can impact directly on the data collected and affect the fieldwork outcomes.

3.4.3.4 The main survey research

The questionnaires were presented to the students by both the researcher and another trilingual teacher who worked in the college. This trilingual teacher was from an ethnic minority and could explain and answer any inquires in Mandarin or in the minority language, or both. Both students and teachers were informed that this survey was completely anonymous and voluntary and that they had the freedom to withdraw consent (see Appendix 1) at any time with no negative actions as a consequence. Furthermore, they were also informed that all the data would be kept confidential and that their anonymity would be
guaranteed throughout the research. Therefore, it was hoped that this would facilitate frankness and honestly in their judgments and expressions.

An information sheet (see Appendix 2) briefly describing the purpose of the study and an explanation of the importance of the research accompanied the survey questionnaire on distribution. The researcher introduced this survey and answered enquires to make sure everything had been understood before commencing with the task without indicating the intention or so called ‘correct answers’. The minority teacher facilitated by explaining and answering some of enquires in both Mandarin and in the minority language when the minority students had experienced difficulties in asking questions in Mandarin and wanted further explanations in the minority language.

The participants participated in the questionnaire survey in their classrooms after lessons. After ensuring that all participants were no doubts and happy to proceed, the survey began. At that point, the TTU teacher was allowed to leave since there was no further need to take up more of her time if there were no further enquiries from the participants. Her absence also eliminated any potential pressure on the participants to ‘perform’ in her presence. It would be helpful for the participants in the sense that there was no pressure from the teacher, who was currently working and teaching in the school, and to some extent, ease the participants’ uncomfortable feelings, such as anxiety, tension or worries about any bad influences that may occur. It helped the students answering the questionnaire in a more natural and comfortable environment.

In the previous pilot interviews, the students had already expressed their difficulties in answering the questionnaires in Mandarin, and this difficulty influenced their feeling expression during the survey. If so, it would not only undermine the value and validity of the research, but also potentially reduce the minority students’ enthusiasm for learning Mandarin Chinese. In order to facilitate the students to express what they wanted to say without difficulties caused by language competence issues, they were informed that if they had difficulty in expressing their opinions in Mandarin, they could do the survey in the language which they were more familiar with. The questionnaire surveys among the teachers were conducted in the places where they were comfortable with, either in their office or meeting room. The data which were obtained in another language would be translated by two translators, made up of bilingual (Mandarin and Uyghur) or trilingual language (plus another minority language, such as Kazakh) teachers in another University in XUAR. The translated data were then back-translated into Mandarin Chinese by another two translators for accuracy.
checks. In order to avoid any bias and the ease of misunderstanding phrases, the processes of translation and back-translation were conducted independently. Although there were not much of these types of data existed after data collection, it was carried out aimed for maintaining literal loyalty to the original collected data. The final versions of the transcripts were actually quite similar.

### 3.4.3.5 Interviews

The interviews (see Appendix 9 and Appendix 10) were conducted with improved questions and issues that need to be explored further after the two pilot studies and questionnaire survey discussed above. They were carried out by the researcher with six students (four minority students and two Han students), five teachers (three minority teachers and two Han teachers) and one policy maker in this project. These follow-up interviews provided the participants with the opportunity to express their own perceptions towards trilingual teacher training and teaching with greater freedom. Meanwhile, it helped the researcher collect fine-grained data which would facilitate more powerful interpretations of the quantitative results. Of these interviews, the same variables, such as ethnicity, age, gender and level of L2 were considered during the selection of the participants.

Following Cohen’s (2011) proposal that ‘social research should be conducted in natural, uncontrived, real-world settings with as little intrusiveness as possible by the researcher’ (p.220), the interviews were carried out in a natural way, either after lectures in the empty classroom or in a Cafe, according to the participants’ willingness and desires. They were asked to choose the venue they preferred and felt most comfortable with. All the participants who were ethnic minorities were asked if they would like to conduct the interviews in another language, such as their mother tongue. If that was the case, another interpreter could be present together with us to do the translation during our conversation. However, none of them stated it was necessary, although they did experience difficulty in expressing themselves in Mandarin on a few occasions, where they switched into English and used body language to make themselves understood. The interviews began by introducing the purpose of the research and then inviting them to talk frankly about the themes or topics that emerged from the previous pilot interviews and questionnaires. The researcher’s role during the interviews was limited to asking for further clarification and elaborations in order to pursue the new themes identified by the participants.

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1 As a lone researcher in this doctorate research, I contacted four of my friends who were bilingual/trilingual lecturers to help with data translation, I would like to acknowledge their participation and express my special thanks to them for their generous help!
For all the interviews, a friendly and relaxing atmosphere was created and an effort was made in order to make the participants feel no pressure and ensure they were willing to share their opinions or stories. As a researcher, I did feel I was treated as a visitor or someone from the outside at the beginning of the interview. However, in the multiple roles as a researcher, a research student, a former lecturer, a friend, a colleague, the first person either single or plural form was using in order to make the participants feel that we were both trying to improve the programme and make the relationship between the researcher and participant closer. Then the position was foregrounded not as a researcher, but as a listener and a co-constructor of knowledge. In the following interviewing time, the interviews with the participants were more like conversations between two friends, two colleagues or people who were targeting the same direction that was helping each other and making the trilingual teacher training programme more effective. It could be found that the interviewees felt much more relaxed and less tensioned than at the beginning of the interviews. This was done in order to establish the trust between the researcher and participants so as to elicit the participants’ willingness to express their true idea during the interviews. Three of the interviewees mentioned that they felt comfortable to have conversations with me, and were, as a consequence, more willing to speak about what they knew and what they thought in a more frank and direct way during the interviews.

All the interviews were recorded with the permission obtained from the interviewees in order to facilitate the data analysis afterwards. A copy of the interview transcripts was provided to each participant to check if there were any misunderstanding and whether they wanted to make any changes. The transcripts were exactly replications of the recording. Most of them expressed that they were not interested in reading the transcripts, as long as it was the word by word transcript of the recording. After gaining their permission to proceed, each participant’s set of transcripts were analyzed carefully to identify pertinent themes.

### 3.4.3.6 Observations

Observation (see Appendix 11 and Appendix 12) as a research approach involves not only just looking but ‘looking with a purpose’ (Palys and Atchison, 2008); this was conducted during the field working of the current research. These included visiting the university, classrooms, dining hall and restaurants around the university. The public places mentioned were the places where the students from all eleven colleges in TTU spent most of their leisure time, socializing with their friends on and around the campus; there were approximately 8,000 students in total from all colleges in TTU. Information and detailed data seemed difficult to be collected from these limited, busy and noisy public places on campus. The observations of four classes which were taught by two minority teachers and two Han were also carried out in order to gain a richer set of data. These four lectures were recorded with
the permission from both the lecturers and the students. During this process, the designed observation sheets were completed and field notes were taken down. After each day’s visit, memo were kept recording the interesting, unexpected or important occasions that happened during the day in order to provide myself, as a researcher, a friend, a former colleague, the opportunity to reflect and re-evaluate the field work to identify if anything needed to adjustment for the next day, and made sure everything was on the right track. These were done in order to enhance accuracy with the data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews, and improve the validity and reliability of this research.

3.5 Data analysis procedures

The data collected from the questionnaires and interviews, along with the observations conducted for this research were analyzed according to the following steps. Before the analysis was processed, the transcript for the interviews (see transcription sample as Appendix 13 and Appendix 14) were double checked for accuracy and fidelity to the original data and recording. Then the analysis identified themes and topics that emerged from the exploratory interviews and questionnaires with responses by the participants including students, teachers and policy makers as the main issues. Theme maps were developed from the main issues and high frequency occurring words and phrases were identified during this procedure. Then these main concepts and themes were viewed in the following in-depth interview data. Therefore quotations which could represent the majority views from interviews were marked in data analysis. Detailed analysis were carried out on textbooks, policy documents and curriculum collected from schools as well as the field notes, recorded sheets from the observations and memos. The quantitative data were mainly analyzed by the software of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 22.0 version. The thematic analysis applied to the qualitative data was facilitated by the use of Nvivo 9 software.

3.6 Ethical issues

Ethical considerations are essential for any research that involves people in the real world and the importance of conducting research ethically cannot be over-stressed in order to make sure that the research participants will not suffer potential harm and stress (Robson, 2011). The researcher must be aware of, and be guided by ethical codes and guidelines throughout the research process (see Appendix 5). The ethical considerations of this study are as follows.

Access and informed consent

In this research, being a previous lecturer in TTU allowed the researcher to obtain access to the university site and make this survey possible to carry out. It also contributed to gain access to the university and college policies and the documents related to language education and English teacher training, for instance, the curriculum and detailed lectures’ timetable.
Official approval (see Appendix 3 and Appendix 4) was also gained by the researcher for the current research. However, the researcher was aware of possible biases of being a former colleague who was conducting the research of being both an insider and outsider. Therefore, it was important to keep positionality and reflexivity in mind, which were discussed in previous sections in this chapter, and they were paid much attention to throughout the survey in order to avoid bias and ensure the validity of data collection.

The TTU and group tutors in this university in XUAR gave their consent to their participation, and agreed to allow students to volunteer to take part in this project. During the data collection procedure, it was important to build up trust between the researcher and the participating teachers and students. On admitting to participate, the participants were informed about the purpose of the research, the type of tasks expected of them in the project, their role within the project and how the collected data would be used.

Confidentiality and data management
All participants in the research project participated voluntarily and gave their permission to participate in this research. They were also informed that the names of the participating stakeholders including teachers and students were kept confidential; anonymity was guaranteed throughout the project including any dissemination of material. Meanwhile, all participants had the right and freedom to terminate their participation at any time without prejudice or negative consequences. The findings of the study will also be communicated to the participants who expressed their interests, but without providing any participant’s name. Each participant was given a number on their questionnaire in order to facilitate the data analysis without any bias or prejudice to one group or another.

All the questionnaires were kept confidential, and all the data obtained from the research stored in a password-protected computer to which only the researcher had access. The data will be destroyed 6 months after the submission of the thesis. In this way, security is assured.

3.7 Summary
This chapter reviewed the mix methods research design implemented in the current study with a focus on two essential elements of research, namely positionality and reflexivity, that are intrinsically associated with the mixed methods approach. A justification and rationale for the use of mixed methods design in this research as a valid approach to answering the research questions of this study was also presented. Furthermore, a detailed description of the research procedure implemented in the current study was presented, including information relating to the participants and data measures. This was then followed by a brief introduction to the data analysis procedure employed. Finally, ethical issues surrounding the research was
discussed. The intention here was to set the stage for the further discussion of the obtained data in order to better understand and appreciate the data in relation to its environment and context. The detailed data analysis and research findings of this study will be presented in the next chapter.
4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the findings relevant to the research questions using data collected from secondary sources such as official documents as well as primary sources including the questionnaire surveys, semi-structured interviews and observations with students and teachers involved in the English Language Teacher Training programmes at the Teacher Training University (TTU). TTU is the main university for training in-service language teachers and the students who are likely to become language teachers in Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (XUAR). The chapter has three sections: first, I start with demographic characteristics of the participants who took part in this study at the TTU; this is followed by the languages’ proficiency of participants involved in this research; these participants include students and teachers. Most importantly, I present the findings to address the three research questions, which are related to current policies, school practice and key stakeholders’ attitudes and perceptions.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Three key stakeholder groups of the English Teacher Training programmes participated in this research: the students (trainees), the teachers (trainers) and the policy makers. Unlike most other theses which present demographic data in a-matter-of-fact manner, I would give a detailed account of the demographic features of my informants, particularly the students, as these data are very important with regard to the aim of my research. The demographic features of the participants and their language competences including minority language, Mandarin Chinese and English are discussed in the following section.

4.2.1 The students

Out of 472 students (in total) in the foreign language college in TTU, 191 students participated in this research. 54.6% of the participants were ethnic minority students (n=104) that included Uyghur, Kazakh, Mongol, Hui and Dongxiang; the minority students here refer to other ethnic group students (other than Han nationality) in TTU. 87 Han students (45.4% of the participants) also took part in this investigation along with the minority students. The participating students including both Han students and minority students ranged from freshman to senior in this study. All of them were currently registered students in TTU in XUAR.
There are three main differences that need to be highlighted when the participating students are compared by ethnicity:

**Firstly,** Han and minority students differed in age. Although the spread between freshmen and sophomore year students seemed fairly even in the sample at 45.0% and 42.9%, there seemed to be a big difference in the age range. In the biggest portion of the 19-20 group which had 121 participants, the Han students and minority students were scattered in different grades (see Table 4.2.1). Although they are in the same group, 71.74% of the minority students were in Grade 1 (N=33) but the similar portion of Han students (73.68%) of the same age were in Grade 2 (N=42). The result showed similar trends among the Hui nationality students with 81.81% of them in Grade 2. Thus, the data illustrates that the age for most of the Uyghur students entering the course is one year later than Han and Hui nationality students. An explanation for this phenomenon will be offered later.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Han</td>
<td>Uyghur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Secondly,** Han and minority students differed in geographic origin. As shown in the Table below (Table 4.2.2), among the total participants, 74% of the Han students (N=64) were from the Northern area of XUAR. Compared to this, a similar number which is 65% of the minority students (N=68) were from Southern XUAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Southern XUAR</th>
<th>Northern XUAR</th>
<th>City outside XUAR</th>
<th>Rural area outside XUAR</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Han</td>
<td>17% (N=15)</td>
<td>74% (N=65)</td>
<td>2% (N=2)</td>
<td>7% (N=6)</td>
<td>100% (N=87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority group</td>
<td>65% (N=68)</td>
<td>33% (N=34)</td>
<td>1% (N=1)</td>
<td>1% (N=1)</td>
<td>100% (N=104)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44% (N=83)</td>
<td>51% (N=98)</td>
<td>1.6% (N=3)</td>
<td>3.4% (N=6)</td>
<td>100% (N=191)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, according to the collected data, most of the Han students were from cities and towns (67.8%); whereas, more than half of the minority students were from rural areas (58.7%) (see Figure 4.2.1).

**Figure 4.2.1 The hometown of the participants (City, Town or rural area)**

![Bar chart showing the distribution of participants from different hometowns.](chart)

It is necessary to explain why geographic location (Northern or Southern XUAR) is an important variable. As mentioned in Chapter Two (Literature Review), XUAR is one of the autonomous regions where there are resource-rich but economically under-developed areas (Adamson and Feng, 2009); ethnic minority groups are the majority there. Within the areas in XUAR, the speed of development, including economic and educational fields, are varied. Comparing the northern area of XUAR with the southern area, there are great differences in terms of three main aspects: the composition of ethnicities, the economic development and the educational development. In the southern XUAR, 83.02% of the inhabitants are so called the minority, compared to the whole of China; among them, 79.57% are Uyghurs. However, in the northern region of XUAR, 62.34% are of Han ethnicity. Of the minorities, 38.81% are Uyghur, Kazak, Hui, Mongolian, Kirgiz, and others. Of these, Uyghurs only takes up 12.70% of the population (Liu, et al., 2014). In southern XUAR, 59.65% of the residents are involved with agricultural, sectors. In northern XUAR, half of the population are involved in the jobs in agricultural sectors (50.21%), and the other half are in the jobs in industrial and service areas (16.86%; 32.93%) (Liu, et al., 2014). With regard to the educational aspect, the percentage of the southern XUAR residents who have been attending schools since they were six years old is 96.62%, and 97.08% in the northern XUAR, according to the 2010’s census. However, 5.90% of the people in the northern region of XUAR received higher education, including Bachelor and Master Degrees comparing with 1.74% of the population in the
southern area. The percentage of those who attend higher education in southern XUAR is lower than the average level for the Region (Liu, et al., 2014).

In terms of distribution of cities and countryside, a significant feature is that of ‘Southern countryside, Northern cities’; the percentage of city residents takes up 60.36% in the north XUAR and 25.45% in the southern region according to the 2010 census (Liu, et al., 2014, p.38). Although the central government has been making an effort to shorten the developmental distance between the areas in XUAR through a series of policies and measures (see section 4.3.2 in the following), especially in the form of financial investment in the southern area of XUAR in order to hopefully promote regional and national stability and unity, it seems that this gap will remain in the near future.

**Thirdly,** Han and minority students differ in parents’ occupation. The occupations of the participants’ parents ranged from farmers to civil servant, businessman, etc. (see Table 4.2.3). It should be acknowledged that the data presented below were from participants’ choices for a parent’s occupation, not to the both, or it might potentially cause pressure on some participants, such as single-parent participant. Among the occupations shown in the table, farmers represented the highest number, especially for the minority students: out of 104 ethnic minority participants, 68 of them had parents who were tenant farmers (65.38%). The percentage of minority students’ parents working as tenant farmers is relatively higher than the corresponding category belonging to the Han students (44.18%). It also reflects the regional differences between the southern part of XUAR and northern XUAR, as discussed above.

**Table 4.2.3 Occupations of the participants’ parents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Civil servant</th>
<th>Working staff in a company</th>
<th>Businessman</th>
<th>Worker</th>
<th>Peasants</th>
<th>No jobs</th>
<th>Housewife</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Han</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The language proficiency of the participating students**
The participating students’ language proficiency with regard to Mandarin Chinese, Minority language and English were different, as following.
Mandarin Chinese is the mother tongue of the Han students; all of them can speak and use it fluently. They have been using and been educated through Mandarin Chinese since birth. However, among the 104 minority students who participated in this research, 20 of the minority students were Min Kao Han, that is, they had been educated alongside Han students from Kindergarten onwards and had followed the educational system exactly the same as the Han students. Some of them even claimed Mandarin Chinese as their first language. For the remainder of the minority students, Mandarin Chinese was their second language. However, 95.2% of them had already learned Mandarin Chinese at different stages during the education process, such as from primary school, junior or senior middle school, either as a medium of instruction (Min kao Han) or as a subject (Min kao Min)\(^2\). 51.9% of the minority students had contact with Mandarin Chinese when they were in primary school, either from school, parents or surrounding friends. An interesting point that emerged from the data is that the number of students who had learned Mandarin for only one year (20.3%) or less was similar to those who had learned it for over six years (38.1%). Among the 104 minority student participants, 50 of them could use Mandarin Chinese without great difficulties; however, 54 of them stated they had only limited or no knowledge at all of Mandarin Chinese (see Figure 4.2.2). It can be seen that the development of Mandarin Chinese is not even among minority students; they have different ages of onset of Mandarin Chinese learning and there is a large difference in Mandarin Chinese proficiency among minority students.

Figure 4.2.2 Mandarin Chinese proficiency of the participating students

\[\text{Figure 4.2.2 Mandarin Chinese proficiency of the participating students} \]

\[\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
& \text{Fluent} & \text{OK} & \text{Limited} & \text{No knowledge at all} \\
\hline
\text{Han students} & 86 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\text{Minority students} & 22 & 28 & 54 & 0 \\
\hline
\end{array}\]

---

\(^2\) Min kao Han student refers to the minority students who followed the Han student curriculum and learned together with them, adopting Mandarin Chinese as the medium of instruction to learn school subjects; Min kao Min students refer to those who used minority language as a medium of instruction for all the subjects, and who learned Mandarin Chinese as a school subject.
For Minority language, 94.25% of the Han students had never learned any minority language (N=82) before they entered the university. Only five students had learned a little bit from their parents or friends. For minority students, it is their mother tongue; however, 85 of the minority students stated they could use it fluently, and 15.38% of the students (N=16) confided that they had limited or no knowledge at all of their minority language (see Figure 4.2.3). Thus, these patterns indicate that some of the minority students may have given up their mother tongue to take up Mandarin Chinese as their main language for daily life and studies.

**Figure 4.2.3 Minority language proficiency of the participating students**

![Minority Language Proficiency Graph](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fluent</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Limited</th>
<th>No knowledge at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Han students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority students</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**English** was the second language (L2) for Han students and the third language (L3) for minority students in TTU in XUAR. According to the data, all of the Han students had learned English (100%), and 95.40% of them had already learned it for over six years before they entered the university (N=83). Compared to the Han students, the minority students were in a different situation. English as a subject in schools for the minority students was offered according to the resources available, which meant that English was only available in some well-resourced elite schools for minority nationalities in the cities in XUAR. Nearly 70% of them had never learned English at all before they entered the university, and even among the other 34 minority students who stated they had learned it before, 20 of them followed the Han student curriculum, that is, “Min kao Han” students. Thus, only 13.46% of the minority students who were educated through the minority language (Min kao Min students) had ever learned some English before they joined this English language teacher training programme (see Table 4.2.4). 75.96% of the minority students rated themselves as having limited or no knowledge at all of English (N=79). However, 77.01% of the Han students demonstrated
some confidence in English competence and self-rated their proficiency of English language in a as ‘Hai ke yi’ (‘ok’/ good command in English) or fluent (see Figure 4.2.4).

Table 4.2.4 Have Han and Minority students learned English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Han students</td>
<td>100% (N=87)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100% (N=87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority students</td>
<td>32.7% (N=34)</td>
<td>67.3% (N=70)</td>
<td>100% (N=104)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>63.4% (N=121)</td>
<td>36.6% (n=70)</td>
<td>100% (N=191)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2.4 English language proficiency of the participating students

4.2.2 The Teachers

There are 42 teachers in total in the College of Foreign Language in TTU; 25 of them are of Han ethnicity (59%) and 17 of these teachers (41%) are from other ethnicities including Uyghur, Miao, Kazak, Mongol and Tatar. This study involved 55 teachers; 28 teachers were from the Foreign Language College and the other 27 teachers were from the College of Chinese and the College of Pre-school Education which are related (see section 3.4.2 in the Methodology chapter for an explanation) Thirty-nine of them were teachers of Han ethnicity (70.9%). The other 29.1% of the teachers (N=16) were of Uyghur, Kazak, Hui and Miao ethnicity. 25% of the teachers were aged under 30. The teachers who were between 31 and 40 occupied the biggest portion, which was 50.0%. More than half of the teacher participants were lecturers (N=28) and the percentage of the associate professors who took part in this study was 27.3% (N=15) (see Table 4.2.5). 69.1% of the teachers held a Masters or PhD and 67.3% of them had been teaching on their subject, such as English or Mandarin Chinese, for over 6 years. All of them were employed full time currently in TTU.
Table 4.2.5 The ethnicity and professional titles of the teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Teaching assistant</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
<th>Associate professor</th>
<th>Total number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Han</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>70.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uyghur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hui</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakh</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miao</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 (21.8%)</td>
<td>28 (50.9%)</td>
<td>15 (27.3%)</td>
<td>55 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the language proficiency of the teachers in the three languages, 100% of the teachers could use Mandarin Chinese without difficulties. However, in terms of minority language, although 29.1% of teacher participants were of minority ethnicity, the result showed that only 10.9% of them could speak the minority language fluently, and 74.5% of the total stated that they had limited or no knowledge at all of a minority language (N=41). For English, the situation was quite different to that of the minority language. 83.6% of the teachers responded that their level of English proficiency was fluent or ok (N=46), although nearly half of the teachers were not English language teachers (49.1%). 16.4% of them rated themselves as having limited knowledge of English (N=9). No one stated that they had no knowledge at all of English in this self-rating survey (see Figure 4.2.5).

