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Trends, affordances, and implications for learners' literacy and identity options: A systematic review of studies on transnational education

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts degree in Education

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Abstract

The purpose of this systematic literature review (SLR) was three-fold: to identify the trends of the reviewed research on transnational education (TNE) and investigate the reported affordances of TNE and the implications for TNE in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options. Through the lens of a multiliteracies framework, this SLR is premised on 60 screened articles that are based on the understandings of the relationships between TNE, literacy and identity options for students in globalized contexts. Findings indicate that this study offers TNE scholars future areas of research to investigate. It enhances the existent understandings of the affordances of TNE around the globe and offers insights into cross-border curriculum decision making for growing TNE programs. The study also provides suggestions about pedagogy in TNE classrooms to expand students' literacy and identity options, which is insightful for pre-service and in-service teacher training for cross-border education.

Keywords

Systematic literature review, transnational education, multiliteracies, literacy options, identity options, transnational students

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Chapter 1

1 Introduction

Transnational education (TNE) has emerged as a major educational innovation of contemporary times. TNE has been defined as the mobility of educational programs and providers between countries (Knight, 2016). As of the 1990s, TNE programs became "a fast-growing global phenomenon as [they] provide internationally recognized education at the doorstep of students" (Alam, Alam, Chowdhury, & Steiner, 2013, p. 870). Around two decades ago, TNE programs were defined by the Global Alliance for TNE (GATE) (1997) as:

> any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This situation requires that national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or educational materials. (p. 1)

Most recently, the TNE definition has expanded, as TNE can be situated in various programs (i.e., twinning, joint degree, double degree, multiple degree, co-founded, locally supported distance education, international branch campus, franchise university, or distance education [Knight, 2016]). The most popular form of TNE (i.e., the twinning program [Knight, 2016]) brings students to the home country for a proportion of their degree. The high demand for TNE programs are linked to "…student[s'] desire[s] to engage in educational and social experiences that are different from those produced locally" (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007, p. 60). Students' educational and social desires can be obtained locally when teachers and other staff members are flown into TNE programs, when there are diverse pedagogical instructional strategies in collaboration with different materials and resources, when there are varying curricular ideologies, and when students get to learn in a different country (Knight, 2016; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

I am a teacher with experience teaching in TNE programs. I was an offshore teacher and I taught in Taiwan at an Ontario twinning program (i.e., the most common form of TNE program to date, in which the school has teamed up with a credible

institution overseas [Knight, 2016]), in South Korea at an American franchise program (i.e., a private independent school that offers a series of academic programs from different host schools [Knight, 2016]), and currently for a distance education program (i.e., the students are based in China and the virtual company hires teachers from an Anglophone dominant country to teach in a virtual space [Knight, 2016]). As a teacher, I have witnessed first-hand the tensions, opportunities, and complexities of TNE, particularly as it brings together diverse languages, curricula, cultures, values, and practices. I have, for example, encountered challenges in actualizing literacy curriculum in a country that was different from the country in which it was created and intended to be implemented. These challenges arose from the clashing of curriculum made in an Anglophone dominant country for an English-only student body, now transplanted to a new country with a different culture and language. My pre-service teacher education in Canada surely did not prepare me for this. Importantly, caught within this negotiation of curriculum, language, literacy, culture, and even politics, were my students.

The emergence and significance of students in transnational education (TNE) contexts have recently been recognized in the literature, however, there remains much to be learned. Crucial, is that little is known about the ways in which students negotiate their own *literacy options* in TNE curricula, that is, the choices students have to make meaning during their learning experience (Heydon, 2013) and their ensuing *identity options* or the opportunities that students have to make meaning of themselves, the world around them, and their future during their literacy learning experience (Cummins, 2001). This study was conducted in honour of these students. It is a systematic literature review (SLR) of research on TNE programs that seeks to identify the trends of the reviewed studies with a focus on students as literacy learners and their identity options in globalized contexts. It identifies the affordances of TNE to expand learners' literacy options and identity options. The term affordance was coined by James Gibson in 1966. In his seminal work, he defines "the affordances of the environment are what it offers the [student], what it provides or furnishes, either for good or ill" (Gibson, 1979, p. 127). This review also delves into the implications for curriculum, pedagogy, and transnational teacher education in globalized schooling contexts.

1.1 Research Problem

TNE programs are ripe for research. Anglophone countries such as the United States (USA), the United Kingdom (UK), Australia, and Canada have been competing with one another to offer TNE to countries where English is not the prominent language (Zheng, 2012). For example, the *International Education Association of Australia* reported that in 2015 there were 74 Australian TNE schools (Burgess, 2016, p. 7), in which students were granted a credited Australian degree without residing in Australia. For the UK in 2015-16, "701,010 students were studying offshore for UK degrees" (British Council, 2018, n.p.) and that "there are more students enrolled in UK-delivered offshore programs than there are studying in the UK" (British Council, 2018, n.p.). In the USA and Canada, the documentation of the number of schools and/or the number of students that are currently enrolled in TNE programs is not easily accessible to my knowledge. However, presently for Canada, as per an on-line cursory review of a website, as of December 2017, there are 133 Canadian offshore schools (Canadian Information Centre for International Credentials [CICIC], 2017). I combined statistics on CICIC and online documents such as Certification Inspection Reports from British Columbia Ministry of Education (e.g., British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016) and found that there are more than 27,000 offshore students being educated toward a Canadian diploma as of September, 2017.

I have called attention to TNE programs due to the increasingly high student enrollment rate across the globe and the lack of summarized, accessible information that pertains to these programs. I have also called attention to TNE students because in the existent literature, there is little positioning of TNE learners in regards to their literacy and identity options. There is an abundance of literature about how English language learners' (ELL) needs are addressed in Anglophone countries, and while this literature can assist educators in understanding some aspects of literacy it helped me conceptualize the positioning of TNE students. ELL students and TNE students should not be conflated; at the very least the environment in which they study and their political and social positioning are radically different. To progress forward with TNE research, curriculum, and classroom pedagogy, for globalized students, educators and educational policy

makers must seek to understand what is in the current literature that could expand students' literacy and identity options.

For the sake of expanding the existing knowledge on TNE, I strived to uncover trends of TNE students, the affordances of TNE programs, and the implications for transnational education in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training because no other studies have done so yet. Thus, for the remainder of the 21st century, this SLR can be insightful for TNE researchers, policy makers, and educators in regards to expanding curriculum, pedagogical practices, and improving TNE teacher training for a culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) population.

1.2 Purpose of the Review

The purpose of this SLR is to contribute to the existing literature by providing researchers a holistic summary of the most up to date findings of TNE. This study was designed to generate new knowledge for stakeholders (i.e., policymakers and educators) to raise the standards of TNE curricula design, pedagogical practices, and teacher training that can be implemented into 21st century TNE classrooms. The following three research questions frame this SLR:

1) What are the trends of the reviewed research on transnational education?

2) What are the reported affordances (if any) of transnational education in the reviewed studies in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options?

3) What are the implications for transnational education in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options?

This thesis is organized into five chapters. I provide an outline of the remainder of the four chapters of my thesis. In Chapter 2, I introduce the literature landscape through definitions of TNE and literacy. I also provide a grounding for understanding these terms within the literature that is important for understanding the study findings. In Chapter 3, I outline and describe the methodological framework, the data collection, and data analysis methods that I used to design an explicit, comprehensive, reproducible systematic literature review. In Chapter 4, I report the findings of the trends of the reviewed transnational education studies. I also report the affordances of TNE in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. In

Chapter 5, I discuss the reported findings about the trends of the reviewed transnational education studies and the reported affordances of TNE in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. Discussions in this chapter also include implications for transnational education in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options.

Chapter 2

2 Theoretical Framework and Background

I premised this study on understandings of the relationships between TNE, literacy options, and identity options for students in globalized contexts. Below, I introduce the literature landscape through definitions of TNE and literacy. I also provide a grounding for understanding these terms within the literature that is important for understanding the study findings, which I present in Chapter 4.

2.1 Transnational Education

As the study of transnational education emerges, so too do new and refined definitions of TNE. In TNE literature related to literacy, scholars have drawn from theories of transnationalism to push understandings of literacy to include the ways in which movements across space shape people's literate lives and identity options (e.g., Guerra, 1998; Rounsaville, 2010; Rubenstein-Avila, 2007; Sánchez, 2007; Warriner, 2007; Yi, 2009, Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014, 2015). However, there is much ambiguity in the literature regarding a concise definition of TNE (Knight, 2016). In the last decade, scholars have interchangeably referred to TNE as *offshore education* (e.g, Feast & Bretag, 2005; Pherali, 2012; Pullman 2015; Smith, 2014; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang & Heydon, 2014, 2015), *cross-border education* (e.g., de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Fabricius, 2014; Lam, 2014; Martínez, 2009; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Pullman, 2015; Reid, 2005; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Smith, 2014; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Yang & Qiu, 2010; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2015), and *borderless education* (e.g., Bickel, Shin, Taylor, Faust, & Penniston, 2013; Feast & Bretag, 2005; Zhang & Heydon, 2015).

In the absence of a consistently applied definition of TNE, transnational students have tended in the literature (and practice) to be mistaken for international students, which they are not. International students are a less recent innovation than transnational students. The 1950s was the start of *student mobility*, which refers to international students who had the opportunity to "take their full higher education degree in a foreign

country" (Knight, 2016, p. 35). Whereas, later in the 1990s, TNE, otherwise known as the *mobility of educational programs and providers* (Knight, 2016) became another means for students to obtain a credible degree from a foreign university. Therefore, instead of students travelling internationally to obtain a degree, the institutions, the programs, the faculties, and the resources went to where there was a demand of students (Graddol, 2006 Knight, 2016; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). The scale of TNE programs on a global scale has grown substantially in the last twenty years (Alam et al., 2013; Knight, 2016; Naidoo, 2009; Smith, 2014; Zhang, 2015; Ziguras, 2013) yet in the face of the recent nature of the innovation, and without a clearly applied definition of TNE, transnational students are rarely recognized for what they are. In this study I thus seek to make these students visible, focusing on elements of their education that perhaps most affect their communication and sense of selves. I ask, what are the reported affordances (if any) of transnational education in the reviewed studies in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options? And, what are the implications for transnational education in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options?