Figure 4.2.5 Language proficiency of the participating teachers
4.2.3 Policy/ decision makers

There were two policy makers and two college decision makers involved in this research. One was the president of the university who was in charge of the university teaching and teacher training aspect. Another was working in the regional Department for Education. There were also two institutional level decision makers in the Foreign Language College, who were responsible for English language teacher training in XUAR involved in this project. They were the Dean of the Foreign Language College and the curriculum designer in this college. Among them, three were Han ethnicity, and one was Uyghur. All of them could speak Mandarin Chinese fluently, and had learned English during their school and university education. Two of them could speak English fluently, and another two could read and write in English, but speak only a little. Among the three policy makers who were of Han ethnicity, only the curriculum designer had limited speaking skills in Uyghur; the other two had no knowledge at all about minority language.

Thus, it can be seen that issues, such as the educational differences between the southern and the northern area of XUAR, the language proficiency of the participants in terms of minority language, Mandarin Chinese and English and so on, made trilingual teacher training rather difficult and rendered the present model inadequate.

4.3 Findings Concerning Policies

As stated in the review chapter, in China where a top-down approach is perhaps the norm in its system in general, a thorough analysis of the policies concerning language use and education is of utmost important. This section reports the data collected in relation to the first research question set out for this research, that is, to what extent do current policies support effective English language teacher training programme for minority dominated regions in Xinjiang?

The current policies related to languages, language education, teacher training - especially English language teacher training – were explored via the analysis of documents issued at the (i) national level, (ii) regional level and (iii) university level. This also supplemented further by interviews with policy makers at regional and university levels.

4.3.1 National policies

Policies related to language aspect

Regional ethnic autonomy is applicable in areas where minority nationalities are concentrated (the Law of PRC’s Regional Ethnic Autonomy, 1984, modified in 2001; REAL hereafter) and it is the basic policy and a basic political system of the State for addressing issues
concerning ethnic minority groups in China and the articles related to language aspect are still applied until today (Preface, REAL, 2001). Under unified State leadership, the government in autonomous regions is mandated with the authority to implement distinct policies and adaptable measures in light of local conditions in order to protect the traditions of the various ethnic groups and work for the vigorous development of their cultures (Article 119, the Constitution, 2004; Article 6, REAL, 2001).

In the Constitution (Article 19, 2004) and Law of the People’s Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language (SSWCLL, 2000, Article 2), the normalization and standardization of Putonghua (Mandarin Chinese) as the official language guaranteed constitutionally, has been promoted throughout the country. It mandates Mandarin Chinese as the basic and main language in various public domains, such as for services industry, broadcasting, films, TV programmes and for facilities in public places and on signboards (Article 12, 13 and 14, SSWCLL, 2000). The purpose, it is claimed, is to promote both economic and cultural exchange amongst all the ethnicities and regions so that it would contribute to national unity and stability. Staff who use Putonghua as their working language need to reach the respective Mandarin Chinese level set by the State, in such occupations as teachers broadcasters, civil servants and programme hosts and hostesses, etc.; those who have not yet achieved the necessary standards shall attend different training (Article 19, SSWCLL, 2000). In education and teaching in schools, Mandarin Chinese and the standardized Chinese characters are to be used as the required language, unless there are exceptions stated in the law (Article 10, SSWCLL, 2000).

It should be noted at this point that, although as stated in the Constitution that “all nationalities have the freedom to use and develop their own spoken and written languages” (Article 4, 2004), the learning and use of Mandarin Chinese is stated as essential or a must for minority people in an autonomous region in REAL and SSWCLL. It is the language with which to gain knowledge and information from the region and connect with others within the country. It is encouraged in law that people of different ethnic groups should learn each other’s spoken and written languages (Article 49, REAL, 2001); however, the local governments at various levels are encouraged or required to take measures to popularize Mandarin Chinese and the standardized Chinese characters (Article 4, SSWCLL, 2000). Thus, the promotion of Putonghua is one of the main tasks facing the local government and the achievement of this task has been added into the assessments of local government.

Policies related to language education
According to the Constitution (2004) and REAL (2001) discussed previously, the organs of self-government in autonomous areas have autonomous power to administer the internal
affairs in the region. In agreement with the guiding principles of the State on education, the organs of self-government in autonomous regions are said to be able to make plans, curricula, forms of schooling, the language used for instruction, teaching content and enrolment procedures independently for the development of education in local areas (Article 36, REAL, 2001). It is stated in REAL that schools (classes and grades) and other educational establishments where the majority of the students originate from minority nationalities can, whenever possible, use textbooks in their own native language as well as adopting their native language as a medium of instruction (Article 37, REAL, 2001). However, lessons for the teaching of Putonghua should be available in primary schools in order to popularize Putonghua (Article 37, REAL, 2001). A potential tension has arisen as the state claims to take into account the desire of minority groups to preserve their minority languages and culture. Meanwhile, the state also consistently promotes Mandarin Chinese as a lingua franca for national cohesion. A minority language is allowed to be used during school teaching according to the law (Article 37, REAL, 2001); however, school curricula throughout the PRC now require students including ethnic minorities, from Primary school even kindergarten to university, not only to learn Mandarin Chinese, but to use it as the medium of instruction to teach school subjects (Feng and Adamson, 2011).

With the rapid development of China’s economy and the global economic influence on China, the demand for acquiring English which is regarded as an international language has “grown to an all-time high” (Sunuodula and Cao, 2015, p.66). In order to develop English education and to meet the needs, three documents were promulgated and issued by the Ministry of Education for students’ English language learning in primary schools, secondary schools and universities (Sunnuodula and Cao, 2015). For primary school students, since 2002, English language lessons have been offered from Grade 3 (Ministry of Education of P.R.C., 2001). For those who are in secondary schools, specific English standards are established for the students who would finish their secondary schooling (Ministry of Edcuation of P.R.C., 2002). At university level, it is required that the percentage of undergraduate courses that should be conducted in English is five to ten percent (Ministry of Education of P.R.C., 2001). This has resulted in the need for minority students to acquire a third language.

Policies related to teacher training
The government both at national and regional levels gives financial support to language education. Meanwhile, large numbers of cohorts at various levels and specialized professionals from among the nationalities in those areas are trained with the help of the State for the autonomous regions (Article 122, CL). Since 2008, the national training project for primary and junior middle school teachers, which was established by the Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China, has been carried out for schools in the western part of China and
schools in rural areas. The State investment for this project was 35 million RMB and is free of charge for the trainees (“School teachers’ National training programme”, 2008, issued by Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China). It is for regions such as XUAR and Tibet; however, of 26 subjects are listed including English, Chinese, Maths, Politics, Chemistry, etc., no minority languages are included.

Some preferential policies have been made to apply to the autonomous regions. When recruiting working staff, favourable considerations should be given to minority nationalities in the autonomous area (Article 22 and 23, REAL, 2001). Preferred enrolment and preferred assignment of jobs are also be introduced in these areas. The State encourages teachers and graduates of all nationalities who are qualified to be engaged in educational and teaching activities in autonomous regions. Appropriate preferential treatment, such as financial support, will be offered to those who are willing to teach in these regions (Article 71, REAL, 2001). This is done in order to help with the dynamic development of autonomous region whilst managing to address the regional difficulties during its development, such as a shortage of the multilingual teachers in XUAR, Tibet, etc..

From the policies above, it can be seen that the minority language is encouraged to be used as the medium of instruction and the use of textbooks in their own native language is also encouraged by policies (Article 37, REAL, 2001). Meanwhile, Mandarin Chinese as the national official language is to be strongly promoted. The organs of self-government in autonomous areas have autonomous power to be able to make plans, set curricula, forms of schooling, and the language used for instruction independently for the development of education in local areas (Article 36, REAL, 2001). Then, the challenging task facing the regional government and the educational institutions that needs to be addressed properly is to find ways to balance and deal with the relationship between minority language and Mandarin Chinese in the curricula and in other educational settings.

4.3.2 Regional policies in XUAR

Regional policies on language use and education

Based on the Constitution and RNAL, the regional government of Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (XUAR) firstly promulgated Language regulations for Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (LRXJ) in 1993, which was amended in 2002 after the nationwide implementation of SSWCLL (2001). It states that the organs of self-government in XUAR will ensure the preservation of each nationality’s folkways and customs, by guaranteeing the freedom of the various nationalities in implementing and developing their own minority spoken and written languages (Article 2, LRXJ, 2002). There are two official languages in XUAR: Uyghur and Mandarin Chinese. These two languages shall be used together while
performing its functions by the organs of self-government of XUAR; while using more than one languages to perform the function, the language of the majority ethnic group in that area can be used as the main language (Article 7, LRXJ, 2002).

It is stated in LRXJ (2002) that Uyghur and Mandarin Chinese should be used together in formal domains including legal and administrative department, publications, government offices and service etc. All official documents, stamps, certificates and envelopes with the title of the enterprises should use both normalized and standardized minority language and Mandarin Chinese, and this includes signboards, advertisements and slogans in public places and facilities (Article 8 and 9, LRXJ, 2002). Exams for new staff recruitment or promotion should be required to use both the minority language and Mandarin Chinese or one of them. Examinees could choose one of the languages or both to take the exams according to their preferences (Article 11, LRXJ, 2002). It should be encouraged that cohorts of Han nationality people including students and working staffs should learn the local minority nationalities in both its spoken and written form. At the same time, groups of minority nationalities should learn and use the spoken and written languages of their own nationalities while learning Mandarin Chinese and the standard written Chinese language (Article 17, LRXJ, 2002; Article 49, RNAL, 2001).

In LRXJ, the primary and junior middle schools where a minority language is the medium of instruction should strengthen their minority language while Mandarin Chinese should be offered as a subject from Grade three in primary schools; a Mandarin Chinese module could be introduced earlier where appropriate (Article 18). The goal is to cultivate the ethnic minority students to be bilinguals in their minority language and Mandarin Chinese when they graduate from their senior middle schools. For colleges and universities, bilingual education (minority language and Mandarin Chinese) should be further strengthened with the aim of developing excellent bilinguals (Article 18, LRXJ, 2002). However, no explicit measures to implement the policy are offered in the document. As Schluessel (2007) argues, the details for implementation of the policy might be negotiable on the local regional basis, but how far they can be negotiated is unclear. In the ethnic minority concentrated area, Mandarin Chinese medium schools may offer the minority language course. Schools are encouraged to provide the ethnic minority students with the freedom to choose Mandarin Chinese medium schools or minority language schools, and Han students are allowed to choose to attend minority language medium schools as long as they wish to (Article 19 and 20, LRXJ, 2002). The autonomy offers scope for the adjustment of national policy goals at the regional level (Adamson and Feng, 2009), however, it is clear that increasing pressure to learn Mandarin Chinese comes from all aspects of life, including education, economy, society and daily life. Although there is the option for students to choose either Mandarin Chinese
medium schools or minority language medium schools, Mandarin Chinese learning is prioritized for them when they choose schools.

**Regional policies for bilingual and multilingual education**

The education system of XUAR was divided into two principle parallel subsystems. Bilingual education has different meanings for minority students and Han students: for minority students, it means following the school subjects through their mother tongue (minority language) and Mandarin Chinese, while for Han students, it refers to Mandarin Chinese and English (Sunuodula and Cao, 2015). However, when discussing “bilingual education” in XUAR, it always refers to the bilingual education for the ethnic minority students; which means using the medium of Mandarin Chinese language (L2) as well as minority languages (L1) to teach the school subjects.

With the promotion of Mandarin Chinese both nationally and regionally (in SSWCLL and LRXJ), bilingual education has been practiced since the 1950s and plays a very important role in education in XUAR. It has been promoted vigorously since 2004 with the document named “Decision on vigorous promotion of ‘bilingual’ teaching and education” issued by XUAR government. This document is referred to a landmark document for the implementation of bilingual education in XUAR; bilingual education is incorporated into the main work of party committees and XUAR governments in their agendas at all levels. The implementation of bilingual education policy is proposed by regional government and General office of Party Committee in XUAR; and it includes comprehensive requirements towards bilingual education. In 2005, the scope of bilingual education expanded to pre-school; learning from childhood and teacher training and education have been emphasized (“Ideas on strengthening bilingual education for pre-school minorities”, 2005, issued by XUAR government and General office of Party Committee). Amended policies and measures were proposed in 2008 in order to further strengthen the implementation of bilingual education for minority students in pre-school, primary and junior middle schools (“Ideas on further strengthening bilingual education for minority students in pre-school, primary and junior middle schools”, 2008, issued by XUAR government and General office of Party Committee).

In 2010, bilingual education in XUAR was promoted as a national strategy during the central work of a forum on Xinjiang issues. After this forum, a series of documents were issued by the Minister of Education and jointly by other Ministers of P.R.C., such as “Opinions on promoting bilingual education in XUAR” in 2010. In these documents, further measures were proposed to guarantee the development of bilingual education in XUAR, such as financial support from the State for teacher training, teaching research and textbook design etc.
(“Opinions on promoting bilingual education in XUAR”, 2010, issued by Minister of Education etc.). In the “National long-term development plan on education reform and development (2010-2020)”, the promotion of Mandarin Chinese and enhancing bilingual education are emphasized again.

According to the national long-term plan mentioned above, another document named “XUAR long-term development plan on bilingual education for minority students from pre-schools to junior middle schools (2010-2020)” was drafted and published in 2011 (LPBE, issued by XUAR government). This plan reports the outcomes of bilingual education from 2004 to 2010, where it is said that 22.2% of the minority students had received bilingual education in their primary and junior middle schools until 2009; 11.6% of the minority students were educated using Mandarin Chinese as the medium for instruction to learn school subjects (Min Kao Han). Despite the outcomes of bilingual education reported, it further defined the objectives of the next 10 years of bilingual education in XUAR. By 2015, bilingual education would be implemented in all the minority dominated primary and junior middle schools; the percentage of minority students who have received bilingual education was to reach 75%-80% by 2015, although it was too early in the research cycle to know whether or not this has been achieved by 2015, and 90%-95% by 2020.

There were three models of bilingual education in XUAR before 2011. With the implementation of “XUAR long-term development plan on bilingual education for minority students in pre-schools and junior middle schools (2010-2020)” in 2011, three models were reduced to two; the previous model two was removed from the list. These models are as shown in following table (Table 4.3.1).

Table 4.3.1 Models of bilingual education in XUAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Mandarin Chinese as the MoI</th>
<th>Minority language as the MoI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004-2006</td>
<td>1 year (+oral Mandarin Chinese) + 5 years (bilingual education)</td>
<td>Other courses, such as Language literacy, History, Geography, Citizenship, PE, Music, Art, Computing,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model 3</strong> (2009-2010)</td>
<td>All the courses, except Minzu Yuwen</td>
<td>Language literacy, Music and Literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since 2011</td>
<td>M1 and M3</td>
<td>Minzu Yuwen (Language literacy)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(LTBE, 2011)
Among the models presented above, Model 3 is the recommended and preferred model as stated in LTBE. The minority students who have joined the pre-school bilingual education programme are encouraged to have Model 3 bilingual education from the starting grade in primary schools with all the courses taught through Mandarin Chinese except Minzu Yuwen (minority language literacy) (LTBE, 2011). It is clear that Model 3 is a subtractive model according to Baker’s (2011) typology discussed in the literature review chapter which would lead to development of L2 at the expense of L1 and may lead to ‘weak’ form of bilingualism, the result would be assimilation of language minorities rather than cultural pluralism and maintenance of minority languages. In LTBE, it aims that either Model 1 or Model 3, bilingual education would be covered for most of the minority students in primary and junior middle schools by 2015 leading to mainly only Model 3 being used by 2020.

However, during the implementation and development of bilingual education, the shortage of bilingual teachers is a big obstacle in this region. A Han policy maker (HP 1) who is working in the regional Department for Education in XUAR stated that:

“Although great support and effort from both national and regional level has been made on addressing the shortage of qualified teachers, Bilingual education is still hampered by it, like bottleneck restrictions and seems hard to be solved. There are two kinds of problems: one is how to supplement enough bilingual teachers; the other is how to maintain the current bilingual teachers still willing to continue to teach in ethnic minority concentrated areas. In my opinion, more Han nationality teachers could be participated in with no need to know minority language well before they join; they could learn the minority language while teaching. It is similar to a foreign teacher joined Chinese education, they don’t have to know Mandarin Chinese well. It is one of the ways, but eventually, we need more minority teachers who are bilinguals to solve the problem.”

The development of Bilingual education is still ongoing in XUAR, hampered by the bottleneck restriction which is the lacking of sufficient language teachers. It can be seen in HP 1’s interview that they perceived that teachers who do not know a minority language is not that important, as Model 3 is becoming more and more common. Therefore, it is clear that bilingualism and bilingual education in XUAR means that Chinese knowing bilingualism and Chinese focused bilingual education. With the influencing of national and international motives, English language acquisition (L3) was added and has had a profound impact on education in XUAR. For Han dominated schools, English language education officially begins at Grade 3 in primary schools and continues as a compulsory school subject until their senior middle school education. Knowledge of English is one of the requirements for the students to continue with their Master’s or doctoral levels studies. Furthermore, it is one of the basic requirements for getting professional qualifications, promotions and for some of the
employers recruiting new staff (Sunuodula and Cao, 2015). As for minority students, much emphasis has been placed on achieving Mandarin Chinese proficiency both nationally and regionally. It states in LPTE (2011) that they should fluently use Mandarin Chinese and the minority language, and if the condition is appropriate with sufficient resources, such as teachers and textbooks, etc., they could learn to use another foreign language. Thus, it can be seen that although English is one of the requirements for both Han and minority students in order to continue with their further studies and future job applications, it is not treated equally for Han and minority students. In order to further promote bilingual and multilingual education in XUAR, another principal task is for the development of language teacher education and teacher training in order to address the shortage of multilingual teachers.

Regional policies for language teacher training

During the development of bilingual education with the dramatic promotion of Mandarin Chinese in XUAR, the number of bilingual students in primary schools have increased dramatically (from 12,761 to 469,568), while the number of students in junior middle schools has also increased (from 23,187 to 157,373) from 2004 to 2010. However, bilingual education is still hampered by the extreme shortage of bilingual teachers, totaling 80,500 by 2014 (XUAR government, No. 40, 2009). It is also common that the current bilingual teachers have low Mandarin Chinese proficiency and less efficient Mandarin Chinese teaching ability according to the research (Wang, 2011). With English as a subject added into the curriculum, the shortage of multilingual teachers becomes even more severe than previously. Therefore, language teacher training becomes more urgent and essential for the development of bilingual and multilingual education in XUAR.

With the demand for supplementing for a large numbers of multilingual teachers, the regional government in XUAR started the ethnic minority bilingual teachers’ training project in 2004 (“Implementation plan of ethnic minority bilingual teachers’ training for primary and junior middle schools”, 2004, No. 20, was issued by the Department of Education in XUAR). In this document, it details the plan to train 45,000 ethnic minority teachers who are under 40 years old and in science subjects for a one-year full time programme; the regional and State financial department would afford all the training fees. It is the largest intensive teachers’ training in the history of XUAR (Li, 2012); the plan would last for 8 years from 2004 to 2011. After one year’s implementation, the plan was adjusted in 2005. From 2006 to 2011, the duration of the training was extended from one to two years and the age of the trainees lowered from 40 to 35 years old. These changes reflect the fact that the outcome of the one-year training was not satisfactory and the numbers of teachers who need to attend the training was far more than the policy makers expected. A MP 2 (a Kazakh policy maker who
was working as the vice president and in charge of the teacher training aspect in the university) stated in the interview that:

“The average percentage of trained teachers was only 15%-16% in this region. We got feedback from both the trainees and the schools they were working in. Some head teachers said to us, even many trained teachers still couldn’t conduct their teaching in Mandarin Chinese when they get back to the schools. Maybe we did need to re-evaluate the training programme and identify the issues”.

The teachers under training at TTU were required to take three months’ placement or teaching practice in primary or junior middle schools. The schools where the teaching practice was to take place should be Han dominated schools with Mandarin Chinese being the medium of instruction or Han and minority mixed schools. However, the trainees were not allowed to be arranged in any schools where the minority language is the medium of instruction (“Opinions on strengthening minority bilingual teachers’ training and teaching practice in XUAR”, 2008, No. 29, issued by regional government). The language requirement for the aim of teaching practice, which is emphasized in this document, is improving language teachers’ proficiency in Mandarin Chinese and their professional competence so that it could strengthen their ability to conduct their teaching in Mandarin Chinese. Therefore, it can be seen that the real aim of the training including teaching practice is not bilingual teaching but teaching in Chinese. It reflects and corresponds to the national strategy which is the promotion of Mandarin Chinese as lingua franca.

In order to supplement the shortage of bilingual teachers in XUAR, training current language teachers as discussed above is one feasible solution. Two other types of free training programmes were also introduced among graduates who are interested in becoming bilingual teachers in XUAR since 2007. The first of these involved the enrollment of 500 graduates per year to be trained as bilingual teachers; this number was be increased to 600 after 2009. They are required to teach in county primary and junior middle schools in Southern Xinjiang after their graduation (“Notice on implementation of Southern Xinjiang rural schools bilingual teachers special training programme”, 2007, No.13, issued by Department of Education in XUAR ). The second programme is the “Free Teacher Education Project” (issued by both the State and regional government, 2008). This project aimed to train 11,955 registered university students who were studying childhood studies for free, but with the same requirement as the previous one, that is, after their graduation, they are required to join the teaching in the primary and junior middle schools in XUAR, especially in rural areas.