2.2 Literacy and Identity

The literacy literature is unequivocal that literacy learning and identity are socially, culturally, and practically intertwined (e.g., Cummins, 2001; Davies, 1989; Gee, 1989; Lewis & del Valle, 2009; McCarthey, 2001, 2002; McCarthey & Moje, 2002; Moje & Luke, 2009; Norton, 2013; Toohey & Norton, 2010, 2011). Literacy and identities can be cultivated and instilled in an individual through the texts students read, write, and talk about (e.g., Cummins, 2001; Davis, 1989; Lewis & del Valle, 2009; McCarthey, 2001, 2002; McCarthey & Moje, 2002; Moje & Luke, 2009) and the language in which they do so (Norton, 2013; Toohey & Norton, 2010, 2011). Literacy learning is more than just the transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the student, rather, it involves multiple social factors such as interactions with other individuals in various contexts (e.g., Cummins, 2001; Gee, 2000; Moje & Luke, 2009; Norton, 2013; Toohey & Norton, 2010, 2011). Moje and Luke (2009) argued that these social factors "have implications for how people make sense of themselves and others, identify, and are identified with (p. 415). For

example, based on my teaching experience as a TNE teacher in Taiwan, I noticed that the communication between Taiwanese students and Canadian teacher (me) was mediated (and sometimes adversely affected by) the different pedagogical practices the various parties were accustomed to. These differences could be even more powerful than a simple difference in the words one could use. The literacy literature that operates from a socio-cultural approach to literacy (e.g., Lin, 2008; Moje & Luke, 2009; Norton, 2013; Toohey & Norton, 2010, 2011) expresses teachers' power to stereotype, privilege, or marginalize students, which can positively or negatively influence students' own sense of identity. This power calls for a fulsome appraisal of literacy teaching and learning across cultures and in the unique context of TNE programs. To help me make sense of literacy in such contexts, in this study I drew on Brian Street's (1984) foundational concepts of autonomous and ideological models of literacy.

2.3 Models of Literacy

Linguist, Brian Street (1984) pursued the question of how literacy might be conceptualized. To do so, he studied literacy in everyday lives, including education in the context of Iran. His work yielded the on-going relevance of two contradictory literacy models: the *autonomous model of literacy* and the *ideological model of literacy* that can promote marginalization or equality for students. In the following I define, discuss, and connect to the literature, each model in turn.

2.3.1 Autonomous Literacy Model

The autonomous model of literacy is a version of literacy that sees it as a decontextualized set of skills that can be passed from teacher to student (Street, 1984). Scholars also use terms for literacy learning practices that are consistent with the autonomous model such as "old literacy basics" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012), "literacy in the singular" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 1), "traditional literacy" (New London Group, 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012), "basic literacy" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015, p. 46), and "mere literacy" (New London Group, 1996, p. 64). For example, the term old literacy basics is simply defined as "students acquire basic levels of

competencies in reading and writing" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 5). The common trends with these literacy learning definitions are that students are not active in the classroom. They listen, they do what they are told, when they are told, and must do it to suit the teachers' commands (e.g., Street, 1984; New London Group; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015).

Students that attend compulsory education across the globe can be exposed to teaching practices that are formulated by an autonomous model of literacy. The main purpose of compulsory schooling is to serve a variety of social functions, such as the maintenance of social control and the transfer of dominant values (Hildyard & Olsen, 1978). The autonomous model of literacy places literacy as "narrow" (Street, 1984, p. 1), "culture-specific" (Street, 1984, p. 1), "homogenised" (Street, 1984, p. 2), "hegemonised" (Street, 1984, p. 2), and "constructed for a political purpose" (Street, 1984, p. 19). This model privileges a certain population (Street, 1984, 2004). For example, this model supports that the teachers' conceptions and practices are the correct and only way to do literacy (e.g., Cummins, 2001; Street, 1984). Some autonomous literacy practices that are found in globalized schooling systems can be referred to interchangeably throughout the literature as "traditional instruction" (e.g., Banathy, 1994; Reigeluth, 1994; Relan & Gillani, 1997), "teacher centered curriculum" (Cuban, 2003), "didactic teaching" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015, p. 22), "transmission pedagogy" (Stones, 1981), "direct instruction" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 92), or "traditional literacy pedagogy" (New London Group, 1996). For example, common trends that arise from these definitions include ideologies that teachers are considered authoritative and tend to be the most active person in the room, do most of the talking (e.g., by lecturing, or issuing instructions), have control over the materials that the students will learn and the ways in which they learn them (i.e., when, where, how, and at what pace they learn it). In addition, these authoritarian teachers may also teach their students in ways that are easy, familiar, or personally preferred by such teachers; however, these teachers' instructional approaches may not work for all students, or be the most effective for optimal learning outcomes (e.g., Cuban, 2003; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015; New London Group, 1996; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Stones, 1981). Autonomous themes illuminated my data analysis

by helping to recognize expansive literacy and identity options for students in globalized classrooms.

2.3.1.1 Autonomous Literacy in the Literature

Next, I present a review of literature concerning autonomous literacy and literacy-related topics that are a vital background for considering TNE students' literacy and identity options, along with the implications for curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training. This literature provides the grounding for understanding the deductive themes I report on in Chapter 4.

2.3.1.2 Autonomous Literacy Model and Pedagogy

In scanning the literature for how autonomous models of literacy are manifested in pedagogy, I found six primary ways. Firstly, during class time, teachers dominate the talk time and speak much more often than do students (e.g., Cuban 2003; Relan & Gillani, 1997). Further, instructions are presented to the entire class, with little one on one, or group attention (e.g., Cuban 2003; Relan & Gillani, 1997). The use of class time is determined by the teacher (e.g., Cuban 2003; Relan & Gillani, 1997). These authoritarian teachers are referred to as "text-book teachers" (Cuban, 2003), in which they heavily refer to textbooks to guide curricular and instructional decision making (e.g., Cuban 2003; Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Richards, 2009). Next, the classroom layout is arranged for the teacher to occupy the front of the classroom, all the while the students' furniture is arranged into rows of desks that face the chalkboard (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b; Cuban 2003; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; Relan & Gillani, 1997). Teachers "teach for the test" (Cuban, 2003), in which there is only one correct answer, right or wrong (e.g., Cuban, 1993; Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015). My study queried if any of these six pedagogical features of the autonomous literacy model were recorded in the literature on TNE.

2.3.1.3 Autonomous Literacy Model and Listening and Speaking

Listening (i.e., the skill of understanding spoken language [Lindsay & Knight, 2006]) and speaking (i.e., the skill of communicating one's thoughts and emotions through speech sounds, pitch changes, intonation, stress, and gestures [Harmer, 2007]) are important features of literacy curricula (e.g., Bainbridge & Heydon, 2017; Rivers, 1966) and are particularly salient in second language teaching (e.g., Bueno, Madrid, & McLaren, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Lindsay & Knight, 2006; Mercer, Wegerif & Dawes, 1999; Mercer, Dawes, Wegerif, & Sams, 2004) to provide students appropriate cognitive development.

The literacy literature relates that within autonomous models of literacy, the pedagogical objective of listening and speaking requires students to use the "correct usage of educated English" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 71). For example, the correct use of formal components of language (e.g., synthetic phonics) can be taught and learned through drill-based, sound-letter correspondence exercises (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; New London Group, 1996; Street, 1984). In such a pedagogy, the teacher states the target word, then all the students listen and repeat the word after the teacher. Some other strategies for teaching speaking in this vein are to have students memorize a dialogue, or respond to drills that reflect proper sentences (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; 2015; Richards, 2009; Street,1984). Students are expected to listen for comprehension through exercises such as "dictation, cloze listening, and the use of questions after a text" (Richards, 2009, p. 5). These students are tested on words that are not applicable to the context of their lives (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; Richards, 2009). My study specifically explored the literature to determine if TNE students were taught using autonomous speaking and listening literacy methods.

2.3.1.4 Autonomous Literacy Model and Writing and Reading

Print literacy, defined as reading and writing, are arguably the foundation of literacy curricula (Bainbridge & Heydon, 2017), and this is no exception in second language teaching (e.g., Fareed, Ashraf, & Bilal, 2016; Hall, 1988; Hyland, 2003). Reading is a complex skill in which learners construct meaning from written texts through interrelated sources of information (i.e., the readers' prior knowledge, experiences, and links between

what they already know) (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). Whereas, writing is "a medium of human communication that represents language and emotion through the inscription or recording of signs and symbols" (Seidenberg, 2017, p. 95). The literacy literature expresses that in the autonomous model of literacy, one of the approaches for students to become skilled at reading and writing is for teachers to employ the correct rules for *prescriptive grammar*. Prescriptive grammar is an approach to the teaching of grammar, in which the teacher "prescribe[s] one system in preference to another" (O'Grady & Archibald, 2011, p. 517), which requires proper "spelling" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 68), and "language structures" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 72) of a given language. To reinforce these practices, students are required to repeat readings after the teacher, memorize vocabulary, produce standardized reading fluency, copy from a text book or the board, and answer comprehension questions (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). My study investigated the literature to discover if TNE students were provided opportunities of autonomous reading and writing strategies.