3 The researcher can only get access to project plan, however, research report of complementation of the plan is not supposed to be in the public domain.
Thus, it can be concluded that the government at both national and regional level have paid much attention towards multilingual education and language teacher training in XUAR. It is encouraged through documents and policies that Han and minorities should learn each other’s languages in autonomous regions (The Constitution; REAL; LRXJ). The emphasis on both the minority language (L1) and Mandarin Chinese (L2) was made clear when Xi Jinping, the current president of China, visited a local primary school in XUAR in 2014, stating that his main concern about multilingual education in this region was whether a Han teacher can speak the minority language. He stated that only if Han teachers could speak the minority language, then they could use the minority language as the explanatory language in order to conduct more effective Mandarin Chinese teaching to minority students (China News, 2014). However, in the process of implementation, the acquisition and promotion of Mandarin Chinese is the most probable focus in schools.

**4.3.3 University policy**

TTU is the main university assigned by regional government that is responsible for bilingual and English language teacher training in XUAR. Therefore, most of the documents reviewed below are those issued by the university.

English language teacher training in TTU is a full time intensive training programme which lasts for four years. It aims to train qualified language teachers equipped with both educational theory and teaching practice; successful trainees will be language teachers in XUAR, especially in Southern XUAR where Uyghur is the majority nationality. In the training plan promulgated by the Foreign language college which is responsible for English language teacher training (TP, 2012), the training objectives mainly include language ability in Mandarin Chinese, English language ability and basic knowledge and skills related to English education, and basic research knowledge and ability on conducting research which can contribute to improve their teaching to some extent. Although a small amount of Uyghur language module (2%) was offered for the Han students, the requirement or training objectives of minority language is not mentioned in the plan. However, these trained language teachers, including Han trainees, will go for teaching in minority concentrated area that is in Southern XUAR.

This training programme consists of two periods: one is one year intensive Mandarin Chinese training session for ethnic minority teacher trainees only; the other is three years’ English language training, including Mandarin Chinese. The second period of training consists of three parts - theory, culture and teaching practice - in order to equip the trainees with Mandarin Chinese and English language competence, English cultural competence and
teaching competence. A Uyghur language module is offered to Han students in the fourth academic semester (4 hours per week/ 60 hours in total, 2012). Meanwhile, the whole of the fifth semester (18 weeks) is scheduled for school placement; this is in order to provide the opportunity for trainees to fully engage in actual primary education and teaching, as well as practicing their teaching theory and knowledge. Furthermore, they could “become the qualified applied talents who could contribute for socialist modernization construction and education curriculum reforms” (TP, 2012). The languages for instruction during this period of training are Mandarin Chinese and English as explained explicitly in the TTU’s training plans (TP, 2010; TP, 2012).

In order to graduate, both Han and ethnic minority students are required to pass all the training modules, obtain a teacher certification and computing certificate. For English language, both Han and ethnic minority students should take the English level tests and achieve certain levels or scores which are required by the university (TP, 2012). For Mandarin Chinese, Han students need to take Mandarin Chinese level test (Putonghua ceshi) and achieve level two or above. Ethnic minority students have to obtain the certificate of pre-sessional courses of the first year, and HSK or MHK band test (the Chinese Language Proficiency Test for Ethnic Minorities) and achieve level three or above in order to graduate (TP, 2012). However, there is not any requirement of a minority language to graduate for both Han and minority students claimed in this document.

Therefore, as can be seen from national, regional and university policies and documents, Mandarin Chinese is always the core for education and language teacher training in XUAR. The difficulties the minority trainees of language teacher face are to achieve the required proficiency level of both Mandarin Chinese and English within 4 years; English was not offered during their primary and secondary schooling and it is a new language for some of them.

The recommendations proposed within language policies within education domain can affect the language development of the students including both Han and ethnic minority students. Edwards (2004) claims that policies can serve to provide enhanced access to mainstream opportunities and strengthen the minority students’ sense of identity; meanwhile, they can result in marginalisation and social disadvantage. Promoting the minority language may help to preserve the minority group’s cultural integrity, but if Mandarin Chinese is neglected, it may result in denying opportunities to access economic development and political capital (Cummins, 2000). However, if Mandarin Chinese is promoted at the expense of the minority language, it may either for better or for worse reflect a coercive orientation that adheres the minority group to the majority (Cummins, 2000) (cited in Adamson and Feng, 2009). It is
essential to avoid these two poles and find a more balanced option, while strengthening Mandarin Chinese and the international language, such as English, at no cost to the minority language in order that true, bilingualism or multilingualism is promoted.

4.4 Current Practice

Having investigating issues related to policies at various levels, we now turn our attention to what is happening on the ground. The data reported in this section aim to answer the second research question set out for this research: to what extent do school practices support effective English language teacher training programme for minority-dominated regions in Xinjiang?

The data with regard to the TTU’s practice in language teacher training are presented and discussed from the following aspects: Yuke experience (pre-sessional year experience), curriculum design, language learning, language teaching, language assessment and school environment.

4.4.1 Yuke experience

Yuke (Chinese pinyin for 预科) in XUAR means pre-sessional year for learning Mandarin Chinese only, established especially for minority students. Mandarin Chinese is the main language for teaching and learning at university due to the policy, however, most of the minority students (except Min kao Han students who followed the same curricula and learned together with Han students) have low proficiency of it (see Figure 4.2.2). Thus, they were required to have one more Yuke year in order to improve their level of language proficiency in Mandarin Chinese. In this circumstance, minority students need one more year than Han students in order to complete their undergraduate study. It also explains why most of the minority students are at the lower grade than similarly aged Han students in sub section 4.2.1.

Although the minority students have one more year for Mandarin Chinese learning only during a Yuke year, the outcome is not so satisfactory for both students and teachers. According to the results, 46.4% of the minority students showed their dissatisfaction or neutral attitude towards the overall Yuke period. The reasons for their dissatisfaction focused mainly around on two aspects according to the interviews: frustrating slow progress in Mandarin Chinese and inefficient teaching during the training.

Slow progress in Mandarin Chinese
The first of these is that they felt they had little progress after one year’s Mandarin learning; they still couldn’t communicate properly using Mandarin Chinese. Eight of them stated in that even though they have spent one year learning Mandarin Chinese only, they still didn’t
pass the MHK exam which is the Mandarin Chinese proficiency test for minority groups in China. Even worse, it is one of the requirements for graduation and for getting the diploma; it made them quite frustrated. As MS-12 (minority student-12) in Class 2, Grade 2 explained “more than ten of my classmates (more than one third; 31 students in total) haven’t passed the MHK exam although they have taken the exams for four times. It is really difficult for us. The MHK passing rate of Class 1 is lower than Class 2 which is the class I am in”.

Aspects of teaching
The second most prominent reason for their dissatisfaction were related to aspects of teaching. They stated that the teachers didn’t deliver the lectures in an engaging way and the textbooks were not interesting at all. The eagerness for having more ethnic minority teachers was expressed during the interviews. However, some participants showed their understanding towards the teachers. A MS-8 (female minority student-8) said:

“Because our level of Mandarin Chinese is very different, it mostly depends on the district we come from. The minority students who come from Southern Xinjiang have less Mandarin Chinese proficiency than the students from Northern Xinjiang. And the minority students who are from rural areas have poorer Mandarin Chinese competence than the city students. It is due to many factors, such as late start at learning Mandarin Chinese, lack of qualified teachers and other resources, etc.. So it makes a lot of difficulties for the teachers as well; it is hard for them to meet all the students’ needs who have different levels of Mandarin Chinese in the same class.”

This corresponds with the findings shown previously at district difference (section 4.2.1) and partially provides the additional explanation for the reasons why the minority students have different language competences.

After one year’s Yuke for intensive Mandarin Chinese learning, the minority students were required to pass the exams in order to move on to their major study for trilingual teacher training with Han students. From then on, Mandarin Chinese was the medium of instruction in most of the courses according to the results from the survey. No minority language was used as the language of instruction explicitly during delivery of lectures. This became a big obstacle for some of the minority students as they found it difficult to understand the teaching content and learn the subjects well. 52.4% of the minority students rated that they couldn’t understand the lectures delivered in Mandarin Chinese clearly (see Figure 4.4.1). One of the minority students (MS-1) explained:

“Many of my classmates can’t understand the content of what the teachers presented in Mandarin Chinese, some of them have already given up learning the subject because
they can’t understand, and some of them have to pretend they have understood what the
teachers teach us. This kind of student may take up almost half of the total.”

Figure 4.4.1 Can you understand the lectures delivered in Mandarin Chinese?

Thus, it can be seen that Mandarin Chinese as the only language of instruction is a big barrier
for minority students to learn other subjects despite the Yuke year. Using it to learn a new
language, which is English (L3), is a challenging task for most of the minority students.

4.4.2 Curriculum design

During the main language teacher training in TTU after Yuke, there are three parts generally
included in the curricula for both Han and minority students: general courses (citizenship
courses), the courses for language learning and other skills are needed to train a future
teacher. The first part of curriculum which is the general courses includes: Conspectus of
Mao Thinking; Principles of Marxism Political and Economic Theory; Thought Morals
Accomplishment and Foundation of Law; Situation and Policy; The History of Xinjiang and
the Policy of Ethnicity and Religion; Military Theory and Physical Education. These are the
compulsory courses for both Han and minority students and the percentage or the portion of
these courses in the curriculum has never diminished since 2007, especially for minority
students; rather, it has increased from 12% to 21% (see Table 4.4.1). However, for the second
part of the curriculum, which is language learning, the arrangement of three languages -
Mandarin Chinese, Uyghur as the minority language and English - is different for minority
and Han students.
### Table 4.4.1 The curricula for Han and minority students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cohort</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Total lectures</th>
<th>General courses</th>
<th>Language learning</th>
<th>Other skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mandarin</td>
<td>Uyghur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>Han</td>
<td></td>
<td>2602</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minority</td>
<td>Year 1</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>others</td>
<td>2780</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-2011</td>
<td>Han</td>
<td></td>
<td>2602</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minority</td>
<td></td>
<td>2551</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-present</td>
<td>Han</td>
<td></td>
<td>2521</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minority</td>
<td></td>
<td>2569</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is necessary to mention the policy changes and explain the situation a bit further. During 2007 and 2008, English language teacher training for minority students split into two phases. As shown in Table 4.4.1, the main goal of the first academic year was enhancing their Mandarin Chinese, which took up 73% of the total amount of the lectures. The rest of the years was more focused on English language training (58%) as well as a certain amount of Mandarin Chinese which occupied 24%. A module which is related to Uyghur language and Uyghur culture or history had never been offered to minority students. No other foreign language course was provided for minority students. For Han students between 2007 and 2008, their language learning was focused on English during all the academic years and another foreign language which is Japanese was introduced instead of Uyghur. It indicates that for all the academic years, Han students spent all of their time mainly on English, but minority students had one year for Mandarin Chinese and the rest for English.

From 2009, the minority students (except those who followed the Min kao Han route) in the Foreign Language College in TTU would have one extra pre-sessional year for Mandarin Chinese learning compared to Han students. Then the minority students were required to pass HSK or MHK exams in order to move on to their major studies. For Han students, Uyghur language was added into their curriculum with 2 lectures per week in the third semester from 2009 in order to prepare for their future internship in the last semester. Japanese module was still on their curriculum. The curricula for both Han and minority students were further modified in 2012 and the revised versions have been adopted to the present day. As well as English which takes up 45% on average, the minority students were required to continue with learning Mandarin after their Yuke year; Mandarin Chinese lectures took up 7% of the total and these lectures were spread across three semesters. Han students learn Uyghur for one semester and the percentage is 2.5% instead of Japanese (see Table 4.4.1). The third part of the curriculum for both Han and minority students is other skills related to being a teacher in the future which take approximately 30% of the timetable. It includes: Computing;
Appreciation of Music and Art; Cultivation of Professional Ethics of Teachers; Career Guidance; How to Be a Good Head Teacher; Internship, etc., which are all delivered in Mandarin Chinese (MoI).

4.4.3 Language learning

Due to different curricula for Han and minority students and their different level of English as described previously (approximately 95% of Han students started learning English from Grade 3 in primary school), more than 70% of the minority students had had no English learning experience before they entered the university. Han and minority students used different English textbooks. The textbooks for minority students are basic, starting from alphabet learning and those for Han students are for more advanced English learners. All the instructions and notes in the textbooks are in either English or Mandarin Chinese.

The data from both questionnaires and interviews revealed that minority students who had developed good proficiency in Mandarin Chinese found it beneficial, but those who had low proficiency in Mandarin Chinese suffered greatly. One student expressed the opinion during the interview that some of his classmates may even lose interest in the subject, which could possibly explain a predicted drop in academic performance as a consequence. The results showed that more than half of the minority students had big problems in communicating with each other in Mandarin Chinese (p.52). This language is the medium of instructions during teaching and learning the third language, that is, English. It means they had to learn a totally new L3 (English) through their L2 (Mandarin Chinese) which they were still struggling with. This depicts how challenging a situation the minority students found themselves in. A participant (MS-2) stated that:

“Some of my classmates couldn’t understand what the teachers’ were teaching and they need to ask our classmates for help to translate for them, some of them chose to pretend they have understood, and a few of them have to give up learning English, because they have big difficulties with Mandarin, and they can’t understand English through Mandarin at all.”

Minority students’ difficulties in Mandarin Chinese may inevitably influence their major study due to Mandarin Chinese is the only MoI during their study. In order to minimize the gap with Han students and to catch up with what the teachers teach, 75% of the minority students agreed to the necessity of getting training in private institutions, and 34.6% of the minority students had already attended English training outside university according to the data collected (see Figure 4.4.2).
In order to explore the reasons for taking private English training lessons that emerged from the pilot interviews with minority students, a couple of questions were designed in the questionnaire survey after the pilot study. The main reasons focused on three aspects: textbooks, the medium language of instruction and teachers’ teaching methods. Regarding to the English textbooks adopted in the university, the participating student (MS-2) expressed her opinion during the follow up interviews:

“Although the textbooks seem interesting, some of our classmates can’t understand the content, it is useless. Because all the instructions in the textbooks are in Mandarin Chinese, some of them cannot understand Mandarin Chinese well, how could they understand another new language explained in Mandarin. Nevertheless, in private training institutions, although the books are in Mandarin as well due to no English textbooks instructions via Uyghur, the teachers there could explain to us in Uyghur. That will be much easier for us to understand”.

The quote above introduced the second reason for them to attend private English training lectures outside university that is the teachers there could “explain in Uyghur”. In the questionnaire survey, 54.8% of the minority students clearly showed their difficulties in using Mandarin Chinese to learn English (see Figure 4.4.2). 68.3% of them thought that there should be more ethnic minority teachers in the university (see Figure 4.4.3). The minority students provided this point again in the interviews. Three of them mentioned they preferred to have the lectures in private training institutions because most of the teachers there are of ethnic minority; if not, at least the teachers there could speak Uyghur. Uyghur is the medium language of instruction for teaching English there. The participating students said the minority of teachers there may have had a similar learning experience to the one they are
experiencing now. The teachers understood the minority students’ needs and difficulties better than Han teachers do; importantly, they were adopting an interactive and enthusiastic way to teach them, that made the class alive.

**Figure 4.4.3 Do you think more ethnic minority teachers are needed?**

![Bar chart showing the distribution of responses to the question of whether more ethnic minority teachers are needed.](image)

The details above showed that the third main reason for them to attend the private English training institutions outside university was the teachers’ teaching methods. 72.6% of the minority students pointed out strongly that teachers’ teaching method should be developed into a more engaging way compared to 24.1% of Han students (see Figure 4.4.4). This point has been paid particular attention during the classroom observations of the lectures. During a whole 40 minutes of an English lecture presented by a Han teacher for minority students, approximately 25 minutes was teachers’ lecturing, mainly translating English into Mandarin Chinese and asking the students to read after her; no student group work or discussion at all. Another 11 minutes was arranged for doing a short quiz by students themselves. A student who was sitting in the first row was sleeping at the desk. Wang and Kirkpatrick (2013) pointed out that less than 70% of the time used in teacher tuition during lectures in most lessons is acceptable. However, although the teacher talk in this observed lecture was 62.5% which is lower than the average percentage (70%), there was no students group work and discussion and no Q and A time, which suggests that the amount of students’ engaging interaction with the teacher was limited. It indicates that the lessons were teacher-centered. The students learned by listening and imitating the teacher’s pronunciation instead of through active interaction with the teacher. It may lead to the students not fully engaging in the lessons and make them feel bored; it would affect the efficiency of the lessons. The teacher-centeredness of the lessons is further demonstrated in the following lecture observation of this research. Students did not ask a single question during the lectures in two classroom observations.
4.4.4 Language teaching

Most of the teachers did realize that some of the minority students in the class had difficulties with Mandarin Chinese, and these students were experiencing hard times during learning English through the medium of Mandarin Chinese. Most of the teachers expressed their concerns towards the students who could not catch up with what they taught. A minority teacher (MT- 8) who is ethnic Uyghur stated that:

“I use Mandarin Chinese and English in class as required in the university syllabus; I guess some of the students may not understand both languages. If the students cannot understand it, they could ask the other students who got it. And I may check with them after class and do some explanations in Uyghur in order to make sure they have no problems with it.”

This teacher’s assumption about minority students’ difficulties with Mandarin Chinese was happening among some of the minority students. According to the questionnaire survey, 54.8% of the minority students rated that they did experience occasions when they could not understand what the teacher taught and the teacher went on to explain the concepts either in Mandarin Chinese or in English (see Figure 4.4.3). An example of difficulties in understanding the teaching content in either Mandarin Chinese or English to minority students happened during one classroom observation. It was a comprehensive English (which is including English reading, writing and grammar) lecture and delivered by an ethnic Han teacher. This teacher was teaching the students about the adjectives with comparative degree and superlative degree. She was struggling to make them fully understand, although she repeated the point three times in both Mandarin Chinese and English. Then she looked at the clock and moved onto the next section. After that lecture, this English language teacher expressed her anxiety and her feeling of helplessness:
“I did know nearly one third of the students have very poor Mandarin Chinese, they can’t understand when I teach them English via Mandarin. I speak Mandarin, they cannot get it, and I speak English, they cannot get it either. What could I do? I have tried all the means I could think of, such as slowing down my speech, repeating what I say and using all the body language to help them understand what I mean. You see, they still cannot understand, I really have no idea about it, because I am a Han teacher and I cannot speak Uyghur.”

This teacher was not the only one who couldn’t speak Uyghur. According to the previous profile description of the teachers in TTU (see Figure 4.2.5), approximately 70% of the teachers are ethnic Han and around 74% teachers admitted that they had little or no knowledge at all about a minority language. Thus, it might be predictable that those teachers may have the same problem as this teacher experienced during their teaching process. The different opinions arose in the teachers’ questionnaire survey in terms of the linguistic-medium for teaching minority students English. The response to this item seemed to be most divisive. Almost an even number of the teachers showed their approval (34.5%) and disapproval (36.3%) towards adopting Mandarin Chinese as the medium of instruction to teach the students English (see Table 4.4.2). However, 29.1% of the teachers showed their uncertainty about this issue, or probably were not willing to state it directly and clearly, because of the tension and political sensitivity in this region, that has been discussed in the previous chapter.

Table 4.4.2 Mandarin Chinese should be the medium language of instruction instead of minority language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to address this issue, in spite of policy, one of the possible solutions recommended by a teacher in TTU seemed to be to arrange for more minority teachers to teach the students English, so that they could explain the difficult parts in Uyghur. However, this is still not feasible according to the Dean of the Foreign Language College who claimed that Mandarin Chinese should be used as the language of instruction, which corresponds with the regional and national policy requirement. Meanwhile, in his interview, he admitted that in terms of
different subjects, such as another new language that is L3 for minority students, this requirement should be flexible according to his understanding. The barrier is the shortage of qualified ethnic minority teachers currently employed in TTU. 39 out of 58 are Han teachers and among the other 19, only 6 can speak the minority language fluently (see Figure 4.2.5). In the questionnaire survey, more than half of the teachers agreed that more minority teachers should be employed (52.8%). However, the interesting point is that 34% of the teachers still choose the ‘not sure’ choice in the questionnaire survey. Respondents were possibly being either cautious, uncertain, or perplexed, and possibly dared not make a clear statement. Compared to the results from the teachers, it seemed that students made much clearer statements in the survey. 140 out of 191 students stated that there should be more minority teachers in this College in order to facilitate minority students’ English learning (73.3%) (see Figure 4.4.5).

**Figure 4.4.5 Students’ views on whether more minority teachers are needed**

![Bar chart showing students' views on minority teachers](image)

Recruiting minority teachers may one of the measures to improve trilingual teacher training in TTU more effective. The teachers’ teaching method was another issue that arouse within the questionnaire and interviews that requires due consideration. Approximately half of the students thought that the teaching methods of teachers in TTU should be updated in a more attractive and interactive way so that it would not make the students feel bored and lose interest in learning English. According to the students’ responses in the interview, the dull teaching is one of the causes that makes them want to experience interesting lectures outside university; from this point, it might be one of the possible reasons of why students have a strong willingness to attend private English training sessions outside university. However, from the teachers’ perspective, the result seems slightly different. As HT-2 explained: “minority students did have difficulties in understanding the lectures delivered in Mandarin Chinese or with English explanation. No matter how hard we tried, the students still couldn’t get the meaning”. 51% of the teachers thought that the students should be encouraged to have
extra English and Mandarin Chinese training lessons outside university. The teacher in the interview stated that the students preferred to seek external tuition outside university because they would like to know more, and there are more minority teachers teaching externally and they could use the minority language in their classes; in all the interviews, none of them mentioned the teaching method.

Meanwhile, some of the teachers did express their difficulties in delivering the lectures. After the classroom observation, the teacher who was giving the extensive English lecture said that:

“I felt helpless when I faced the situation, that is whatever and in which means, either Mandarin or English, you speak to the students, they just cannot understand. I wish I could speak Uyghur (minority language). And probably I really should learn a little Uyghur, because I found when you greet the students in their mother tongue, they feel very happy and it shortens the distance between the students and me in a short time. I guess my lectures will be more accepted in this way.”