2.3.1.5 Autonomous Literacy Model and Identity

Relative to notions of identity, the literacy literature states that the autonomous model produces a *melting pot* (New London Group, 1996, p. 72) environment. The melting pot (New London Group, 1996) metaphorically represents the strong effects of nationalism, as CLD students are required to conform their literary traditions, suppress their identities, and learn new socio-cultural competencies. Kalantzis and Cope (2012) define nationalism as when "the power of nation-states grows and strong governments take control of geographic areas with clearly defined borders" (p. 39). Socio-cultural competences are when students are expected "to behave appropriately in specific situations, to choose the appropriate form of social etiquette, to decode the social code of the partner, to use different vocabulary, to understand the meanings of the words in the definite context, etc." (Svetlana, 2011, p. 153). Typically, with one, homogenized idea of identity, CLD students that do not fit into this idealized, nationalistic bubble, have their literacy options suppressed through forced assimilation (Cummins, 2001; Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; New London Group, 1996). Ideally, Cummins (2001) has argued that students should have ample room for *identity negotiation*. Identity

negotiation is "represented by the messages communicated to students regarding their identities— who they are in the teacher's eyes and who they are capable of becoming" (Cummins, 2001, p. 21). The literature documents that teachers often work in schools that are oppressive for themselves and/or for their students, however, they are never powerless nor without choices to change their practices (Cummins, 2001). Nieto (1999) argued that "the inescapable truth…is that teachers' attitudes and behavior[u]rs can make an astonishing difference in student learning" (p. 67). My study investigated if the literature expresses whether TNE provides literacy learners a melting pot environment to negotiate their identities.

2.3.2 Ideological Literacy Model

In contrast to the autonomous model of literacy, and more recent, is the ideological model of literacy (Street, 1984). The ideological model of literacy is one that sees literacy as a contextualized set of practices that are culturally embedded (Street, 1984). Street (1984) argues that the literacy that is taught and how it is learned "depends upon the nature of the social formation" (p. 2), which varies culture to culture. Literacy is no longer recognized as a universal set of skills, but as multiple practices actively constructed and negotiated within given contexts and hierarchies of power, and through a range of semiotic resources that include modes beyond the linguistic (Kress, 2003). The ideological model supports the idea that the homogenisation of literacy practices cannot be justified in 21st century classrooms, given the complexity of different kinds of literacy practices that are prevalent in different cultures and domains (Street, 1984). The ideological model of literacy calls for teachers to have political awareness and sensitivity to students' needs and students require space to explain these needs in terms of their own situations (e.g., Street, 1984, Banathy, 1994).The ideological literacy model challenges oppressive sociopolitical and economic assumptions, brought on by privileged systems of power (Street, 1984, 2004), strives to promote equality for all literacy learners (Street, 1984), and allows students to negotiate their identities (Street, 1984).

The ideological model of literacy depicts the 21st century classroom metaphorically as a "*salad bowl*" (New London Group, 1996, p. 72) rather than a "melting pot" (New London Group, 1996, p. 72). The salad bowl does not consist of one language, nor one

culture, nor one concept of identity (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; New London Group, 1996). For example, the goal of the 21st century classroom is to have multilingualism (i.e., multiple languages), multiculturalism (i.e., cultural pluralism), and multiliteracies exist, without having to sacrifice any student's identity (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; New London Group, 1996). Some TNE programs consist of students from the same country, with similar ethnic and linguistic backgrounds (Zhang, 2012, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014); however, even so, when these students arrive to the home institution, or travel globally, they must be prepared to communicate with all citizens.

The literature relates that through the employment of an ideological model of literacy, teachers can incorporate a variety of instructional approaches that reach into multifaceted areas of students' lives (i.e., distinct learning needs, interests, aspirations, and cultural backgrounds) (e.g., Cuban, 2003; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Richards, 2009; Street, 1984, 2004). Students may feel valued, celebrated, and become active members of the classroom, which may lead students to become active members of a diverse society (e.g., Lea & Stierer, 2000; Street, 1984, 2004). The multiliteracies movement is one that is consistent with the ideological model, not least of which is because Street is a founding member of the movement (New London Group, 1996). I thus situate my study in the seminal works of *multiliteracies* (New London Group, 1996), with emphasis on two of its constituents *multimodality* (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015; New London Group, 1996), and *new media literacies* (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a, 2009b, 2015; Jenkins, 2009; Kalantzis & Cope, 2015; Kress, 2003).

2.4 Multiliteracies

I first present the New London Group's (1996) framework for the concept of multiliteracies. I then present a detailed overview of the key themes of literacy and identity practices that I identified in the literature to determine the affordances of transnational students' literacy learning and identity options, along with the implications for curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training

2.4.1 The New London Group

Through discussion, a group of ten literacy scholars from different global regions, referred to as the New London Group (1996) set out in 1994 to "broaden the understanding of literacy and literacy teaching and learning…" (p. 61), in which they published the framework of *multiliteracies* in the *Harvard Education Review*. The New London Group's (1996) seminal work highlighted the need for a global literacy pedagogical reformation in part, because CLD students were more prevalent than ever before. Also, due to the rapid changes in new media technologies, they recognized students had become capable of communicating through multiple channels, in diverse multimodal forms of expression and representation. Kalantzis and Cope (2012), members of the New London Group, concurred that "the changes that [have been] occurring in our communication environment prompt a reconsideration to literacy teaching and learning" (p. 42). Thus, the New London Group (1996) initiated the creation of a *metalanguage* (i.e., "a language for talking about language, images, texts, and meaning-making interactions" (p. 77), to identify how to describe and interpret different *designs of meaning*, or the meaning making process otherwise known as literacy. Understanding this process is fundamental for understanding how to support it.

The designs of meaning framework emphasizes that "meaning-making is an active and dynamic process, and not something governed by static rules", (New London Group, 1996, p. 74). This framework is designed to "transform learners" (New London Group, 1996, p. 76) as students are facilitated to construct, reconstruct and renegotiate their identities (New London Group, 1996). The designs of meaning framework encompasses three elements 1) *available designs* (i.e., "resources for meaning" [p. 77]), 2) *designing* (i.e., "the work performed on/with available designs in the semiotic process" [p. 77]), and the *redesigned* (i.e., "the resources that are reproduced and transformed through designing" [p. 77]). With the designs of meaning framework, the New London Group created the *transformative pedagogical orientation* model.

2.4.2 Transformative Pedagogical Orientation Model

I present a detailed overview of the four components of the transformative pedagogical orientations (New London Group, 1996) before presenting the updated version by Cope and Kalantzis (e.g., 2015), which I used to identify key themes in the literature to determine the affordances of TNE students' literacy and identity options, along with the implications for curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training. The four components of the transformative pedagogical orientations include situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice (See Figure 2.1). Figure 2.1 shows the interconnectedness of the four components of the transformative pedagogical orientations.

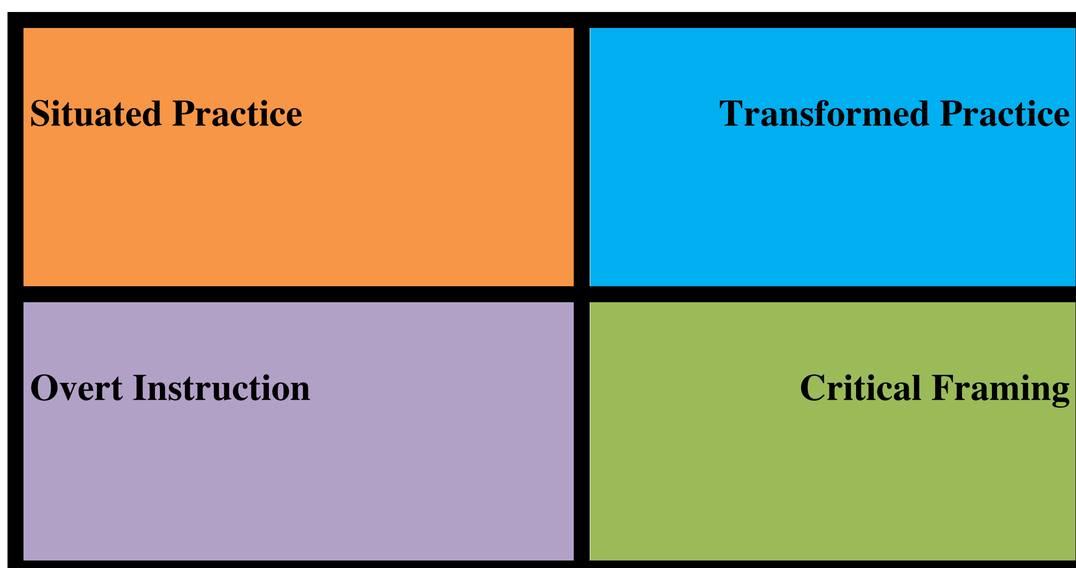

Figure 2.1: The transformative pedagogical orientations (New London Group, 1996)

The idea of the transformative pedagogical orientation model is to apply these four components into curriculum and teachers' pedagogical practices (e.g., New London Group, 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). For instance, teachers "weave" (Luke, Cazden, Lin, & Freebody, 2004, p.15) these four components together by systematically shifting the levels or kinds of knowledge into different, or more complex levels of knowledge (Luke et al., 2004). Through pedagogical weavings, teachers could enable students to

have equal access to *capital*[1] (Bourdieu, 1986; New London Group, 1996). The following is a detailed overview of the transformative pedagogical orientations (New London Group, 1996).

2.4.2.1 Situated Practice

One of the four components of the transformative pedagogical orientations by the New London Group (1996) is *situated practice*. Situated practice refers to "immersion in experience and utilization of available designs, including those from the students' life worlds and simulations of relationships to be found in workplaces and public spaces" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). Situated practice enables meaning making to occur in a collaborative learning environment, in authentic situations, with practical purposes. Teachers must consider the rich "sociocultural needs and identities of all learners" (New London Group, 1996, p. 85) and guide students to be active producers of knowledge.