MT-7 expressed his difficulties in managing to balance the students at a relatively higher level of Mandarin and English with the lower level students. He said:

“There are a lot of differences in a single class. They come from different ethnic backgrounds and their levels of both Mandarin Chinese and English are quite different as well. For instance, the students who come from Northern Xinjiang have a higher level of Mandarin Chinese proficiency than those from Southern Xinjiang; and students who are from rural areas may have poor Mandarin Chinese and English knowledge. Even within the same area, different schools may have different curricula depending on the resources they have; some may have offered the students English lessons, some may not. Therefore, it is very difficult for us, as a teacher, to balance all these conditions and suit all the students’ needs”.

Thus, it can be seen that due to Mandarin Chinese being the medium of instructions for most of the lectures, the minority students’ proficiency of Mandarin Chinese influences their course of study and English language learning. The minority students from different regions may have different levels of Mandarin Chinese proficiency, such as the students who are from the northern Xinjiang being more likely to have higher levels of proficiency than those from the southern Xinjiang. A high level of Mandarin Chinese proficiency may offer the opportunity of enhancing the minority students’ English language learning. Equally, a low level of Mandarin Chinese proficiency may become the barrier for them to follow university courses so that it will affect their English language learning as well and put them in a disadvantaged situation.
4.4.5 Language assessment

The language assessments of Mandarin Chinese, Uyghur (minority language) and English for the students who are Han and ethnic minorities were different. Although the curricula and training objectives had been modified in 2009, the requirements to get the diploma and degree from the university-TTU were still focused on three aspects in general: computing, Mandarin Chinese level and English level. Before 2009, both Han and minority students needed to pass all the modules exams and gain a certificate for computer proficiency examinations for schoolteachers. In addition, Han students needed to pass English level test and the minority students needed to pass the Mandarin proficiency test, the MHK. Since the curricula and policy changed at the end of 2009, the students were not distinguished as Han or minority students; all the students were required to pass the computer proficiency test, English to a certain level and teachers’ qualification tests in order to graduate from the university (see Table 4.4.3). It seems the Han and minority students were treated at equal standards for graduation. However, the hidden challenge for the minority students can be imagined. It is necessary to note that in order to get the teacher qualification certificate, both Han and minority students needed to achieve certain proficiency level of Mandarin Chinese; passing MHK was a must for minority students and for Han students, they needed to pass “Putonghua shuiping ceshi” (Mandarin level test, PTH test hereafter). The detailed assessments for each three languages are discussed in the following part.

Table 4.4.3 Graduation requirements for Han and minority students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Students group</th>
<th>Pre-session courses</th>
<th>computer</th>
<th>Mandarin (PTH)</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Internship</th>
<th>Teacher qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>Han</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minority</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√ (HSK)</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-present</td>
<td>Han</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minority</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mandarin Chinese is the mother tongue of Han students and they have been educated through it since their kindergarten. It has been used for teaching, learning and in the public domain in daily life. In TTU, the Han students had no modules on Mandarin literacy, but the Mandarin history and culture which was called “Daxue Yuwen”, in the curriculum. The assessment of Mandarin Chinese for Han students was PTH test (Mandarin level test); and this had been one of the requirements in order to achieve the diploma in university, both pre
2009 and post-2009, when the policy was changed. However, according to Han students’ responses, meeting the standards seemed not a problem for them.

For minority students, they had been offered one pre-sessional training year only on Mandarin Chinese which is their second language. Mandarin Chinese modules were still included in the current used curriculum spreading from the first until the third semester. The minority students were required to pass three different sets of tests. The first was the final exams at the end of the pre-sessional training year; it is important for them in order to transfer to their major study. The second set of tests was each term’s Mandarin Chinese module examinations during the three terms mentioned before. And the third one was passing MHK (Mandarin Chinese test for minority groups in China) in order to graduate and gain the diploma.

**Uyghur language** course was offered in the curriculum for Han students during the last semester. The purpose was to prepare for their coming internship which is to be a trilingual teacher in Southern Xinjiang, where the ethnic minority group people are the majority in that area; the majority of people there speak the minority language. Thus, Han students were required to pass the final Uyghur course exam at the end of the last semester, but there was not any other test requirement or certificate pressure. For minority students, no minority language or Uyghur history and culture course was provided in the curriculum. Therefore, there was no assessment of their mother tongue for minority students in TTU.

**English language** learning was treated as the main task and for Han and minority students, most of the lecture hours were spent in learning English during this training programme in TTU. Before 2009, it was stated clearly that Han students were required not only to pass all the modules’ exams, but also to pass a certain English level test, such as CET4 or CET6 (College English Test). Both Han and Minority students showed their agreements on wishing to have English test before the end of their training in the survey (79.3%; 78.8%; see Figure 4.4.6); the minority students seemed to be truly or intrinsically interested in English. There was no requirement of English proficiency for minority students before the year 2009. After the modification of the plan at the end of 2009, all students were asked for the same requirements for graduation. This means that the minority students now had to pass certain English proficiency test as the Han students do, although they had different curricula, different textbooks, English learning backgrounds and experience.
4.4.6 School environment

School culture created

Most of the school posters or announcements were in Mandarin Chinese in the classrooms, campus and the dining hall on the campus. English was used on a few occasions according to the school observation data. However, there was no sign of Uyghur being used in this way during the fieldwork. There were three multi-resources classrooms. Each one of them could have a class of 30 students. Han and minority students studied in different classrooms. The students complained in the interviews that there are not enough multi-resources classrooms in TTU, and they were eager to have more of this kind of classrooms so that they could watch English movies or listen to the English channels on the radio in order to facilitate their language studies. 84.8% of the students agreed that the hardware or equipment in TTU needed to be improved and updated and more computers and multi-resources’ classrooms should be set up in order to facilitate language teaching and learning. Amongst these students, a Uyghur student (MS-2) expressed her unsatisfaction in the interview that: “all the classrooms for Han students are equipped with computers, but for the classrooms for minority students, it is not always the case. For example, the classroom for me and my classmates, it has no computer, even no radio equipped. It makes me very frustrated”. Apart from the equipment aspect, another desire of the students was shown during the survey in that the students were eager to have foreign teachers to help with their English speaking and writing aspect (73.8%).
Language used in the college

Mandarin Chinese, as the medium language of instruction for teaching, was used in classroom teaching and learning for both Han and minority students. For Han students, Mandarin Chinese was not only used for learning, but also for the communication in daily life, whilst, a Uyghur language was only used in Uyghur lessons which was offered as a module in classroom setting. However, according to the interviews and observations to minority students, although Mandarin Chinese is the main language for teaching, the minority language is the preferred language in the daily life situation and for after class communication. It can be seen in the questionnaire survey in this project as well.

It is worth mentioning that when the questionnaires were offered in Mandarin Chinese and Uyghur versions during the survey, 72.94% of the minority students chose the Uyghur version questionnaire. A conversation happened during the survey. One of the minority students C chose the Han version questionnaire and said: “My Mandarin Chinese is good and I will choose the Mandarin version questionnaire” with a proud tone. Then, another minority student D, who sat in front of student C, turned back and said to the researcher: “Could I change the Mandarin version questionnaire to the Uyghur version? I need to claim that I can understand this questionnaire in Mandarin, but because I am a Uyghur student, Uyghur is my mother tongue, I want to use my mother tongue to fill in the questionnaire” while Student D looked at student C without saying anything more. This case indicates that a seemingly linguistic issue may suggest tension over identity. Despite the difficulties the minority students had in Mandarin Chinese, another important reason for them choosing to use Uyghur is about their identity consideration. Comparing Mandarin Chinese and the minority language, English was the less used language for both Han and minority students. One of the students (MS-8) stated:

“English is only used in oral English lessons, for others, they don’t want to and don’t have to use it. In other modules related to English, they prefer to use Mandarin, because they cannot express themselves in English. In daily life occasions, there is no need for them to use English, because there is no foreigner around them.”

After-class activities in the College

According to the results, 78% of the students wanted to have more activities that involve both Han and minority students in order to increase understanding and learn from each other, including both language and culture. Furthermore, minority students showed a stronger willingness for mingling with the Han and minority students’ activities than the Han students did (see Figure 4.4.7).
In sum, from the data presented above, it can be concluded that Mandarin Chinese is the tall-order priority language which needs to be acquired either during the language learning process or in language assessment. It is the medium language of instructions for course study and English language learning. Meanwhile, it is also a requirement for both Han (PTH test) and minority students (MHK) to graduate. However, according to the results above, low proficiency or inadequacy in Mandarin Chinese became a bottleneck and barrier for minority students to progress to learn English language during their training process. On the one hand, the minority students realized the importance of Mandarin Chinese for their study and future career, and they wanted to and had to learn it well through both classroom teaching and after-class activities in order to graduate and find jobs in the future. According to the questionnaires’ results, the minority students showed their strong willingness to participate in joint activities with the Han students in order to improve their Mandarin Chinese proficiency. On the other hand, some of them believed they should learn and keep using the minority language; they had a strong sense of their identity.

4.5 Perceptions and Attitudes

The section aims to answer the third research question set out for this research: **what are key stakeholders’ attitudes and perceptions of the languages in use and in education, and of English language teacher training?** The data showed in this section include the key stakeholders’ perceptions and attitudes of the three languages and of the language teacher training programme in TTU; it includes the students, the teachers and the policy makers.
4.5.1 Students’ perceptions and attitudes

The data collected from the students including both Han and minority students as a whole show that they perceive that they were treated equally in university (78%) and the minority language and culture had been paid much attention to within the university (74.3%). However, it is noticed that Han and minority students held different attitudes towards it. Among those students, most of the Han students believed that enough attention was paid to the minority language and culture (92%) and both Han and minority students were treated equally (93.1%). On the contrary, compared to the Han students, 47.6% of the minority students thought that their language and culture was not paid enough attention on and 40.5% of the students stated they were not treated equally to Han students. The reasons listed included that they have different curriculum, different textbooks compared to Han students, and all the textbooks were in Mandarin Chinese, no minority language. The minority students didn’t have any modules related to the minority language history or culture, but Han students did have, such as Daxue Yuwen, which gave the chance for appreciating the history and culture related to Han language. They had to take one extra year for pre-sessional courses on Mandarin Chinese, but the Han students didn’t need to. They also claimed that the Min kao Min minority students who are not English majors didn’t have English module in TTU since 2012, but all the Han students did have, etc.

Although the minority students listed some differences comparing to Han students during the language study in university, it is still acknowledged in the interviews that some of the measures above were chosen because of no options according to the current situation. One of the female minority students (MS-1) showed her understanding in the interview:

“Because most of the minority students came from Southern Xinjiang, they didn’t know how to speak English before they enter the university. However, most of the Han students have learned English for a long time. We have totally different levels of English proficiency. Thus, the leaders in TTU and the teachers have no choice but let us use different textbooks comparing to Han students. We want to have the same curriculum and textbooks as the Han students, but according to our level, it is not good for us, so we have no choice”.

For Mandarin Chinese, although the minority students were experiencing difficulties and pressure in learning and using it, 79.8% of the minority students were interested in learning Mandarin Chinese and 85.7% of them thought that learning Mandarin Chinese will be helpful. The main reasons according to data obtained from the interviews are as following: Mandarin Chinese is the national language; it is the language for teaching and learning, most of the exams were required to be completed in Mandarin Chinese; it is the language for social media and most of the public domain; 85.7% of the minority students thought that it would be
helpful for future jobs in both job hunting and working with Han people in the job. For Han students, as Mandarin Chinese is their mother tongue, they had no pressure of being it as a subject, 72.1% of them did think it is the most important language for both Han and minority students. It was because of two main reasons according to their thoughts: one reason was being a Chinese citizen, they must have the capability of speaking Mandarin Chinese; the other reason was Mandarin Chinese is useful in social and daily life. Two of the Han students mentioned in the interview that letting all the Xinjiangese including all the minority groups acquiring Mandarin Chinese would be helpful for the regional and national unity and stability.

For minority language, most of the Han students believed it was necessary for them to learn minority language (64%) and the minority language might be helpful for them in future life and work (60.9%). Meanwhile, a significant amount of Han students showed their uncertainty on whether they should learn it or not (27.6%) and they were not sure if they would benefit from learning the minority language or not (25.3%). However, the perception held by minority students towards minority language is different from those by Han students. For minority students, they showed their strong sense of identity towards it as showed in previous interview description. In the questionnaire survey, 90.5% of them thought that acquiring their own language is a must for being a member of a minority group (see Figure 4.5.1). Meanwhile, after they have mastered their mother tongue, they still had open minds towards learning other languages, such as learning Mandarin Chinese and English (85.7%).

Figure 4.5.1 Acquiring their own language is a must for being a member of a minority group

During the interview, a female minority student (MS-1) stated that: “there are some minority students who cannot speak our own language around me, because they were in Han schools since they were in Kindergarten. I have no prejudice on those minority students, but I know
there are some fellows who do have prejudice on those classmates”. Those minority students who were educated through Mandarin Chinese with Han students in Han schools are what we called Min kao Han minority students. One male minority students (MS-13) expressed his dissatisfaction openly in the interview. He said: “I really don’t like the minority students who cannot speak Uyghur which is our mother tongue. To be a Uyghur people, they should be ashamed if they cannot speak their own language, I feel terribly sorry for them and they should not be identified as a real Uyghur as well. I feel distant between them and I don’t want to stay or talk more with those kind of students”. It can be concluded that the minority language has multiple meanings for minority students, the function aspect of the language in communication is important. More essential, keeping using the minority language is the way for them to show their identity, according to students’ statements in the interviews.

For English, both Han and minority students showed their great interest in learning it (74.4%). However, despite the majority of them who stated English would be useful for their future career (71.2%), one fifth of the students didn’t express clear vision towards English in terms of its usefulness to their future (20.9%). Another point that needs to be identified is that female and male students showed their different attitudes towards English during the interviews. One male student (HS-3) presented that:

“There are 4 male students in my class, and three of us can’t understand the lectures related to English. And because our English is extremely poor, we need our deskmates to translate the teaching content for us. Gradually, we have no interest in English at all and give up learning it. I know the other male students in my class have the similar situation as me, although one among us has a little bit higher level of English than we three. To be honest, I didn’t choose to learn it as our major and was reallocated into this major without notification in advance”.

Towards language teacher training in TTU, 63.3% of both Han and minority students rated that minority language course and courses that are related to minority culture should be promoted in university (see Figure 4.5.2).
Figure 4.5.2 Han and minority students’ view on whether minority language should be promoted in university

71.1% of the minority students expressed their strong wishes to have Uyghur language and related modules (see Figure 4.5.3). Both Han and minority students were willing to be a trilingual teacher or an English teacher in XUAR after their graduation (76.3%).

Figure 4.5.3 Minority students’ response to whether they want to learn minority language history and culture

However, some of the students showed their concerns about if they could be a qualified trilingual teacher or not (26.8%) because of their lack of proficiency of English. This situation was more significant among the minority students than the Han students (34.6%). One of the female minority students (MS-2) expressed her feeling as following: “I didn’t learn English before I entered this university. It is not because I have no interest in learning English. When I was in my primary school, we felt lucky to have Mandarin Chinese teachers, because not all of the schools had in that area. I still remember that teacher could speak a
little English, she taught us several sentences, we were so happy about it. Thus, learning English was impossible for us. So, I even didn’t dare to think about it, too luxury for me at that moment. But I did enjoy learning English in university now. I taught the kids in my hometown during my vacations, they were eager to learn it and learned it in a serious way. I do want to be an English teacher in future, but I am not sure if I could be good enough to teach them”.

4.5.2 Teachers’ perceptions and attitudes

For Mandarin Chinese, the majority of the teachers claimed that it is the most important language for students in future (60%). It is because Mandarin Chinese is widely used in education, social media, working places and other public domains. If the students want to get access to the main stream society, Mandarin Chinese is regarded as the key to get into as it is the national and dominant language. It is essential to get the job after the students’ graduation. Four of the teachers ranked Mandarin Chinese as the most important language and left the other two (minority language and English) out in the questionnaire survey. A Uyghur teacher (MT-8) ranked Mandarin Chinese as the most important language for students’ future career, she demonstrated her choice using her own experience: “I felt very lucky that my parents sent me to the schools that could be educated through Mandarin Chinese. They really had good vision and thought it would be helpful for me. It has been proved that my parents made a wise decision. Some of my friends chose the minority language as medium language schools at that moment. Now, I found the job in the university, some of them still didn’t find a job or a full time job or the job as good as mine. When they saw me, they were regretful for not choosing the school as I chose”.

Comparing to Mandarin Chinese, minority language ranked as the least important language for students in future by 68.6% of both the Han and minority teachers. During the interviews, teachers had different explanations towards this phenomenon. One of the teachers (HT-4) stated from a pragmatic perspective: “as Mandarin Chinese is the medium language for instruction in education, it is the language for most of the important exams, such as entrance exam for being a civil servant. Minority language is used less and less and it is only used at home with family members and fellows in a special province and limited area. In this sense, I think comparing to Mandarin Chinese and English, it should be the less important language”. However, some other teachers might have different opinion from an identity perspective. One of minority teachers (MT-7) explained that: “because I am a Uyghur, my mother tongue should be valued. Although I could speak a little Uyghur and only write my name in Uyghur, nothing else, I will try to learn it in my spare time. All my relatives around me feel quite surprised to see that to be a Uyghur, I could not write Uyghur except my name. I really need to take it seriously. However, because I was educated through Mandarin
Chinese, I use this language in the work place. Though I had little knowledge of Uyghur, it did not bother me a lot. That’s the reason why I delayed my Uyghur learning again and again”.

It needs to be noticed that 30.9% of the teachers regarded English as the most important language for the students. Meanwhile, 27.5% of the teachers thought English might be the least important language in students’ future life and career; the percentage was relatively high as well. From these two figures, we may say the teachers’ attitude could be in dilemma, confusing or unclear in terms of the usefulness of English. According to the data from the interviews, some of the teachers stated that English is the language for them to link with other countries in the world; it is also the language for the students to access to more advanced technology or knowledge; and English becomes more commonly used in daily life bases, such as internet, computer, media, etc.. However, a considerable amount of the teachers expressed their concern, one of them said that “after the students’ graduation, most of them may go back to their hometown to be a teacher there in XUAR, then except when they are delivering the lectures, there will be very few occasions for them to use English, or some of them will never use it at all. Thus, in my view, English would be not so useful as Mandarin Chinese and minority language”.

Although the teachers might have different opinions towards the three languages which are Mandarin Chinese, minority language and English, more than half of the teachers perceived that trilingual education should be promoted in the language training programme in TTU instead of enhancing Mandarin Chinese only (54.5%) (see Table 4.5.1). Meanwhile, 32.7% of the teachers showed their uncertainty on this issue. One of the teachers expressed his opinion in the open questions section in the questionnaire survey: “for minority students, I think it is not an easy task for them to learn Mandarin Chinese well, mastering Mandarin Chinese is enough for them, so I don’t think they need to learn English and it is not very important for them”. Another teacher (MT-7) said: “if the student who is minority, he knows Mandarin Chinese well, it will be more likely for him to find a job and live a good life in XUAR. That’s no problem for him unless he wants to do international trade or to be a tour guide for foreigners, then English may be useful for him. Thus, I am not sure if trilingual or multilingual education should be paid a lot attention on in XUAR context, because it all depends on the jobs the students will choose”. However, 69.1% of the teachers did believe that if the same condition and facilities provided for both Han and minority students, the minority students could learn English as well as Han students.
### Table 4.5.1 Trilingual and multilingual education should be promoted instead of enhancing Mandarin Chinese only

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

### 4.5.3 Policy makers’ perceptions and attitudes

Among Mandarin Chinese, minority language, and English, all of them stated that Mandarin Chinese is the most important language for both Han and minority students. A policy maker (HP-1) stated: “Mandarin Chinese is the national language, it should be known by all Chinese people. More than half of the people in this region could only communicate in Mandarin Chinese only. And most of the exams are in Mandarin Chinese now, even for some of the job interviews, they were required in Mandarin Chinese only instead of minority language. Mandarin Chinese should be further enhanced in XUAR”. Another female researcher who worked in the regional research institute on Education sector for more than 10 years; this educational research institute is responsible for providing suggestions for the government during the decision making based on their research, she expressed her concern: “I agree that Mandarin Chinese is the most important language for all the students. But I am afraid the outcome of bilingual education and trilingual education is not satisfactory. Because the passing rate of MHK is low, in TTU, only 40% of the minority students could pass it after one year Yuke (pre-sessional year for Mandarin Chinese learning). It needed to be reflected and think about the reasons”.

For minority language, policy makers involved in this research thought it is important to the students, especially minority students. It was because minority language is their mother tongue and conveys with the culture of the minority group which should be treasured. It is also the symbol of minority students’ identity. However, one of the policy makers (MP-1) stated: “it is a pity that some of the minority people who could only speak their minority language, their access to the information is very limited; they don’t know exactly what is going on in the world; they emerged themselves in the religion and didn’t learn their culture and religion from a good way. Even worse some of them were taken advantage by other people who intended to do with terrorism and separatism in XUAR. It is also one of the
reasons why the minority students should learn Mandarin Chinese and why bilingual education should be promoted and never stop in XUAR”. For Han students, in the policy makers’ opinion, they should learn a minority language, such as Uyghur and it would be useful for them who intend to work in XUAR. The Dean of the Foreign Language College (HP-3) in TTU also explained the dilemma that Han students are facing to: “on the one hand, Han students have the awareness that learning Uyghur may be helpful both in daily communication and career in future; on the other hand, they have no strong motivation, interest or pressure to learn Uyghur; they couldn’t see the benefits or loss from it”.

English is one of the international languages; it influences life in various aspects. Although the policy makers admitted English is an essential tool for the future, they still believed enhancing Mandarin Chinese was the most urgent task for them. English learning might put in subsidiary place. The policy maker (HP-1) said: “because of the particular location of XUAR and the situation now, the very first important task for minority students is to learn Mandarin Chinese well, at least within the next 5 years, the focus in XUAR will still on bilingual education. English will be taken into account, but not now. And it is unavoidable and should be admitted that we have difficulty in adequate teachers; it is also one of the reasons why English is not offered in so many schools in Southern Xinjiang”. Another policy maker pointed out an interesting phenomenon that was although many minority students did not learn much English before in schools due to all kinds of reasons, they showed a high interest in learning it and some of them learned it in an excellent way. As an institutional level decision makers (HP-4) who was the curriculum designer in TTU stated: “I feel puzzled that it seems many of the minority students have talent in learning English rather than Mandarin Chinese, they could learn English better than Han students, especially in speaking and listening. It is not a special case, I heard it from many practitioners from both schools and universities”.