2.4.2.2 Overt Instruction

Another of the four components of the transformative pedagogical orientations by the New London Group (1996) is *overt instruction*. Overt instruction is where a student acquires "systematic, analytic, and conscious understanding" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88), rather than copying, memorizing, and repeating information (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). Teachers can encourage a metalanguage to scaffold students' learning in a way that encourages critical thinking (New London Group, 1996). For example, teachers can have their students identify and explain how texts relate to a particular culture, or their own identities (New London Group, 1996).

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[1] Bourdieu (1986) recognizes capital as power, which is intertwined in three ways: material/economical, social, and cultural. Economic capital refers to anything that can be converted into a monetary value (i.e., one's property, or services); *social capital* refers to connections to social networks (e.g., networks of power); and *cultural capital* is knowledge, educational credentials, and the appreciation of cultural goods (i.e., pictures, books, instruments, materials, etc.) (Bordieu, 1986).

2.4.2.3 Critical Framing

A third component of the transformative pedagogical orientations by the New London Group (1996) is *critical framing*. Critical framing enables students to "interpret the social and cultural context of particular designs of meaning" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). Students can think about content that they are learning (i.e., situated practice), ask questions about the content (i.e., overt instruction), and think about it in their own way (i.e., critical framing). Critical framing enables learners to explore social and cultural perspectives of different designs of meaning and gain a deeper understanding of facts around them.

2.4.2.4 Transformed Practice

The final component of the transformative pedagogical orientations by the New London Group (1996) is *transformed practice*. Transformed practice refers to students putting their new knowledge "to work in other contexts or cultural sites" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). Students are no longer practicing in simulated situations (i.e., Situated Practice), they are transferring their knowledge to the real-world, and they are transforming theories into practice. For example, students who complete their prerequisites at a Canadian twinning program in Taiwan get the opportunity to leave the host institution and transform their skills (i.e., speaking English) not only at the home institution but in an Anglophone country.

2.4.3 Knowledge Processes

Later, in 2009, Kalantzis and Cope refined the transformative pedagogical orientations to a new, more elaborate model of learning referred to as the *knowledge processes* (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015), (See Figure 2.2). Figure 2.2 shows the interconnectedness of the four pedagogical orientations model by the New London Group (1996) and the four knowledge processes model (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015).