As opposed to language teacher training in TTU, the policy makers still held the attitude that Mandarin Chinese is the most important language for the students. English should be acquired after they mastered Mandarin Chinese. In terms of medium language of instruction for teaching and learning English, the curriculum designer (HP-4) in TTU presented that: “almost all the teachers including minority teachers learned English via Mandarin Chinese; all the textbooks related to English learning are in Mandarin Chinese, no Uyghur as the medium language for instruction in textbooks; and most of the resources used Mandarin Chinese to facilitate their English learning. In this sense, it is unlikely to use another language as the medium language for instruction except Mandarin Chinese”.

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To sum up, the data of the current research showed that both national and regional governments had made efforts to promote the national language which is Mandarin Chinese; it was always seen as the priority during language learning of minority students. The minority students at the tertiary level perceived the importance of Mandarin Chinese in terms of its economic and political aspects as well as for their future employment. However, minority students faced great difficulty in adopting their second language, Mandarin Chinese, to learn English language and their university subjects during the training process. This was due to a number of reasons, for instance, an imbalanced educational development between northern and southern area in XUAR, and the typological distance between different languages. With regard to the English language, which is a foreign language for both groups, it was appeared that there was high motivation to learn it, although the minority students faced more difficulties than the Han students due to their lack of proficiency in Mandarin Chinese as well as the lack of, or limited English education in earlier schooling.
Chapter Five: Discussion and Recommendations

This chapter will discuss the major findings relevant to the three initial research questions regarding policies, school practice, and attitude and perceptions relating to trilingual education in XUAR, in China. It offers an interpretation of the findings in the context of the aims of the study with reference to the literature. The implications of the findings for policy and practice in order to inform current and future key stakeholders are presented. Limitations of this research and indications of where further research should be undertaken in this field have also been included in the last section of this chapter.

5.1 Highlighting and discussing major findings

5.1.1 Policy aspect

Based on the policy document analysis in previous chapter, the findings indicate that the national and regional policies (XUAR) with regard to language and language education are, in official documents, supportive for multilingual education. During the implementation of these policies, they rigorously promote Mandarin Chinese first of all, although preservation of local minority languages and culture is also written in the official policy documents. Meanwhile, foreign language courses are mentioned in policy documents to be added into the school curriculum from Year 3 onwards in primary schools. However, during the implementation of these policies in practice, the autonomous government in XUAR listed two models of bilingual education for ethnic minority students, which are (i) mainly adopting their minority language (L1) as medium of instruction (MoI) to teach school subjects (Model 1) and (ii) focusing on teaching all the subjects in Mandarin Chinese except for minority language literacy (Model 2). Model 2 is stated explicitly as the preferred and aimed-for model, where Mandarin Chinese and minority languages are not on an equal stage. Mandarin Chinese is the priority in Model 2, although the minority language is not entirely ignored in the policy documents.

English language courses were offered in schools where Mandarin Chinese is the medium language for instruction; however, for most of the schools where the Minority language is used as the medium of instruction, English language courses were not listed in their curriculum. According to the findings of this research, when implementing these policies at university level, the focus was exclusively on Mandarin Chinese; no minority language was included as a course in the curriculum for minority students. With regard to Han students, although it was indicated that a minority language course was included following the two curriculum modifications, there was no specific requirement either for assessing the teachers’ teaching or for students’ learning outcome regarding this course.
The findings of this study, first of all, have some implications for language policies in China. The policies at both national and regional levels regarding language education in China show on paper, that minority students would benefit from trilingualism. However, there were discrepancies among these policies at local levels in the ethnic minority regions of China (Adamson, 2015). XUAR is one of the Special Administrative Regions in China, where the minority group are supposed to have considerable autonomy in educational policy making. This autonomy would allow them to design the policies which meet the needs of ethnic minority groups, in accordance with the general principles formulated by the state. Each autonomous region will make various specific programming choices and implementation methods to take steps toward multilingual education at local level in accordance with their practical conditions, for instance, models of bilingual/ trilingual education, the curriculum contents and medium of instruction for teaching subjects, etc. (Ma, 2009; Adamson and Feng, 2009). The autonomous power can serves to provide linguistic strength to minority groups, empower non-Han members, preserve the group’s cultural integrity and help boost China’s global competence, meanwhile, it can lead to impose the national language on a minority group at the expense of the minority language, and result in a depreciative or subtractive model of trilingual education as well (Feng and Adamson, 2015), if not implemented properly in practice.

The process of implementing trilingual education in reality does not necessarily lead to beneficial outcomes in that regard. These three languages in relation to each other were not dealt with properly during the process of implementing trilingual education, in order to benefit the students. On the one hand, the importance of Mandarin Chinese can never be overstated during the process of learning languages in XUAR. All students, including ethnic minorities, have to learn Mandarin Chinese not only because it is advocated as an inter-group language in China for the purpose of communication among all ethnic groups, but also because it is a prerequisite for university study and for future opportunities. It is the main language for teaching and learning in the universities. Besides its predominant in the educational settings, Mandarin Chinese is regarded as a facilitator for economic development through commercial interaction with the other ethnic groups and the other regions in China, according to the view of many leaders in ethnic minority regions (Adamson and Feng, 2009). Therefore, Mandarin Chinese carries high political, cultural and economic capital. On the other hand, although Minority languages seem to be treated equally as Mandarin Chinese on paper in the national and regional documents, the situation is different during the process of the implementation. It is shown clearly in this study that none of the minority languages were included, as were Mandarin Chinese and English, in the curriculum for ethnic minority students in trilingual teacher training in TTU.
Before discussing how the language policies involving English are implemented, it is necessary to note some of the educational challenges arising from the point of view of typological distance, which was introduced in the Literature Review chapter. As a general rule, languages that belong to the same language family have greater similarities with each other than those that are in different families. In the case of the former, there is more chance of positive language transfer which potentially facilitates the target language acquisition for the learners (Ytsma, 2001). As Grimes and Grimes (1993) stated that linguistic distance between Chinese and English is exceeded only by the distance between Japanese and English. Chinese is a logographic and tonal language; it has little in common with English with regards to vocabulary and grammar aspect (Adamson, 2015). The vast difference between the structures of Chinese and English may well be a major causal factor for the difficulty and challenge that Chinese learners are facing during their English language learning. The Uyghur language, which was most participants’ mother tongue in this study, is part of the Turkic language family and is closer to English than Mandarin Chinese, as Sunuodula and Feng (2011) pointed out. However, according to the survey results in the present study, these ethnic minority students had to learn English through Mandarin Chinese. Thus, we see two factors that clearly hinder the third language acquisition for the minority students. First, as discussed in the Literature Review chapter, it is very likely that huge typological distance between Mandarin Chinese (MoI) and English as the target language, causes difficulty in language transfer. Second, worse still, Mandarin Chinese is their weaker language.

The English language, as an international language, was promoted through various initiatives and institutionalized forces. Competence in English becomes one of the requirements for accessing to higher levels of education and getting promotion (Adamson, 2015). In some universities, passing an English proficiency test is one of the requirements for students in order to graduate, irrespective of their subject (Adamson and Xia, 2011). According to the present study, in XUAR, English language courses were offered in Mandarin Chinese medium schools, which Han and Min kao Han minority students attended. Nonetheless, in schools where minority languages were used as the medium of instruction, English was provided only where resources permitted. Unfortunately, according to the situation as presented in the findings of the present study, most of the minority language medium schools were in the Southern part of XUAR, where it is known that the resources, such as qualified teachers, teaching materials and equipment for language teaching and learning, are in short supply. This means that ethnic minority students attending schools in that region were less likely to have an opportunity to learn English, as was reported in their interviews in this research. Although less or limited opportunity was offered for the ethnic minority students to gain access to English language learning compared to Han students, it remains a requirement
that they have to demonstrate certain levels of English language ability (e.g. CET 4 and CET 6 certificate) in order to continue with their postgraduate studies, to gain promotion or even to acquire jobs in the first instance. It is apparent that this “one-size-fits-all” model may cause barriers for minority students during both language learning process and future career development.

Issues surrounding language in education are crucial. As Edwards (2004) stated, language policies can serve to provide minority groups with enhanced access to mainstream opportunities; at an equal chance, they can result in social disadvantage and marginalisation as well. The minority languages could be well supported in the formal education system if the regional government made a genuine effort to encourage the ethnic minority groups to sustain their linguistic and cultural heritage, which is desirable for social harmony. Meanwhile, competence in the national language, Mandarin Chinese, could also be developed because the ethnic minorities want to have access to the opportunities raised by China’s development. Added to the mix is English, which is supposed to be included in the school curriculum from Grade 3 in Primary schools since 2002. When implemented appropriately, a strong model such as the Accretive or Balanced model of trilingual education (see Feng and Adamson, 2015) may well be set up and to help the students become trilingual; this is a strong model which would lead to additive trilingualism.

As discussed in the Literature Review chapter, additive trilingualism in ethnic minority dominated regions in China should aim for students’ development of very strong competences in both minority languages and Mandarin Chinese, and peer appropriate competence in English comparing to that of the peers of the majority Han group (Feng and Adamson, 2015). Meanwhile, opportunities of wide usage and importance for life opportunities should be given to both minority language and Mandarin Chinese, not only for one language, Mandarin Chinese. Furthermore, the new language proficiency could be built upon the proficiency of the existing languages (Feng and Adamson, 2015), which, in the context of this study means that English language (L3) learning should be built upon students’ mother tongue - Uyghur (L1) - and/or Mandarin Chinese (L2) if the latter is adequately developed. Sufficient evidence (Zhang, et al., 2015; Finifrock, 2015) shows that the three languages or more can be well developed subsequently or in a more balanced approach without leading to the development of one language at the expense of another. As Feng and Adamson (2015) pointed out that strong models would lead to effective educational outcomes, with the potential social, political and economic benefits for students. According to the results of the present study and the theory reviewed, we could confidently argue that current policies at the regional/ prefectural levels make and adopted in schools and universities in XUAR are inadequate and there is an urgent need for policy adjustment.
5.1.2 School practice aspect

With regard to the school practice, several important issues stood out in such major aspects in trilingual teacher training as imbalance in educational development, medium of instruction, curriculum design, and teacher training. Perceptions on the need for trilingual teachers, especially ethnic minority teachers are also worth highlighting.

Imbalance in educational development

First of all, the data from the present research suggest that imbalance in educational development, with the focus on language aspects, exists among areas in XUAR. As discussed in the previous Data presentation chapter, the geographical distribution of ethnic groups in comparatively compact communities greatly influences the quality of language education at local schools; there are considerable differences regarding language education between the Northern and Southern XUAR in terms of resources, teachers, teaching materials, etc.; this information were demonstrated from both literature review and the current study. Demographically, the Han Chinese tend to live in cities and towns in Northern XUAR, whereas minorities generally concentrate the sparse oasis villages of the Gobi Desert in Southern XUAR (Ma, 2009). On one hand, as Ma (2009) stated, Han schools take great advantages from schools, universities in coastal areas of China, and recruiting qualified teachers in developing teaching materials and textbooks; it is more likely that the teaching quality of schools in big cities in XUAR is higher than that of the county-level schools. Thus, it can be seen that there is still certain distance to balance the development of education between the Northern part and Southern part of XUAR, and to make up the difference between minority schools and Han schools in XUAR. On the other hand, most of the Uyghurs are mainly inhabited in the areas of Aksu, Kashgar and Hotan of southern XUAR, where the Han forms up less than 10% of the local population (Ma, 2009). The small Han population and the lack of Mandarin Chinese sociolinguistic interaction in the southern part of XUAR makes language education especially bilingual education more important and difficult in that area. The minority students there do not have many opportunities to get in touch with Han inhabitants and Mandarin Chinese. Even those Uyghur officials and teachers who learned Mandarin Chinese at schools or got special Mandarin Chinese training sessions in universities find their Mandarin Chinese level declining when working in such a linguistic environment. As such, the development of bilingual education in these areas, as noted in the current study, is extremely imbalanced and difficult. That explains why the proficiency of Mandarin Chinese among the participants who came from different regions of XUAR in the present study was significantly different.
Medium of instruction(s)

Secondly, regarding the medium of instruction(s), ideally, the language(s) for instructions should be adopted effectively for different subjects to fit for different purposes, so that the language proficiency of students in all the three languages would reach a satisfactory level when they graduate from the school (Zhang, et al., 2015). When considering the medium of instruction for language acquisition as previously discussed in the Literature Review chapter, some scholars pointed out that when instruction was conducted through the students’ native language (L1), it tends to result in positive linguistic and academic outcomes (Cummins, 1988; Xiao 2003; Duan, 2011; Ye, 2013; Kirkpatrick and Chau, 2008; Wang and Kirkpatrick, 2013). Thus, it was perceived to be a better option to learn school subjects. Several countries, as well as individual regions had adopted students’ L1 as the MoI for multilingual education in order to facilitate students’ understanding and increase their motivation (such as the Philippines, Malaysia and Hongkong). Whereas, some other researchers also suggested that if L2 was a strong national language and if a learner possessed a high level of proficiency (Sanz, 2000; Sun and Liu, 2012, discussed in Literature Review chapter), it could also be adopted as MoI, especially typologically when L2 is close to L3. For example, in the case of Basque, Spanish was usually adopted as MoI to learn English (L3) instead of the Basque language, it is due to Spanish is a Romance language, and English a Germanic language they are typologically closer to each other than to Basque (Cenoz, 2001). However, according to the findings of the present research that minority students’ mother tongue (Uyghur) is typologically closer to English than Mandarin Chinese, and minority students expressed their strong willingness to use Uyghur in order to not only facilitate their study, but also show their identity and affection, as illustrated in the case in XUAR. Adopting the mother tongue (L1) as the MoI is a preferred language for language learning and teaching, so that minority students’ learning would not be negatively affected due to their low proficiency in Mandarin Chinese (L2) as presented in the Data presentation chapter.

As Cenoz and Valencia (1994) argued, if the language adopted for medium of instruction is effective in promoting proficiency in target language learning, the transfer of this proficiency to target language will occur if there is adequate motivation and exposure. In a multilingual environment, it seems unnatural and ineffective to forbid translanguaging in lecturing and to allow use of only one particular language as the medium of instruction. According to the data from both the questionnaire survey and the interview, limited Mandarin Chinese proficiency is the bottleneck problem for minority students to learn university subjects and English language. 54.8% of the minority students clearly showed their difficulties in using Mandarin Chinese as MoI to learn English; more than half (54.8%) of the students stated they couldn’t understand the lectures either in Mandarin Chinese or in English as MoI. In this sense,
whether Mandarin Chinese should be adopted as the sole medium of instruction by the TTU to promote effective language learning in multilingual teacher training programme is questionable. Furthermore, instruction through the minority language should be also considered as an option for new language learning, for instance, English language learning; it has proven to have positive linguistic and academic outcomes when students’ native heritage or indigenous languages are used as the medium of instruction (Cummins, 1988) (cited in Cenoz and Valencia, 1994). Wang and Kirrkpatrick (2013) also suggested ways of using the mother tongue to play a positive role in English language acquisition if handled appropriately. However, if the MoI issue cannot be dealt with properly, the students with low levels of proficiency in Mandarin Chinese would struggle with regard to their language acquisition and be negatively influenced in academic study in general. The language barrier in their studies would still exist until they reached a certain level of Mandarin Chinese proficiency. Consequently, the quality of the training classes evolved in this teacher training programme in TTU would be affected.

**Curriculum Design**

Thirdly, the findings also suggest that there is much to be desired with regard to curriculum design. Although in general the stakeholders are in favour of trilingual and multilingual education, it appears that the university (TTU) has not set up a well-structured model in terms of allocating a balanced amount of time to the three different languages across the curriculum. During the first year in TTU for minority students, Mandarin Chinese was the only language they needed to learn. From the second year, Mandarin Chinese courses still took up 7% of the whole. English language courses took up approximately 42% of all the classes in the curriculum. It can be seen that this is not a well-structured and balanced curriculum for teacher training (see Table 5.1). The principle aim of this trilingual teacher training programme is to train the trainees to be trilingual teachers for XUAR, Southern XUAR in particular where 83.02% of the inhabitants are the minority, with 79.57% of those minorities being Uyghurs. Thus, the trained students who were involved in this training programme would be very likely to work after their training in ethnic minority areas, such as Southern XUAR. For the students who would be the future language teachers in ethnic minority dominated areas, minority language courses are clearly crucial for both Han and minority students. Unfortunately, they were symbolically offered to Han students. Minority language courses were not offered to minority students at all, although they had a strong desire to learn it (90.5%; Data presentation and Analysis chapter) according to the data collected. I therefore reiterate that acquiring a minority language, for instance, Uyghur, would be absolutely necessary to better prepare all trainees for future employment.
Table 5.1 Allocation of three languages in the curriculum for Han and minority students (2012-present)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Total lectures</th>
<th>General courses</th>
<th>Language learning</th>
<th>Other skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Han</td>
<td>2521</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>Mandarin: 2%</td>
<td>English: 44.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority</td>
<td>2569</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>Uyghur: 2.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the trilingual teacher training process, Han students were taught courses in all subjects using Mandarin Chinese as well as one foreign language course, which is English. Uyghur language courses were offered as a subject to Han students in the last semester, which took 2.5% of the teaching hours in the curriculum. Seen from the perspectives of the demands for language ability in employment market in the local region and the future development of XUAR, Han students in minority areas, such as Southern XUAR which is inhabited mostly by Uyghur people, should be offered a more substantial course of the minority language. From this point of view, according to the research findings, it was quite a sensible curriculum design to offer the Han students in TTU the Uyghur language course. However, Uyghur language course was only offered in the last semester (the sixth semester) in the curriculum, with limited lecturing hours (2.5%) before they end up with their training; it was not available throughout the academic years. Furthermore, no further explicit requirements or assessments were required, such as students need to achieve certain level of Uyghur proficiency to pass this course including both oral and written aspects. The quality of Uyghur language teaching and learning still needs to be re-assessed according to the feedback obtained from the participating students in the subsequent interviews. They stated frankly that they still could not conduct simple communications in Uygur after one-year of Uyghur language learning, with the exception of greetings. Furthermore, considering the instrumental function of language in a multi-ethnic environment, mastering a local minority language and minority culture, for instance, Uyghur language, is without doubt important to the employment prospects and personal career paths of the Han and minority students who prefer to work in local areas after graduation from the University.

It is worth noticing that there were large portions of ‘General courses’ (21%) and ‘others skills’ (30%) which in total took up over a half of the lecturing hours (51%) in the curriculum; they were also compulsory courses for both Han and minority students. The percentage of these courses in the curriculum is extremely high and has never dropped down since 2007. According to the curriculum document, ‘General courses’ showed in the
curriculum included Conspectus of Mao Thinking, Principles of Marxism Political and Economic Theory, and so on. ‘Others skills’ referred to the skills related to being a teacher in the future which included Computing, Cultivation of Professional Ethics of Teachers, Appreciation of Music and Art and Internship, and so on. Patterns in these data have been explicitly presented in the Data presentation and Analysis chapter (see section 4.4.2). It is admitted that there is a necessity for citizenship education at university level given the socialist nature of the political system, and for skills in order to equip trainees to be future teachers. However, it is questionable as to whether or not there is any flexibility in these parts of the curriculum, especially ‘General courses’ part. A curriculum designer of this trilingual teacher training programme in TTU also questioned this issue; however, that seems to be the rigid policy imposed down in the curriculum. As the three languages’ learning hours amounted to only 49% of the curriculum, whether this flexibility can be promoted in the academic study and language use or pedagogy and cultural contexts, needs to be explored further. Of course, I am fully aware that this is more a political question, than an education question.

**Recruitment of more Trilingual Teachers**

Finally, according to the findings discussed in the previous chapter, more trilingual teachers, especially ethnic minority teachers with competence in three languages, are needed in order to facilitate the students’ language learning in Mandarin Chinese, minority language and English. As the students reported in the interviews, ethnic minority teachers who are trilingual are more likely to recognize and understand students’ difficulties during the language learning process because they may well have experienced similar learning difficulties themselves. Consequently, they are more likely to adopt suitable teaching methods to teach ethnic minority students compared to bilingual Han teachers. It was also expressed by minority students during the interview that it was very much appreciated that some Han teachers could speak some Uyghur, even if a little or only for greetings. Their effort to speak Uyghur would make minority students feel warm inside, and this resulted in a greater show of respect and affection towards these teachers. Therefore, recruitment of more trilingual teachers of both ethnic minority and Han should be taken into consideration in TTU.

**5.1.3 Attitude/ Perception**

Most of the participants presented positive attitudes toward all three languages and trilingual education. With regard to the national language, Mandarin Chinese, almost all the key stakeholders including policy makers, teachers and students perceived its importance for personal development, economic development, and for regional and national unity, as well as stability. It should be noted that positive attitude and enthusiasm shown by Minority people
towards Mandarin Chinese is very valuable. On the one hand, it offers the opportunity for people from all ethnic backgrounds in China to strengthen inter-ethnic communication and so as to promote national unity. On the other hand, considering it from the present employment point of view, the trainees’ improved Mandarin Chinese level will have positive consequences on their employment prospects. As stated in Ma (2009)’s research, one of the officials in the Bureau of Labor and Employment department said, “Speaking even a little Mandarin Chinese will make the employment of students easier” (p. 230).

For the minority language, different views among Han and minority students appeared in the survey. Approximately 60% of the Han students thought learning a minority language might be necessary if you would work in the region of XUAR; nearly one third of them were not sure if they would benefit from learning a minority language. However, with regard to minority students, although they had open minds towards learning other languages, such as Mandarin Chinese and English, over 90% of the minority students believed that it was a must for acquiring their mother tongue in being a member of a minority group; they have strong willingness to know more about its related history and culture at tertiary level. As discussed in Literature Review chapter (see section 2.5), language offers a person the opportunity to appreciate and participate in different cultures. Meanwhile, it allows a person to identify with each group or neither group; and it may cause problems for some bilinguals related to ethnic identity, cultural identity and self-identity (Baker and Jones, 1998), even worse, identity conflict as well. It was clearly presented in the interviews of the present study that minority language (Uyghur) was definitely regarded as the symbol of minority students’ identity; participated minority students in this research expressed that they would judge their peers as being a ‘real’ Uyghur or not according to their capability of speaking fluent Uyghur or not.

With regard to English, both Han and minority students recognized its importance in the global world and showed their great interest in learning it. However, the findings of the survey showed that female students displayed more interest than male students towards learning English, although there was a sampling bias in favour of females due to the fact that there were only 41 male students in existence among approximately 500 students in total (see Methodology chapter), and therefore this trend should not be overstated.

To sum up, it can be concluded that most of the key stakeholders held positive attitudes towards the three languages; and the participating key stakeholders showed, on the whole, positive attitudes to language teacher training. However, awareness of the importance of minority language needs to be raised among Han students. These attitudes, and the increasing institutional support for the minority language, such as Uyghur, could create an additive cultural and social context that aids language education and teacher training.
5.2 Recommendations and suggestions

The data and research findings reported in this thesis have strong implications for policy-making and Continuous Professional Development (CPD), as far as TTU is concerned. The implications that follow below reflect the concerns which emerged from comments by the key stakeholders involved in the trilingual teacher training programme in TTU in XUAR. These are also implications for policy making, for trilingual education and trilingual teacher training, and for the future Continuous Professional Development (CPD) in XUAR.

5.2.1 Policy perspective

The data of this study lead to the following implications and recommendations regarding policy implementation.

There is a need to ensure guidance are provided on how to implement written policies in practice. The national policies for implementing bilingual and multilingual education is expressed as guidelines on paper, however, there seems to be a lack of practical guidance on how to implement these policies as a whole in practice. Currently state policies are not always followed closely in the practice of bilingual and multilingual education in schools and universities. Bilingual education and multilingual education should not be seen as a short-term intervention but a long-term commitment towards an effective model from primary through to the tertiary level. It is understandable that there is no ‘quick fix’ to removing all barriers to students’ languages’ learning. However, it should be suggested here that policy-makers should revisit the time-frame of trilingual teacher training programmes because an effective trilingual teacher training would not be achievable and sustainable without considering about and planning it in a long-term commitment. Meanwhile, university leaders and the other concerned authorities should consider whether or not this training programme, as it is presented currently, is the best programme for facilitating learning by students with complex difficulties, for instance, different proficiency levels of three languages, different learning background with regard to three languages and difficulties in learning English through Mandarin Chinese as MoI, etc. as discussed in the Data presentation chapter, so as to enable them to become good trilingual teachers in future. The trilingual teacher training programme in TTU may best be implemented with continuous support and sustainable improvement rather than only perusing students’ language proficiency achievement in a short-term.

Meanwhile, two trends deserve attention during the policy promulgation and implementation. The first tendency, is the lack of a normative and explicit of teaching demands that bilingual and multilingual education aims for at both national and regional levels, can lead or in certain
cases has led to a messy teaching situation (Ma, 2009). Secondly, the regional differences between southern and northern XUAR should not be ignored during promulgating and implementing the policy. The unified regulations are formulated without taking cautious account of the realities of some of the areas, leading to their failure to be implemented in the local areas. Even within the same Autonomous region, such as XUAR, it is very likely that it might be a suitable policy for the situation in Northern XUAR, but not for the Southern part. To overcome these problems, it is suggested that the policy should be research-led and made on this basis; more field research and investigations are needed. Meanwhile, continuing funding and financial support are vital and necessary for the development of multilingual education and trilingual teacher training in XUAR in terms of student training and resources.

5.2.2 Practice perspective

A research-based scientific attitude, with considering about practical conditions, should be adopted in order to implement trilingual teacher training and adjust pragmatic running approaches appropriately at the university level in XUAR. The data support the following recommendations relating to the practical aspects of delivering trilingual education in universities.

The major argument that I could confidently make is, conceptually, English language teachers training at TTU in XUAR should be trilingual teacher training. From the literature and language policy review of the current research, it can be found without doubt that all the three language play their own roles and should be equally important in the English language teachers training programme at TTU in XUAR. Uyghur (L1), which is most of the minority students’ mother tongue, is crucial for addressing cognitive and affective needs of the minority student trainees and for ensuring survival of Han trainees in their future workplace; Mandarin Chinese (L2) is the national lingua franca that is vital politically and economically; English (L3) is not only significant as an international lingua franca, but the language the trainees will teach in local area after they graduate. In this sense, I argue that all language teacher training programmes for minority regions should be trilingual or multilingual. Thus, the thesis title of my research should be on trilingual language teacher training instead of English language teacher training. This original argument is important not only for conceptual development, but also for its strong implications for defining the educational aim of similar English language teacher training programmes and for developing the curriculum.

The following recommendations (from one to five) are made to support my above major argument for developing the English teacher training programme into a truly trilingual teacher training one in XUAR.
Firstly, large numbers of qualified L3 (English) teachers and L2 (Mandarin Chinese) teachers are in need to be recruited. The review and findings of the current research strongly indicates that there is a clear South-North divide in language provision. The minority regions in the South in particular urgently needs large numbers of qualified L3 (English) teachers from the point of view of equality in education. In fact, they also need highly qualified L2 (Mandarin Chinese) teachers, as many minority students in my study were still at inadequate proficiency, even weak, at L2 after years of Mandarin Chinese learning. These teachers should have mastered two or more languages and are skilled in the general principles and methodology of bilingual or trilingual teaching, as the needs raised by both participating students and teachers in TTU (see Data presentation and Analysis chapter). Although L2 teacher training is not the focus of my research, it would affect or has already influenced the implementation of trilingual teacher training in XUAR.

Secondly, the trainees’ L2 proficiency should be enhanced by all means during the training process in order to achieve additive trilingualism during trilingual teacher training in XUAR. As Mandarin Chinese is stipulated in the documents to be the MoI for the major courses, students have to achieve adequate Mandarin Chinese proficiency in order to function well with all major studies during the training process. (i) The present model is promoting all the minority students with different levels of languages proficiency into the same pre-session courses for one year in order to improve their Mandarin Chinese, and then directly transferring these students with different levels of Mandarin Chinese proficiency into trilingual teacher training. The unbalanced proficiency levels in Mandarin Chinese amongst students within the same class makes teaching and training difficult and their study is more likely to be predictably negative. (ii) Along with the overall development of trilingual teachers’ training, a learning series should be set up gradually in order to help them build a solid foundation of language learning including Mandarin Chinese and some basic English language knowledge. It should be dealt with in order to benefit the students in a long-term development perspective. As a consequence, the effect of this trilingual training should visibly improve. (iii) To avoid language difficulties, when enrolling students for trilingual teacher training programme, it might be a possible solution to present each prospective students with a Mandarin Chinese proficiency test in order to formulate the various language proficiencies within the class. This approach would make it easier for the teachers to carry out the training accordingly. According to students’ different language proficiency, it is also suggested that structuring students’ lesson content, and targeting students with less language proficiency accordingly, offering extra-curricular tuition or exercises, in order to support them achieve the goals as they were supposed to.
Thirdly, participating students’ demand that the minority language should be used as an option of MoI during the delivery of the lectures should be taken into consideration; it might be a realistic and practical approach which could lead to positive results. As revealed in the data of both questionnaire and interviews in the present study, currently, minority student trainees are seriously disadvantaged in their academic work at TTU because of the bottleneck effects of using only L2, their weaker language, as the MoI. This issue has to be addressed as soon as possible. Mandarin Chinese was adopted as the only MoI, the students with a very low level proficiency in Mandarin Chinese still had difficulties in understanding the lectures, and this point was implying that the training classes would be extremely difficult. It would result in the students losing interest in learning languages and major studies, and this might in turn result in the failure to assure the quality of students and the decline of effective teaching. The participating teachers in this research also pointed out that Uyghur language should be adopted as an option of MoI to emphasize or further explain key content points and terminology to students who have a low Mandarin Chinese proficiency (see in Data presentation and Analysis chapter); this can be a solution to regions that have been plagued with very few qualified teachers and students with low Mandarin Chinese for multilingual education. However, there are still not enough qualified multilingual teachers available to make it as a viable solution. More multilingual teachers are needed in order to improve trilingual teacher training in TTU.

Fourthly, to train qualified L3 (and L2) teachers for XUAR, I recommend that minority students’ L1 should be firmly integrated into the curriculum for any teacher training; the current trainers’ competence and awareness of minority language and culture need to be enhanced. Offering minority languages and cultures for both Minority and Han students as one of the modules in trilingual teacher training deserves much more serious consideration. As the major aim of the programme is to train future L3 teachers many of whom are expected to work in various minority regions in XUAR, all trainees, Han trainees in particular, should at least acquire an (upper) intermediate level of the minority language so as to enable them to communicate with minority school pupils and the local community. All the three languages, including Mandarin Chinese, the native language plus English language, should not only be taught but used as MoI, whenever appropriate, to enhance their languages’ acquisition.

Fifthly, there should be more efforts to be made to improve the curriculum in the following aspects. (i) Instead of lessening the effort of L2 teaching to minority students, that effort should be enhanced. In Years 2 and 3, for example, there might be some possibility that political and citizenship education, and other skills which took up 51% of the curriculum could be tapped into to create more effective and innovative ways for minority students to improve their L2. (ii) According to the findings from this research, many minority students
claimed that they failed to pronounce Mandarin Chinese correctly. It is recommended that phonetics might be necessary as an optional course to offer the students, along with other disciplines such as listening and writing. (iii) As trilingual teaching is a highly specialized field, it calls for specialized teaching methods and techniques. A teacher who can speak three target languages, which are Mandarin Chinese, minority language and English, will not necessarily make a qualified trilingual teacher. As discussed in the Literature Review chapter, trilingual teachers need to know how to use these target languages to deliver the effective lessons; they need to understand the language transfer during the language learning process. They also need to realize the differences which exist among a monolingual, a bilingual and a trilingual student in terms of learning preference, learning experience and motivation, etc.

Sixthly, another recommendation arising from the results of the present study is that textbook writing and revision of the teaching materials available for trilingual teacher training should be of prime consideration. Teachers who participated in this research complained that the textbooks and teaching materials regarding English language learning currently used are designed mostly for Han and Min kao Han students in XUAR. They seldom connected with local society or had relevance to everyday life within Uyghur community. As the investigative report by the Autonomous Region Bureau of Education (Ma, 2009) suggested, for practical considerations, specialized textbooks should be designed and developed for each curriculum subject, in order to promote multilingual teaching in XUAR. It should be taken into account that textbooks published by People’s Education Press still act as blueprint, even though some of the content and relativity is out of date. Revising the textbooks by removing sections dealing with ancient Mandarin Chinese, whilst on the other hand, it would pave the way towards the use of materials or texts dealing with more common daily situations within the local communities in XUAR. This would be helpful to promote and boost students’ interest and satisfy teaching demands. Additionally, the native language could be inserted in brackets after technical terms and glossaries of the two or more languages could also be attached at the end of the textbooks, so as to enable teachers and students to use and incorporate them in teaching and learning situations. The textbooks should also attach glossaries of the two or more languages at the end of the textbooks to facilitate immediate recall of words from both vocabularies.

Seventhly, more efforts should be made to improve teaching pedagogy. Some of the teaching approaches in the training class in trilingual teacher training programme were entirely exam-oriented and teacher-centered which lead to less efficient and unsatisfied teaching and learning outcomes. It has been revealed in the current research (see Figure 4.4.4 in Data presentation and analysis chapter) that 72.6% of the minority students strongly desired more engaging teaching approaches to learn languages (Questionnaire result) and more than half of
the observed lecture were the teacher talk (62.5%) without any students group work, discussion or Q and A time (Classroom observation result). This has to be changed, innovative and engaging teaching methods should be sought out in order to make interest and motivate the trainees so as to improve efficiency and satisfactory of the current training programme.

**Finally**, better integration between minority students and Han students should be promoted. As claimed by participating students in the present research, 78% of both Han and minority students wanted to have more activities together, with a stronger willingness shown by minority students (87.5%) (see section 4.4.6 in Data presentation and analysis chapter). Better integration between minority and Han students would not only strengthen their language abilities they have acquired during the training, including Mandarin Chinese and minority languages, but also help increase the understanding and appreciation of their cultures from each other. It would contribute to their proficiency levels of these languages and be very likely to promote positive attitude towards the languages, so as to improve trilingual teacher training eventually.

5.3 Limitations of the current research

In the present study, great efforts have been made to make sure that the current research was conducted appropriately in order to present results with reliability and validity. I have tried to make explicit descriptions of how I understood the mixed-methods approach and how each step was implemented in this research. Reflection of positionality and reflexivity have also been incorporated in the methodology chapter in an attempt to increase the transparency and openness of data collection and analysis procedures in terms of how the data were collected as well as how the analysis was conducted, what findings were generated and how they were interpreted. However, limitations to this study also need to be acknowledged.

The first concerns that relatively a few interviews were carried out due to the sensitivity of the language issue and limited time in XUAR. The mixed-methods approach adopted in this research provided a powerful tool to investigate how (in)effective current policies and practices may be, and what the issues are in Trilingual Language Teacher Training programmes in XUAR. However, it should be acknowledged that, due to the sensitivity of the language issue in XUAR, only two interviews were conducted with the regional policy makers, in addition to one curriculum designer and one programme director. Their views, as expressed in this thesis, are therefore limited to their own experiences and may not generalized beyond a certain point. Moreover, only one interview was carried out with each of the participants. Given more time, further interviews would have been carried out, which might have elicited more in-depth and intimate details. Further research is now needed to
enhance the outcomes of the present study.

The second limitation concerns the sample size, which was bounded by the limited access to universities in XUAR and limitations of time as well. The investigation was conducted in one university in XUAR, China, although it is the main university for trilingual teacher training there, the sample size in this study was relatively small and restricted. One of the difficulties, which encountered when undertaking the research in XUAR, was getting the permission to carry out field research in universities. As I was a serving lecturer in TTU as well as being a researcher, my status made this research possible to be conducted in TTU. Meanwhile, I was aware of the need to minimize the potential influence on the responses of the participants; therefore, the concepts of positionality and reflexivity as reviewed in Methodology chapter were paid much attention throughout the whole research process. Therefore, the findings may not apply to other universities in the same region or other provinces in China. The situation of trilingual teacher training in other universities in XUAR may well be different and thus generalizability is rather limited and is acknowledged. However, on the other hand, the relatively small sample size enabled me to consider and explore data in depth and with detailed information of the individual cases, adding to the trustworthiness of the findings. As a stand-alone case study, the present study offers a clear insight into issues regarding trilingual education as it affects a particular context. The overarching goals of this investigation, as Riessman (2008) states, was to learn more about the general from the particular, and to inform overarching theory from a contextualised case, and this has been achieved.

5.4 Implications for Future Research on Trilingual Teacher Training

This research focused on evaluating a trilingual teacher training programme, identifying the challenges and issues during the implementation process, and providing recommendations based on the results drawn from this research. The findings shed light on key factors contributing to the success or failure of the trilingual teacher training programme in TTU, and contribute to the trilingual teacher training and trilingual education in XUAR, in China. The findings helped explore the implementation gaps which exist between the language policy as showed on paper, and what is actually practiced at university level, between university and school level, between school and classroom level, and inform policy directives in the future.

For further research, it would be valuable to conduct investigations of the following aspects:

a. It might be suggested that a relatively larger sample sized research could be carried out in order to enable generalization of the findings to other contexts and participants in other regions of China and other countries.
b. Because parents may have great influence on their children’s trilingual education, it would also be important to explore the participants’ parent expectations and perceptions. Listening to their voices might paint images of what is possible and expected in collaborative endeavour.

c. Due to XUAR’s great regional variation within the region, and especially in Southern part of XUAR with its low population density and high minority proportions, it would be helpful to conduct comparative studies among the universities in XUAR, especially in Southern and Northern XUAR. Furthermore, the comparative studies between XUAR and other minority dominated regions, for instance, Yunnan, Guizhou, etc., could also been carried out, in order to promote trilingual teacher training and trilingual education in China in a more effective way.

d. The current knowledge of trilingual teacher training could benefit from further research into this area, possibly the undertaking of a follow-up study with evaluate the recommendations and possible solutions in practice in XUAR, with a further sample of the trained trilingual teachers. Consideration could also be given to undertaking longitudinal research into whether the training gained during the trilingual teacher training programme is sustained over time.

e. Finally, trilingual teacher training in XUAR takes place in a context, which is complex, sensitive and multi-dimensional in its identity construction. The problems encountered by participating students and teachers could be put into dialogue with both practitioners and researchers in a more collaborative way. More research into trilingual teacher training is required and innovative research design and methods are also needed, which might be helpful to better address the issues and improve the Trilingual teacher training implementation in XUAR, in China.

5.5 Closing Remarks

This research aimed to add to the existing investigations on trilingual teacher training by locating the study in minority-dominated regions in the specific context of XUAR in China where there is a tension between the political agenda and educational ideals, so as to identify issues and effective models for English language teacher training in XUAR, China.

Through the adoption of mix methods, it allowed participants’ voices to be heard from different perspectives rather than only paying attention to either quantitative or qualitative data. The research collected individual voices from the main stakeholders involved in trilingual teacher training programme in TTU. In this way, a thorough ‘picture’ of a social situation could be built. Practically, the findings of such a research would improve the current practice from different perspectives, including curriculum design, language teaching and
learning and physical environment. Meanwhile, it could enable school leaders to make the decisions, which might be necessary for changes in practice to be undertaken.

Theoretically, this research attempted to critically engage relevant theories and concepts in trilingual education and trilingual teacher training literature, in the hope of contributing to the development of theoretical knowledge in relation to trilingual teacher training and teacher development. It benefitted from a mixed research approach, to form the triangulation to give voice to the main stakeholders in this programme, which contributed to a more humanistic approach in evaluating trilingual teacher training in China in terms of both research and practice.

Although the government’s trilingual language education policy and trilingual teacher training programme is generally supported by the public, there are no clear guidelines on how trilingual education and trilingual teacher training should be implemented effectively at the university level. This case study has revealed how trilingual teacher training programme is implemented in a particular university. Analysis of data collected from the surveys and interviews with the key stakeholders as well as classroom observations, suggests that all stakeholders hold a generally positive view towards the trilingual education and trilingual teacher training in the university. Meanwhile, it is clear that the government at both national and regional levels actively promote Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in education. The participants’ enthusiasm for learning Mandarin Chinese was noticeable. However, we should also call for caring for and maintaining the active and enthusiastic approach to supporting the minority language’s populace and being adopted in the educational settings, which is Uyghur in this case. On the basis of the findings, I have identified issues and suggested possible solutions and recommendations to address these issues in the process of trilingual teacher training. Facilitating and training students become successful trilingual speakers and trilingual teachers is by no means an easy task. We must contribute to efficiently running the trilingual education and trilingual teacher training programme in XUAR by virtue of a realistic attitude and collective endeavour.

My findings have provided a clear example of the challenges facing trilingual teacher training in a minority-dominated region in China. As a case study with the stated limitations, I would not claim wide generalizability. Having presented the findings and the arguments and recommendations which are solid grounded in the specific context, however, I feel confident to claim that the research has shed new insights in the area of trilingualism/ multilingualism and would be informative in formulating more effective policies for effective trilingual education and in developing a strong model for trilingual teacher training in the specific context of XUAR.
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Appendix 1

Appendices

Consent Form

Title of Project: Developing Trilingual Teacher Training in Xinjiang, China---Status quo, Issues and Challenges

Name, position and contact address of Researcher: Zhang Ping, Full-time EdD student at Bangor University, Rhos, Normal Site, Bangor University, UK LL57 2PZ

Please Initial Box

1. I have read and understand the information sheet provided above and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I agree to participate in this project and fill the attached questionnaire.

3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

4. I agree to the interview / focus group / consultation being audio/video recorded

5. I agree to the use of anonymized quotes from my interview/focus group/consultation in publications from this study

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

________________________  __________________________  __________________________

________________________  __________________________  __________________________

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Appendix 2

Information Sheet

Title of Project: Developing trilingual teacher training in Xinjiang---status quo, issues and challenges

Name, position and contact address of researcher: Zhang Ping, Full-time EdD student at Bangor University, Rhos, Normal Site, Bangor University, UK, LL57 2PZ

Aims and objectives of project:
The principal aim of this study is to understand the current practice so as to identify effective models for trilingual teacher training in the specific context of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (XUAR hereafter)
The findings will help develop the trilingual teacher training in a more effective way and will also inform language policy making and improve language planning in XUAR.

Methods
The research will involve a short questionnaire which includes choices and open-questions. It might take approximately 15 minutes to complete. There will be a follow-up interview which may take around 30 minutes. And classroom observation will also be conducted if necessary.

Data collection and management
Data will be collected through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation; these methods aim to yield both quantitative and qualitative data. All participants in the research project are completely voluntary. The collected data will remain anonymous throughout the project including any dissemination of material and be kept confidential and secure. The data resulting from the study will be kept in a password protected computer in researcher’s Bangor University account and be held in the UK. The data will be destroyed after 6 months later until the accomplishment of the thesis. In this way security is assured. Meanwhile, all participants have the right and freedom to withdraw at any time without prejudice or negative consequences.
If you would like more information or have any questions, please contact me by phone (07831666030) or by email (edp0d@bangor.ac.uk).

Thank you for kindly taking the time to read this information.
Dear XXX,

I am contacting you to invite you and ask for your written consent in permitting research on trilingual teacher training to be undertaken your college. The principal aim of this study is to understand the current practice so as to identify effective models for trilingual teacher training in the specific context of Xinjiang.

I would be very grateful if you would allow this research to be undertaken in your college. I can assure that the data would be treated as strictly confidential and no potential hazards exist. All results will be kept confidential, and anonymity is guaranteed throughout the research.

I attach an information sheet of this research for your information. If you wish to know more about the background to the research or have any questions, please contact me by phone (07831666030) or by email (edp0d0@bangor.ac.uk) without hesitation.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter! I look forward to hearing from you!

Yours faithfully,

Zhang Ping

EdD student at Bangor University
This research will promote the language education and teacher training in our college. So we are glad to accept the investigation.
Appendix 5

8 Awst/August 2013

Annwyl/Dear Zhang Ping

**Developing trilingual teacher training in Xinjiang—status quo, issues and challenges**

Diolch am eich cai diweddar i Bwylgwr Ymchwil Moseg CBLESS. Mae’r pwylgwr wedi ystyried eich cai, ac fe wyf yn awr mewn sefyllfa i roi caniatâd, ar ran Pwylgwr Ymchwil Moseg CBLESS, i chi gychwyn eich prosiec tymchwil.

Dymunaen dd i chi gyda’ch tymchwil.

Thank you for your recent application to the CBLESS Research Ethics Committee. The committee has considered your application and I am now able to give permission, on behalf of the CBLESS Research Ethics Committee, for the commencement of your research project.

I wish you well with your research.

Yours sincerely/Yn gywir iawn

**Diane Seddon**
Cadair, Pwylgwr Ymchwil Moseg CBLESS
Chair, CBLESS Research Ethics Committee
عappendix 6

توفيق شقراى: تشكير: (دأر ساق: مكتبة لفرانس) 137

من ذاكرت طائل سائق سائق لفرانس، فان هو، بعد تشكير، تشكير، نتبا، ماكتبة لفرانس.
توفيق شقراى: تشكير: (دأر ساق: مكتبة لفرانس) 137

1. ماكتبة لفرانس (دأر ساق: مكتبة لفرانس) 137
2. ماكتبة لفرانس (دأر ساق: مكتبة لفرانس) 137
توضیحات قسمی: سفزا تیر نیروی دریایی ایران در اهداف اندازه‌گیری تاریخ‌های جهانی فارسی‌سازی شده‌است.

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نکته: در این حالات نیز، سفزا تیر نیروی دریایی ایران در اهداف اندازه‌گیری تاریخ‌های جهانی فارسی‌سازی شده‌است.
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</table>
بهشته قسمی: یافشال

1. سر بر بیلبلی خانم ظلم تدابیرلی کورس تکاهیه‌شنده‌ین را نه؟ یا هگر مسند بولسا، سرنگه پانادیق یاوشالش.

2. سرنگه فایس خال تل کانگلوفسه سرک چاکد یاهم؟
   A. خانم ظلم، چاکد تلاکوک علی؟
   B. یاکی یوزریدشکی بارلیف صحابو؟
   C. سر نیستگا مسند دم فاررسی؟

3. چاکد تل خانم ظلم تکاهی تلی قاتارالنارنک کانگلوفسه سرک چاکد مؤسیلس ملکری - چیپنگه تریتی؟

4. تکاهیه‌یکان قاتاران کانگلوفسه سرک تکاهیه‌یکان کانگلوفسه مؤسیلس تلی یکه‌خوننارنگی تلی‌ریلی جمه‌ریتیکی
   پکته‌ارکی یاکی کونکرمت تدربویکریلی بایان فهلک.

5. ناشدیدکی تکاهیه‌یکان کانگلوفسه هدر قاتاران پکته‌ارکی پیریکنک

همکاری‌ها و دستورالعمل‌ها رهیافت!

140
学生调查问卷（少数民族）

我正在进行一项关于少数民族地区语言教师培养的研究，希望了解学校对学生的少数民族语言、汉语和英语的培训情况，以及你对于少数民族地区语言教师培养的想法。我确保不会泄露你的个人信息和意见，所以请真实回答此次调查中所提出的问题。本次调查所收集的数据仅用于研究。

第一部分：关于你和你的学校（请给出简短回答或在符合的情况□中打√）

- 你的性别： 男 □  女 □  民族： ________________
- 你所在的年级： 大学一年级 □  大学二年级 □  大学三年级 □  大学四年级 □
- 你的年龄： ___________
- 你的家乡： ____________  南疆 □  北疆 □  新疆以外的城市 □  新疆以外的农村 □
- 你的家乡属于： 城市 □  城镇 □  农村 □  其他 □，请指明 ____________
- 你父亲/母亲的职业是（选其中一人填写）： 政府机关，企业管理人员 □  普通职员 □  个体户 □  工人 □  农民 □  下岗，失业 □  家务 □  其他 □，请写出名称 ____________
- 在上大学之前，你是否学习过汉语？ 是 □  否 □  从何时开始： 幼儿园 □  小学 □  初中 □  高中 □
- 你在学校学习汉语的？ 跟父母学习的 □  跟身边的朋友学习的 □
- 你已学习汉语的年限： 1 年及以下 □  2-3 年 □  4-5 年 □  6 年以上 □
- 你已学习汉语的年限： 1 年及以下 □  2-3 年 □  4-5 年 □  6 年以上 □
- 你在一年预科学习结束后的 MHK 测试成绩为： ____________
- 在上大学之前，你是否学习过英语？ 是 □  否 □  从何时开始： 幼儿园 □  小学 □  初中 □  高中 □
- 你是如何学习英语的： 跟父母学习的 □  跟身边的朋友学习的 □
- 你已学习英语的年限： 1 年及以下 □  2-3 年 □  4-5 年 □  6 年以上 □

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<th>语言</th>
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<th>一般</th>
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<tr>
<td>英语</td>
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<tr>
<td>其他</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
第二部分：你对你的学校了解多少（请在□中打√或给出简短回答）

1. 学校是否教少数民族学生学习少数民族语言和文化? 是□ 否□
2. 学校有某门（些）课程是用少数民族语言讲授的吗? 是□ 否□
3. 学校的大部分或全部课程都是只用汉语讲授吗? 是□ 否□
4. 学校里对英语专业以外的少数民族学生教授英语吗? 是□ 否□
5. 你觉得学校对少数民族学生的语言以及他们的文化是否足够的重视? 是□ 否□
6. 你觉得学校对待少数民族学生和对待汉族学生一样吗? 是□ 否□

如果第6题的答案是“否”的话，他们在哪些方面受到的待遇不同?

_____________________________________________________________________

_____________________________________________________________________

第三部分：你的语言学习情况（请在□中打√或给出简短回答）

7. 你在上大学前，是否在学校学习过汉语? 是□ 否□
8. 你在大学第一年汉语预科学习结束后，是否通过MHK3级? 是□ 否□
9. 你在第一年汉语预科学习结束后，是否通过学校组织的汉语转段考试? 是□ 否□
10. 在转入专业课学习后，你是否能完全听懂教师用汉语进行专业课（如综合英语，英语语法课等）的讲授? 是□ 否□
11. 你在上大学前，是否在学校学习过英语? 是□ 否□
12. 你在高考报志愿时，是否将英语专业学习作为第一志愿? 是□ 否□
13. 你在高考录取时，是否调剂到英语专业? 是□ 否□
14. 你是否参加过校外汉语培训班? 是□ 否□
15. 你是否参加过校外英语培训班? 是□ 否□
16. 你觉得是否有必要参加校外汉语培训班? 是□ 否□

如果第16题的答案是“是”的话，你认为应参加的理由是什么? ________________

___________________________________________________________________________

17. 你觉得是否有必要参加校外英语培训班? 是□ 否□

如果第17题的答案是“是”的话，你认为应参加的理由是什么? ________________

___________________________________________________________________________

第四部分：你对于语言教育和语言教师培养的看法（请看左栏中各项表述并在右栏中选择最能代表你的观点的数字上画圈。1=完全不同意；2=不同意；3=不确定；4=同意；5=非常同意）

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>看法表述</th>
<th>完全不同意 …… 不同意 …… 不确定 …… 同意 …… 非常同意</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 我在上大学前，很想学习汉语，但没有机会和条件</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 我在上大学前，很想学习英语，但没有机会和条件</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 应在我校提倡少数民族语言和文化的教与学</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 应在我校更多加强汉语的教与学</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 应在我校强化英语的教与学</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 我校应更多选用少数民族教师，因为他们更</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
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<tr>
<td>了解少数民族学生的需求</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. 学校应该更多选用汉族教师，因为他们更有助于学生学习汉语，且他们专业水平较高</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. 在英语教学中，汉族老师的英语常常比少数民族教师的英语水平更好</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. 学校应聘用外教，以帮助学生英语口语和写作等方面的学习</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. 我很满意学院对语言教师培养的课程设置</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. 即使是在同一所学校中，汉族学生和少数民族学生应该有不同的学习大纲，因为他们的学习能力和程度不同</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. 我对汉语学习很有兴趣</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. 我对英语学习很有兴趣</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. 汉语学习教材生动有趣</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. 英语专业学习教材生动有趣</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. 汉语学习内容过于简单</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. 英语专业学习内容过于简单</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. 学校汉语课教师的教学方法应灵活多样，有待改进</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. 学校英语专业课教师的教学方法应灵活多样，有待改进</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. 在英语专业学习中，出现过教师用汉语和英语解释个别语言点都听不懂的情况</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. 预科汉语学习结束后，应通过相应用级别考试（如MHK3级）后，方可转入专业学习，有助于学生运用汉语进行专业学习</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. 我对完全用汉语进行专业课学习（如英语学习），没有困难</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. 在专业课学习中，我能流利使用汉语与同学和教师互动交流</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. 英语专业学习结束后，希望参加相应过级考试，如英语四级考试等</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. 我校应该有更多电脑和语言实验室及多媒体等教学设备</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. 为了我们更好的相互学习和融合，应多举办少数民族学生和汉族学生的互动交流联谊活动</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. 学校开设的第二课堂学习，有助于我的语言学习</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. 学校开设的第二课堂，在教学内容，教材，教师教学方法等方面有待改进</td>
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<tr>
<td>29. 我觉得学习汉语对将来就业或生活很有用</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. 我觉得学习英语对将来就业或生活很有用</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. 少数民族学生应该先了解他们自己的民族语言，然后再学习汉语和英语</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. 少数民族学生不用再学习少数民族语言和文化，只需要学好汉语和英语就够了</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. 毕业后我希望留在新疆做一名语言教师</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. 我对自己今后成为一名合格的英语教师充满信心</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
第五部分：其他

1. 你对一年的汉语预科学习是否满意？如不尽人意，你认为该如何改进？

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

2. 你认为哪种语言将来对你是最重要的
   A. 汉语，你的母语或者英语？
   B. 或者上述所有语言？
      你为什么这么认为？__________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

3. 请将母语，汉语和英语按照对你将来的重要性排序：
   ________  ________  ________

4. 您认为该如何提高您所就读学校教学质量、教师培养等方面的建议或具体措施

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

5. 请在这里写下您的任何其他意见

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

感谢您的参与！
Appendix 8

Questionnaire – Minority Students

This is a research project on language education, including minority language, Mandarin Chinese and English in Xinjiang in China. Your views on language education are what I wish to study. I assure that your personal identity will remain confidential. So, please feel free to give the most honest answers to the questions in this survey. The data collected from this survey will be used for research purpose only.

Part I – Something about You and Your University (Please write short answers or tick the boxes)

- Your Gender: Male □ Female □ Ethnic background: ……………………………
- Grade: Freshman □ Sophomore □ Junior □ Senior □
- Your age: ……………………………
- Your hometown: Southern part of XJ □ Northern part of XJ □ City outside XJ □ Countryside outside XJ □
- Your hometown: City □ Town □ Countryside □ Others, please identify………………
- Your father/mother’s occupation: Civil servant or administrative staff □ working staff in an enterprise □ doing his/her own business □ worker □ farmer □ out of work □ housewife □ others, please identify…………………………
- Had you learned Mandarin Chinese before you entered the university? Yes □ No □
  Whom did you learn from: parents □ friends □ school □ others, please identify
- How many years have you learned Mandarin Chinese? One year or below □ two or three years □ four or five years □ six years or above □
- Your MHK test scores after Yuke: …………………………………………………
- Had you learned English before you entered the university? Yes □ □ No □
- If yes, whom did you learn from: parents □ friends □ school □ others, please identify…………………………
- How many years have you learned English? One year or below □ two or three years □
• How good are you in these languages:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Fluent</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Limited</th>
<th>No knowledge at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mandarin Chinese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part II – How much do you know about your university** (Please tick the boxes or write short answers)

1. Does your university teach a minority language or culture to minority students?
   - Yes □
   - No □

2. Does your university use a minority language to teach any school subject(s)?
   - Yes □
   - No □

3. Is Chinese used as the only language to teach most or all school subjects in the school?
   - Yes □
   - No □

4. Is English language module offered as a subject to other minority students who are not English majors in the university?
   - Yes □
   - No □

5. Do you find that your university attaches sufficient importance to minority students’ home language and their culture?
   - Yes □
   - No □

6. Do you find that the university treat minority students in the same way as they do with Han students?
   - Yes □
   - No □

   If the answer to 5 is No, in what way they are treated differently?

**Part III – About Your Languages Learning** (Please tick the boxes or write short answers)

7. Have you learned Mandarin Chinese at school before you entered the university?
8. Have you passed level 3 of MHK test after one year’s extensive language learning on Mandarin Chinese (Yuke)?
   Yes □ No □

9. Have you passed the Mandarin Chinese test held by the university after Yuke?
   Yes □ No □

10. After you move from Yuke to English major studies, can you fully understand the major courses (such as extensive English, English grammar) in Mandarin Chinese?
    Yes □ No □

11. Have you learned English at school before you entered the university?
    Yes □ No □

12. Was English major your first choice when you took the College Entrance Examination?
    Yes □ No □

13. Were you reallocated to English major during recruitment to the University?
    Yes □ No □

14. Have you ever attended any extra training lessons related to Mandarin Chinese learning outside university?
    Yes □ No □

15. Have you ever attended any extra training lessons related to English language learning outside university?
    Yes □ No □

16. Do you think it is necessary to attend extra Mandarin Chinese training lessons outside university or not?
    Yes □ No □

   If the answer to 16 is Yes, what are the reasons?

17. Do you think it is necessary to attend extra English language training lessons outside university or not?
    Yes □ No □

   If the answer to 17 is Yes, what are the reasons?

**Part IV – Your Views on Languages Education and Language teacher training** (Please read the statement in the left-hand column and circle the number in right-hand column that
best reflects your view. 1 = strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Not sure; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Strongly disagree ……………… Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I was eagering to learn Mandarin Chinese before I entered the university, failed with lacking of chance and sufficient conditions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I was eagering to learn English language before I entered the university, failed with lacking of chance and sufficient conditions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Minority language teaching and learning should be promoted more seriously in my university.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mandarin Chinese language teaching and learning should be further enhanced in my university.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. English language teaching and learning should be improved in my university.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. More teachers of minority nationalities should be employed by the university because they understand minority students’ needs better.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. More Han nationality teachers should be employed by this university, because they can help students learn Mandarin Chinese better.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. During English language teaching, Han teachers have a higher level of English proficiency and knowledge than minority teachers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. More foreign teachers should be employed in order to help the students with oral and written English.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I am satisfied with the curriculum arrangement in our college with regard to language teacher training</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Han and minority students should have different syllabuses because they have different learning experiences in terms of three languages and their learning abilities differ.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am interested in learning Mandarin Chinese</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I am interested in English language learning</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The textbooks for Mandarin Chinese learning are interesting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The textbooks for English language learning are interesting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The teaching content in terms of Mandarin Chinese learning is very simple and easy.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The teaching content in terms of English language is very simple and easy.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The teaching methods of the Mandarin course teachers should be updated or changed</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The teaching methods of the teachers who are teaching English language should be updated or changed</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. It has happened that I could not fully understand the teachers’ teaching either in Mandarin Chinese or in English.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. We should be acquired to pass the test (such as MHK) in order to move on to the major study; it will be helpful for us to learn the major courses in Mandarin Chinese.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I have no difficulty in learning English major courses in Mandarin Chinese.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I could use Mandarin Chinese fluently to communicate with teachers and classmates during lectures</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I wish to take an English proficiency test before graduating from the university, such as CET 4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. More equipment, such as computers and language labs, should be provided for my college.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. There should be more activities with students of mixed nationalities so that we can integrate better.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. The second class modules (optional modules offered for students to choose according to their interest) helped me learn the languages better.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. The second class modules need to be improved including the textbooks, the content and the teachers’ teaching methods.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
29. Learning Mandarin Chinese is very useful for my future employment and everyday life.  
30. Learning English language is very useful for my future employment and living life.  
31. Minority students should know their own minority language first, then Chinese and English.  
32. Minority students do not need to learn minority languages and cultures; learning Mandarin Chinese and English sufficient.  
33. I wish to be a language teacher in Xinjiang after my graduation.  
34. I am confident I will be a qualified language teacher in the future.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29. Learning Mandarin Chinese is very useful for my future employment and everyday life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Learning English language is very useful for my future employment and living life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Minority students should know their own minority language first, then Chinese and English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Minority students do not need to learn minority languages and cultures; learning Mandarin Chinese and English sufficient.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I wish to be a language teacher in Xinjiang after my graduation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. I am confident I will be a qualified language teacher in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part V– Others**

1. Are you satisfied with your Yuke study (one year for extensive Mandarin Chinese learning only)? Any suggestions for it?

2. Which language(s) do you think is important for you?
   A. Mandarin Chinese, minority language or English?
   B. All the languages above

   Why do you think so

3. Please select the three languages in sequence in according to your opinion of their usefulness in terms of your future:

   Minority language  | Mandarin Chinese  | English
   ___________  | ___________  | ___________
4. Please write any comments on how to improve the practice of the university you attended or improve the language education and language teacher training

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

5. Please write any other comments here
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

Thanks for Your Time!!!
学生访谈提纲

采访日期: ..........................................................................................

采访中使用的语言: 汉语 □ 少数民族语言□ 其他语种. 请标明 ..........................

首先感谢您能够抽出时间接受这次采访。我们这次非正式的谈话是非常轻松随意的，请
您不要紧张。我这里为您准备了一些问题，同时谈话中您也可以提出一些问题。我们都
清楚这些辖区、乡镇拥有很大比例的少数民族或者隶属于少数民族管辖。我们正在做一
些关于少数民族学生语言特别是少数民族学生的语言学习, 使用和语言教师培训的调查
研究，因此，我们将要谈论的语言种类包括学生的母语、汉语和英语等。

问题:

1. 首先您能否简要的介绍一些自己?
   - 民族背景: .....................
   - 年级: ............................
   - 年龄: ..............................
   - 语言背景:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>流利</th>
<th>一般</th>
<th>有限</th>
<th>不会</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>汉语</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>少数民族语言</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>英语</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>其他语种</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. 课间您会使用哪种语言进行交流？
   可能继续深入的问题:
   • 为什么使用您的本民族语言？，或者为什么不使用您的本民族语言？

3. 课间您会使用哪种语言和汉族学生交流？
可能继续深入的问题：

• 为什么使用您的本民族语言？，或者为什么不使用您的本民族语言？

4. 在家时您会使用哪种语言和父母交流？
可能继续深入的问题：

• 为什么是使用您的本民族语言？，或者为什么不使用您的本民族语言？

5. 您是否在学校学过自己的民族语(L1)？
可能继续深入的问题：

• 您喜欢学您的民族语吗？
• 为什么？或者为什么不？

6. 您在学校使用和授课的主要语言是否是标准汉语(L1)？
可能继续深入的问题：

• 您喜欢把汉语作为主要的教学用语学习和使用它吗？
• 为什么？或者为什么不？

7. 您在学校是否学习英语(L3)？
可能继续深入的问题：

• 您喜欢学英语吗？为什么？或者为什么不？
• 什么时候开始学的（如从哪一年级）？
• 如何学习的（如每星期多少节课）？
• 您和绝大多数汉族学生一样是按照相同的教学大纲学习的吗？

8. 在学校老师用什么语言与您交流？
可能继续深入的问题：

• 在课堂上？
• 在课堂外？
• 您喜欢老师和您交流时所用的语言吗？

9. 您觉得哪种语言将来对您是最重要的？
   a. 汉语、您的母语或者英语？
   b. 或者上述所有语言？

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Appendix 10

Semi-Structured Interviews with Students

Date of Interview: …………………………………………………………………………

Language used for the interview: Chinese □ Minority Language □ Other. Specify …………………

Thanks for your time. I hope our conversation is informal and casual. Please do feel relaxed. Though I have some questions for you, you can also ask any question during our talk. We understand that this area, region or country is dominated, or has a large number of minority population. I am doing the research on the language learning, use and language teacher training in universities in this region. The languages we talk about include students’ home language, Chinese and English.

Questions:

1. Could you please first of all say something about yourself?

   • Ethnic background: …………………
   • Which grade: ………………………
   • Age: ………………………………
   • Linguistic background:


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fluent</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Limited</th>
<th>No knowledge at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. What language do you speak to each other after class?
   Possible probing questions:

   • Why your own language, or why not?

3. What language do you speak to Han students after class?
Possible probing questions:

- Why your own language, or why not?

4. What language do you speak to your parents at home?
Possible probing questions:

- Why your own language, or why not?

5. Do you learn your home language (L1) in the university?
Possible probing questions:

- Do you like learning it?
- Why? Or why not?

6. Is Standard Chinese (L2) the main language used and taught in your university?
Possible probing questions:

- Do you like learning it and using it as the main language for teaching?
- Why? Or why not?

7. Are you learning English (L3) at university?
Possible probing questions:

- Do you like it? Why? Or why not?
- When (from which Grade)?
- How (how many lessons per week)?
- Do you follow the same syllabus as the majority Han students?

8. What language(s) do the teachers in your university speak to you?
Possible probing questions:

- In the classroom?
- Outside the classroom?
- Do you like the language(s) the teachers use to speak to you?

9. Which language is the most important for your future?
   a. Chinese, your home language or English?
   b. Or all of them?
Appendix 11

Observation Sheet – 1

University Environment

1. University Background Data
   - University: .................................................................
   - College: .............................................................
   - Date: .........................................................

2. Observation Sheet for the Environment
   a) Language(s) predominately used in posters, wall papers, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>In Mandarin Chinese</th>
<th>In the Minority language(s)</th>
<th>In English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wall papers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University notices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University broadcast</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom posters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other. Specify.......</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

☐ Notes. ........................................................................................................

b) Language(s) predominately used in conversations between teachers
   - In Mandarin Chinese
     - In minority language(s)
   - Other. Specify............................................................................................

Do teachers code-switch between languages?       Yes ☐   No ☐
If yes, how often.

c) Language(s) predominately used after class between students
   - In Mandarin Chinese
   - In minority language(s)
   - Other. Specify............................................................................................

Do students code-switch between languages?       Yes ☐   No ☐
If yes, how often..............

d) Language(s) predominately used by school supporting staff (administrators, etc.)
   - In Mandarin Chinese
   - In minority language(s)
   - Other. Specify

3. Any other points
Observation Sheet – 2
Classroom Observation

1. Class Background Data
   - College: .................................................
   - Date: …… Time period observed: …………………
   - Total number of students in the class: ………
   - Gender balance (male-female): …………… Age range: …………………

2. Subject (English, Mandarin or another school subject): ………………………………

3. Language profile of students in the class
   Ethnic background of students:
   - What ethnic groups do students belong to by birth: …………………………………
   - Percentage of students who are of ethnic minority (ies): ……………
   - Percentage of students who are ethnic Chinese: …………… Language competence
   - If most of them are minority students, their level of HSK:  level 3 or below ☐ level 4 ☐ level 5 ☐ level 6 or above ☐ …………………
   - If they are Han students, percentage of students who can speak any of a minority language: ……………………………

4. Language profile of the teacher
   - Gender: ……………… Ethnic background: ………………
   - Highest education received: …………………
   - Teaching experience (years of being a teacher): …………………
   - How many lessons of teaching per week in total: …………………
   - Age range: 25 or below ☐ 26 to 35 ☐ 36 to 45 ☐ 46 and above ☐
   - Linguistic background:
     | Language        | Fluent | OK | Limited | Not knowing |
     |-----------------|-------|----|---------|-------------|
     | Chinese         |       |    |         |             |
     | Minority language|      |    |         |             |
     | English         |       |    |         |             |
     | Other           |       |    |         |             |

5. Teaching Aim and Textbook used
   - What is the aim of the subject taught?
     ………………………………………………………………………………
   - Textbook used?
     ☐ Standard textbook used nationally or regionally
     ☐ Textbook specially written for minority students

   Other. Please specify …………………………………………………

Observation Sheets for the Classroom
Activities in the Classroom:

6. In a classroom where English/Mandarin/other subject is taught, how does the teacher handle the class?
### 7. What seems to be the major approach the teacher uses in the classroom? (could tick more than one)

- Communicative language teaching approach (many oral interactions focusing on students’ oral skills)
- Task-based, student-centred language teaching approach (many group or individual tasks for students to complete using the target language)
- Grammar-translation language teaching (mainly explanations of language knowledge)
- Others. Specify…………………………………………………………………………………………

### 8. In a classroom where English/Mandarin/other subject is taught, how do the students respond to the activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Majority do well with interest</th>
<th>Majority manage, but with difficulty</th>
<th>Majority show no interest and get lost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short questions and answers between T &amp; Ss</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words and grammar explanation</td>
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<td>Group or pair work (tasks for them)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whole class or individual reading aloud</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asking students to work on blackboard</td>
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<tr>
<td>Audio/Video listening or watching</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other. Specify</td>
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Notes ……………………………………………………………………………………………
Language(s) in the Classroom:

9. Language(s) used by the teacher when addressing the whole class:

In a classroom where English/Mandarin/other subject is taught, the teacher explains words, text or grammar:
- All or predominantly in minority language
- All or predominantly in Mandarin Chinese
- In mixed languages (Mandarin Chinese and minority language)
- In mixed languages including English (Mandarin Chinese, English and minority language)
- All or predominantly in English
- Notes

In a classroom where English/Mandarin/other subject is taught, the teacher interacts with the students:
- All or predominantly in minority language
- All or predominantly in Mandarin Chinese
- In mixed languages (Mandarin Chinese and minority language)
- In mixed languages including English (Mandarin Chinese, English and minority language)
- All or predominantly in English
- Notes

10. Language(s) used by the students:

In a classroom where English/Mandarin/other subject is taught, the students interact with the teacher:
- All or predominantly in minority language
- All or predominantly in Mandarin Chinese
- In mixed languages (Mandarin Chinese and minority language)
- In mixed languages including English (Mandarin Chinese, English and minority language)
- All or predominantly in English
- Notes

In a classroom where English/Mandarin/other subject is taught, the students interact with each other in group work:
- All or predominantly in minority language
- All or predominantly in Mandarin Chinese
- In mixed languages (Mandarin Chinese and minority language)
- In mixed languages including English (Mandarin Chinese, English and minority language)
- All or predominantly in English
- Notes

11. Classroom Hardware:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Not too bad</th>
<th>Very poor</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom size</td>
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<td>Furniture</td>
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<tr>
<td>Others. Specify</td>
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Notes
### 12. Teaching Procedure

### 13. Effectiveness of the Lesson Observed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Points of good practice</th>
<th>Points for consideration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clarity of objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Planning and organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Methods/approach</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delivery and pace</td>
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<tr>
<td>Content (currency, accuracy, relevance, use of examples, level, match to students’ needs)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students’ participation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of space and</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
14. Any other points

End of Sheet 1
学生采访文字稿

访谈日期：20131025  访谈时间：8:00pm—10:00pm  访谈地点：学生会办公室

采访人：你有学过英语，上过英语课吗？
被采访人 B：从来没有

采访人：可以说你们上了大学第一次接触英语吗？
被采访人 B：我们班的学生大部分差不多都是这样的情况

采访人：你的家乡是哪里？
被采访人 B：喀什

采访人：你觉得是什么原因没有开英语课呢？
被采访人 B：有可能是没有老师的原因，我们在南疆

采访人：那你们当时想不想学习英语
被采访人 B：没想过

采访人：为什么没想过？学习英语没兴趣？
被采访人 B：学汉语都不是那么普遍的，在城镇中心有学校才上汉语课，别的学生都不上汉语课，但是我们班新来的老师汉语讲的特别好，我就觉得我们能学汉语是一个好事。想学英语也是不可能，所以我就没想过

采访人：但是如果有条件的话，你想学吗？
被采访人 B：啊，那当然啊，我也想学。比起别的课，我就很喜欢语言课，很喜欢英语课

采访人：汉语和英语相比，你觉得哪一个更有用？
被采访人 B：汉语！希望有更大的发展就是英语

采访人：你觉得民考汉和民考民的学生在相处起来有困难么
被采访人 B：看人吧，听说有的民考汉的学生在班里会受到一点排斥。

采访人：你自己觉得自己汉语程度怎么样？
被采访人 B：怎么说呢，我觉得不够流利，一般吧

采访人：母语？会说又会写，很好

采访人：英语呢？
被采访人 B：英语不好，觉得是有限

采访人：在课间的时候，你会用什么语言去跟你同学交流？
被采访人 B：我会用母语来交流

采访人：为什么？
被采访人 B：我周围的同学都是维吾尔族的，而且我们班大部分同学汉语都学的不是特别好。我们说了，他们反正是听不懂，用母语来跟他们交流是比较好一点的

采访人：你们是都上了预科么？
被采访人 B：可是上了预科我觉得在这个学校也是没必要的，上预科的学生在预科的老师讲课不是那么好，同学们的听课也不好，学的效果也不是那么好
采访人：预科结束以后有一个考试吗，考及格了才能进去专业课是吗？
被采访人 B：恩恩。有呢
采访人：那你们都通过了这样的考试，你们的汉语水平应该都没有太大的问题？
被采访人 B：不是那样的，我们一进这个学校，他们就说要考过三级乙等才能上专业。然后我们参加考试后，拿到三级乙等的同学可能不到一半，三分之一的学生才能拿到证，三分之一的就不能拿到，我们分院就自主考了一个考试，他们自己设定了的一个分数线。你自己考的好分了，虽然没有考过级，还可以上专业
采访人：那就是说你们的汉语还是有困难的？
被采访人 B：恩恩，有困难
采访人：你们的汉语在预科之前有没有学过？
被采访人 B：学过，我是从小学三年级开始学的，可我们班有像大学以后开始学的，也有高中以后开始学的都有
采访人：那为什么会有这样的差别呢？
被采访人 B：我们班的都是大部分从南疆来的，在南疆那边学汉语讲汉语学的不是那么好，南疆那边村镇，只有城里的中心学校才有汉语课，别的学校没有那样
采访人：你在你们班的汉语程度应该算是很好的吧，其他同学可以用汉语像我们这样交流吗？
被采访人 B：有可以的，又不可以的，百分之三十不可以吧
采访人：七十都可以？
被采访人 B：恩恩。听起来他们都得懂，可是他们回答不出来你的问题
采访人：恩，那课间的时候你会用汉语或者英语跟同学交流吗？
被采访人 B：恩，会用汉语跟汉族同学交流，不会用英语。我用英语跟他们交流有困难，用英语交流不出我要表达的意思
采访人：那在家里的时候会用什么样的语言跟家人交流？
被采访人 B：用母语，父母不会汉语，但是父母鼓励我学汉语。他们就是觉得你要学好汉语，你一定要学好汉语。他们就说是一直这么说，他们可能想学好汉语好找工作对自己有用
采访人：恩，那他们有没有说要学好学英语
被采访人 B：没有
采访人：那你学英语专业目的是什么？
被采访人 B：当时我觉得学英语是好的，我当时汉语成绩是好的，觉得既然能学好汉语也就能学好英语。就这样
采访人：那在咱们学校有没有开设少数民族文化这样的课程？
被采访人 B：少数民族学生没有类似这样的课程
采访人：如果类似这样的课程，你愿意继续了解少时民族文化么？
被采访人 B：恩恩，愿意。初中高中对自己本民族的文化了解还是有限的，不够
采访人：你想学习少数民族文化是为什么

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被采访人 B：我想学，我作为一个维吾尔族知道本民族文化是我必须要做的事。如果别人想了解我民族的文化，问我自己的文化答不上来的话，人家会看不起我们。自己的文化都学不好，让人家怎么会学呢，怎么知道我们的文化氛围之类的。我是看电影看书啊什么的去了解这些。

被采访人 B：汉语啊，没有维吾尔语授课的课程。

采访人：那我们现在课程的授课语言是什么？

被采访人 B：汉语啊，没有维吾尔语授课的课程。

采访人：那你们喜不喜欢把汉语作为你们主要的授课语言来使用？

被采访人 B：我也觉得可以，可是我们班好多同学不愿意，不会像我这么想。因为他们觉得自己的汉语水平不是那么好，老师一般的汉语他都听不懂。老师用汉语讲课听起来有困难，跟不上，所以他们都会选择用母语来授课，可是现在没有。

采访人：老师用汉语来授课，会不会有在课上同学听不懂，老师解释不清的时候？

被采访人 B：我们班有好多。

采访人：那怎么办呢？

被采访人 B：怎么办，没办法啊，他们说不懂也就装懂就过去了。讲英语课的时候如果是维吾尔族老师，我们不懂时，他们会用母语来解释的。然后我们知道了，就是汉族老师，有好多不知道的。

采访人：那你觉得授课语言到底是汉语好，还是母语好，还是两个兼用？还是用全英文的好？

被采访人 B：我觉得我们班的人形形色色，有很大的区别呢。好的就特别好，学英语是没问题，入学之前就学过英语的，有的也在上补习班。

采访人：你们班分别有多少人在外面上补习班？

被采访人 B：我们班好多都是从南疆来的。刚开始的时候是 60，今年就 70 了。

采访人：那为什么大家会选择去外面上补习班？

被采访人 B：那边是民族老师上课更活跃，就是他能把我们的积极性调动起来。带入课程也是特别好。那边讲课更生动，就是比这边讲课还要好。学校只有三四本书，学校的内容也不是那么好，不是那么丰富，不感兴趣。

采访人：你对学院有什么建议？

被采访人 B：在设备方面希望我们班也有一个多媒体。但是我们班没有，vcd dvd 也没有，我们自己交了班费，也没有。我愿意跟汉族班交流，多融入一些活动。

采访人：其他方面呢？

被采访人 B：我们和汉语班课程，书本、教学大纲、卷子撒都不一样。

采访人：那你们觉得应该是跟他们一样？还是不一样？

被采访人 B：我觉得如果一样，他们从小学三年级就学英语。我们刚接触英语，我们的水平，区别就有点困难。所以不一样对我们也是有好处的，可是我们两个班课数也有很大区别。我想应该没有那么大的区别，有差距，可是不应该有那么大的差距。

采访人：那你觉得现在我们上课提倡基本上都用汉语讲英语，解释一些问题。那你觉得用汉语有困难吗？

被采访人 B：我们班有困难呢。我们班的汉语听不懂，还用母语来解释好一点。他们班大部分人都是从西边来的。我们班大部分百分之90 是从南疆来的。

采访人：也就是说这个地区差异挺严重的。那在课上老师都用什么语言交流。
被采访人 B：恩 汉语
采访人：你喜欢这种方式吗？
被采访人 B：（停顿）已经习惯了
采访人：那你希望怎么样呢？
被采访人 B：还是希望用母语，不过课上说汉语对我们也有好处，课下说维语，他也是维吾尔族，我也一样，说母语听起来很容易明白 很容易理解，再加上我们都是维吾尔族 应该说自己本民族的语言
采访人：你认为哪种语言对你将来最重要
被采访 B：汉语母语都重要，英语要看在哪做什么工作
采访人：你们觉得汉族学生应该学习维语吗？
被采访人 B：我觉得应该，而且我是从南疆来的，要是他们不学维语，他们那边的大部分人不懂汉语，他们说汉语了，他们不知道，他们说维语了，他们不知道，相互啥都不知道，觉得很尴尬，所以我觉得学对他们也是有好处的 对我们自己也是有好处的
采访人：非常感谢你！
Appendix 14

Sample Student’s Interview transcription (English version)

Date: 20131025    Time: 8:00pm---10:00pm    Venue: Students’ Union’s Office

Interviewer: Have you ever learned English before you entered the university?
Interviewee B: No, I’ve never learned English before. Most of my classmates haven’t learned English before university, they all have the similar experience as me.

Interviewer: Where are you from?
Interviewee B: Kashgar

Interviewer: what were the reasons do you think that there were no English classes offered?
Interviewee B: It might be lacking of English teachers, because we are from Nanjiang (Southern part of Xinjiang).

Interviewer: Did you want to learn English at that time?
Interviewee B: I’d never thought of learning English at that time.

Interviewer: Why? Does it mean you had no interest in learning English?
Interviewee B: It was a kind of luxurious thing to learn Mandarin there, not everyone had the chance to learn it at that time. Only the students who were in the schools in the city, they could have the chance to learn Mandarin, others didn’t have the opportunity to learn it. It was lucky for me that a new teacher in my school could speak good Mandarin, I felt appreciated that I could learn Mandarin, it was a very good thing for me. It was impossible for me to learn English, that would never happen, so I had never thought of learning English at that time.

Interviewer: If there were English modules offered, do you want to learn English?
Interviewee B: Yes, sure, definitely, I want to learn it. Comparing to other subjects, I like the subjects related to languages, I like English very much.

Interviewer: Which language do you think is more useful to you? Mandarin or English?
Interviewee B: Mandarin is more useful to me. But if you want to do better in your future career, you need to learn English.

Interviewer: Do you think there are difficulties for Min kao Han and Min kao Min to get along with?
Interviewee B: It depends, different person may have different experience. The Min kao Han students may feel exclusive sometimes in the class.

Interviewer: what do you think of your Mandarin?
Interviewee B: Hard to say, not so fluent, just so so.

Interviewer: How about your mother tongue?
Interviewee B: Very good, I can speak and write.

Interviewer: What do you think of your English proficiency?
Interviewee B: my English is not good, very limited.

Interviewer: which language do you speak to your classmates after school?
Interviewee B: I use my mother tongue.
Interviewer: why?
Interviewee B: All my friends around me are Uyghurs, and my classmates' Mandarin are not so good, even I spoke Mandarin, they couldn’t understand me. So, I’d better use Uyghur to communicate with them.

Interviewer: Did all of you have Yuke courses?

Interviewee B: But in my opinion, it was not necessary to have Yuke in this university. The teachers didn’t teach very efficiently, the students there didn’t work hard, the learning outcome was quite bad.

Interviewer: Did you have any exams that need to be passed after Yuke period in order to move into your major study?

Interviewee B: Yes, we did.

Interviewer: If you all have passed the exams, can I assume your Mandarin was ok and there would be no big problem for you to learn the major courses through Mandarin?

Interviewee B: No, it was not like that. When we entered this university, we were told that we need to get the certification of band three to move into our major study. But after we took the exam one year later (after Yuke period), only one third of the students could pass Band three, two thirds of the students failed to achieve that. Then the university held another exam for us, and set another minimum passing score, which was lower standard, in order to allow us to pass, then we could move into major study. So we didn’t have to pass the band which recolonized officially, we could only pass their independent exams, we could still move into our major study.

Interviewer: Do you still have difficulties in Mandarin?

Interviewee B: Yes, we do have difficulties in Mandarin.

Interviewer: Have you learned Mandarin before you joined Yuke courses in the university?

Interviewee B: Yes, I had learned Mandarin since I was in grade three in my primary school. But in my class in the university, there are some students who learned Mandarin only after they entered the university, and some of them learned it since they were in their Senior high school.

Interviewer: How can this difference happen?

Interviewee B: Most of my classmates came from Nanjiang (Southern part of Xinjiang), they learned Mandarin not so well there. Only a few the schools in the city center offered the Mandarin class in Nanjiang, the other schools didn’t provide Mandarin class.

Interviewer: Are you one of the students who speak good Mandarin in your class? How about other students, can they communicate with me in Mandarin as you are doing now?

Interviewee B: Some of them are ok, some of them can’t. Almost 30% of my classmates can’t communicate at all. The other 70%, they can understand you in Mandarin, but they can’t use Mandarin to answer your questions.

Interviewer: Would you communicate with students in Mandarin or in English after class?

Interviewee B: Yes, sometimes I use Mandarin to communicate with Han students, but never use English. I felt difficult to communicate in English, I couldn’t fully express what I wanted to say.

Interviewer: which language do you usually use at home?
Interviewee B: My mother tongue, because my parents can’t speak Mandarin. But they encourage me to learn Mandarin. They kept saying that I should learn Mandarin well, I must work hard on learning Mandarin. They always say so. Maybe they thought if I can learn Mandarin well, it would be easier for me to find a job in future.

Interviewer: Did they say you should learn English well too?
Interviewee B: No, they didn’t.

Interviewer: What’s your initial motivation for learning English?
Interviewee B: I thought learning English was good at that time. I thought I could learn Mandarin well, so did English, that’s it.

Interviewer: Are there any modules related to minority culture offered in the university?
Interviewee B: No.

Interviewer: Are you willing to attend these modules if they are offered?
Interviewee B: Yes, I would very much like to. I think what I have learned about minority culture and history from Junior or Senior middle school is very limited.

Interviewer: Why do you want to learn it?
Interviewee B: I want to learn more. Being a Uyghur people, knowing my own culture is a must to me. If people from other ethnic groups ask me questions about my culture, I couldn’t answer it, they would look down upon me. If I didn’t know my own culture, how can I let others know it? How can they know Uyghur culture, customs and history? But now, I can only learn Uyghur culture and history through self-learning, such as watching movies and reading books.

Interviewer: Which language is the medium of instruction to learn major modules?
Interviewee B: Mandarin. No courses were taught through Uyghur.

Interviewer: Do you like to use Mandarin as the teaching language?
Interviewee B: For me, I think it is ok. But many of my classmates will not think in this way. Because they think they don’t have adequate proficiency of Mandarin, they can’t understand the teachers’ instructions in Mandarin during lecturing. They are experiencing difficulties in learning major modules when the teachers delivered lectures in Mandarin. They couldn’t follow the instructions and lecturing content. So they would prefer to choose Uyghur to be taught and learn. But there is no choice now.

Interviewer: Have you have such experience: you can’t understand the ethnic Han teacher’s teaching either in Mandarin or in English?
Interviewee B: There are a lot of students facing this kind of problems.

Interviewer: Then what did you do?
Interviewee B: No way, just pretended to understand and let it go. If the English class was taught by ethnic Uyghur teacher, she could explain in Uyghur, then we could understand what she said. But if it is Han teacher, there were a lot of points we couldn’t understand.

Interviewer: which language do you prefer as the language of instruction, Uyghur, Mandarin or English?
Interviewee B: There would be different opinions among my classmates towards this issue. Some of them are quite good in both Mandarin and English, some of them are very poor in both languages. Some of them are taking training classes outside university.

Interviewer: How many percentages of your classmates attending the training classes outside university?

Interviewee B: Most of my classmates are from Nanjiang. At the beginning, it was 60%, but now for this year, it is almost 70%.

Interviewer: Why do they want to take the training classes outside?

Interviewee B: There are many ethnic minority teachers there, they could explain in minority language. The teachers there taught in an interesting and active way, they could make us interested in what we were learning. They always warmed up the lessons in a very attractive way. Much better than the lessons delivered in the university. And in the university, there are only three or four textbooks, the teaching content were not so interesting and engaging, we didn’t have much interest.

Interviewer: Do you have any other suggestions to the university or your college?

Interviewee B: I do wish we could have a multi-recourse classroom, at least a computer, but we don’t have such classroom, we don’t have machine to play with VCD and DVD, we have paid fees like other Han students, but we don’t have the same equipment like them. But I would like to have more activities with Han students.

Interviewer: Anything else?

Interviewer: We and Han students have different modules, different textbooks, different curriculum, different exam paper, all are different.

Interviewer: Which do you prefer, the same or different?

Interviewee B: I think, if all the textbooks etc. are the same for minority and Han students, Han students have learned English since they were in Grade 3 in primary school. However, we just started to learn English, our English are very poor, it would be very difficult for us. So, difference may be is good for us. I can understand we and Han students should have some aspects in different, but the differences should not be this huge!

Interviewer: Do you have difficulties in learning English through Mandarin?

Interviewee B: Yes, we do have problems. Many of my classmates couldn’t understand Mandarin, the teacher had better explain the important and difficult points in Uyghur. Most of my classmates, 90% are from Nanjiang.

Interviewer: Does it mean there was a huge difference between the students who are from Northern Xinjiang and Southern Xinjiang regarding their language proficiency? And which language do the teachers use as language instructions for teaching?

Interviewee B: Yes, there is huge differences. The teachers use Mandarin.

Interviewer: Do you like this way? Teaching and learning in Mandarin?

Interviewee B: (Pause) I have to get used to it.

Interviewer: Which language do you wish as language instructions?
Interviewee B: I do wish it was my mother tongue. It will be easier for us to understand. And in addition, we are all Uyghur, we should speak our mother tongue.

Interviewer: which langue do you think is more important for your future?

Interviewee B: Mandarin and Uyghur are both important, for English, it depends on the region you will work in.

Interviewer: do you think Han students should learn Uyghur or not?

Interviewee B: I think so! I am from Nanjiang. If the Han students can’t speak Uyghur, most of the people in Nanjiang can’t understand Mandarin. In this case, if the Han students can only speak Mandarin, the people there can’t understand them; the people in Nanjiang can only speak Uyghur, the Han students can’t understand the local people. They both can’t communicated with each other at all, it will be very embarrassing situation. So in my opinion, it will be very helpful for Han students to learn Uyghur.

Interviewer: Thank you very much!