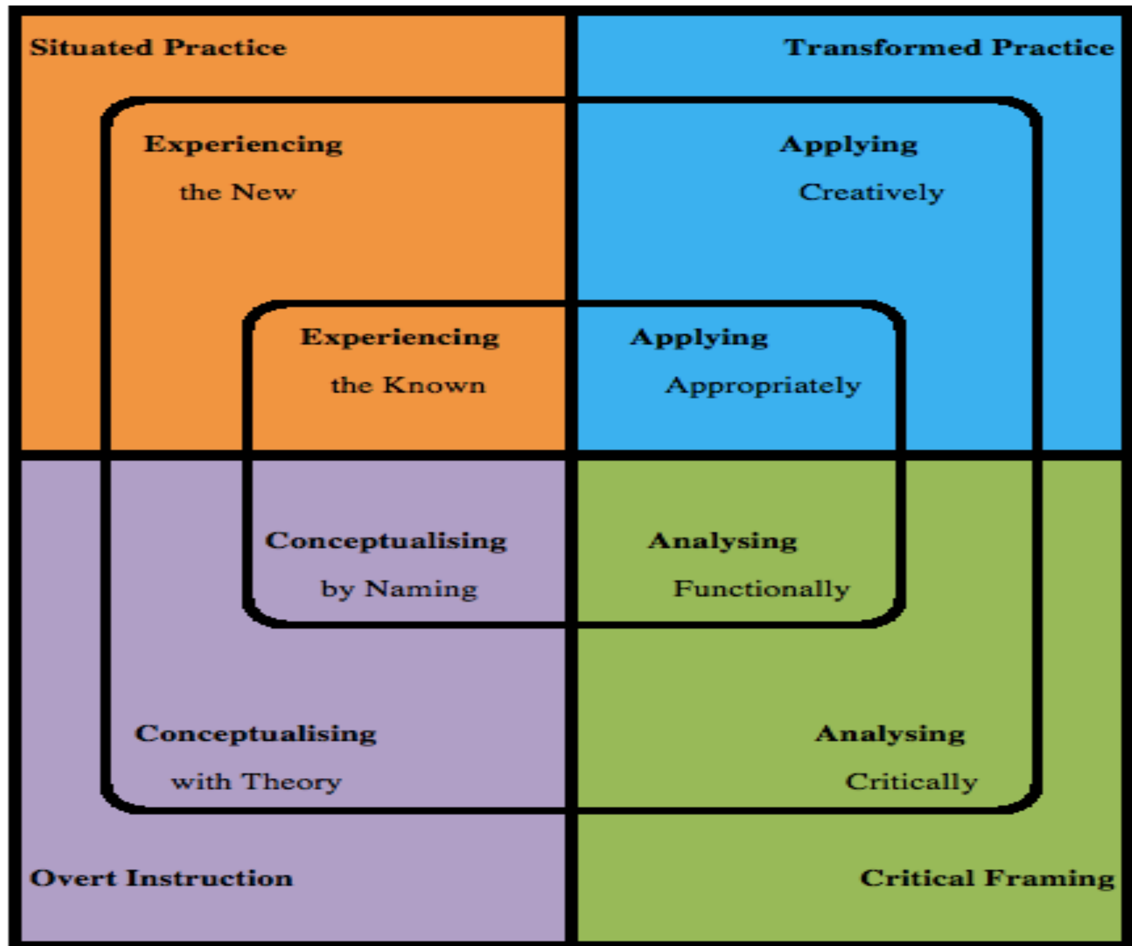

Figure 2.2: The transformative pedagogical orientations (New London Group, 1996) with the knowledge processes (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2015).

The knowledge processes are not just about teachers' pedagogical practices as in the transformative pedagogical orientations model (New London Group, 1996), however it is also about students' actions, or "things [learners] do to know" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 31). For instance, knowledge processes are "…a way of seeing and thinking, an orientation to the world, an epistemological take, a sensibility or way of feeling, and for shorter or longer moments in time, a way of being in relation to the knowable world" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 31). When the knowledge processes are explicitly named by the teacher, literacy learners can consciously develop different things they can do to know (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015), in which they "become designers of their own knowledge" and "take greater control over their learning" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 31). The four processes include experiencing, conceptualising, analysing, and applying.

The following is a detailed overview of the updated four knowledge processes (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015).

2.4.3.1 Experiencing

The first component of the knowledge process model is *experiencing*. Experiencing evolved from "situated practice" (New London Group, 1996); in which "meanings are grounded in the real world of patterns of experience, action, and subjective interests" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 358). In this sense, literacy learners can *experience the known* and *experience the new*.

Experiencing the known highlights students' interests, identity, and personal experiences (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). For instance, literacy learners bring "perspectives, objects, ideas, ways of communicating and information that are familiar to them, and reflect upon their own experiences and interest[s]" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 357). Thus, teachers must incorporate "pedagogical weavings between [students'] school learning and out-of-school experiences" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 359) during literacy class. Teachers reinforce *cultural-weavings* into their practice. Cultural weavings are "cross-connections between learners' real lives and their school lives" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 359). For example, teachers could have their students create "identity texts" (Cummins, et al, 2005), which are written works that encourage students to employ both their first language and second language(s) and then share them with the class. Students could incorporate topics such as their celebrations, hobbies, after school activities, travel experiences, and more that represent their unique identities. My study queried if in the literature, TNE programs provided students with learning opportunities to culturally weave their in-school and their out-of-school experiences to expand their literacy and identity options.

Experiencing the new is referred to as when "learners are immersed in new situations or information, observing or taking part in something that is new or unfamiliar" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 357). For instance, students require authentic, hands-on learning experiences, such as investigating experiments, multimodal projects or exploring the real world on field trips (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). My study investigated the

literature to determine if TNE programs provided students with opportunities to be immersed in authentic, unfamiliar learning environments to expand their literacy and identity options.

2.4.3.2 Conceptualising

Another component of the knowledge process model is conceptualising, which is an elaboration of "overt instruction" (New London Group, 1996). Conceptualising is defined as "specialized, disciplinary knowledges that are based on finely tuned distinctions of concept and theory, typical of those developed by expert communities of practice" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 358). There are two ways of conceptualising: *conceptualising by naming* and *conceptualising with theory*.

Conceptualising by naming refers to learners who "…group things into categories, apply classifying terms, and define these terms" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 357). The focus is not to drill and memorize the academic terms, rather, for teachers to use the terms to talk to their students about language, images, texts, and meaning-making interactions in hopes that their students will develop the concepts through exposure to them (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). My study investigated the literature to see if TNE provided students with opportunities to nurture their metalanguage (i.e., to talk about language, images, texts, and meaning-making interactions) to expand their literacy and identity options

Conceptualising with theory refers to when "learners make generalisations by connecting concepts and developing theories" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 357). Students are not expected to memorize rules, rather the hope is that students will make generalizations and these theories or rules will come naturally (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). This form of practice enables teachers to facilitate students to question, discuss, and/or expand on what they are learning. My study investigated the literature to see if TNE provided students with opportunities to openly question, discuss, theorize, and grow from their literacy materials to expand their literacy and identity options.

2.4.3.3 Analysing

The third component of the knowledge process model is *analysing*. Analysing is an elaboration of "critical framing" (New London Group, 1996), which involves "the examination of cause and effect, structure and function, elements and their relationships" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 20). Analysing can be respected in two different ways, which include *analysing functionally* and *analysing critically*.

Analysing functionally refers to students that are encouraged to "examine the function of a piece of knowledge, action, object, or represented meaning" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 20). To do so, students are required to develop "processes of reasoning, drawing inferential and deductive conclusions, establishing functional relations between cause and effect, and analyzing logical connections" (Cope & Kalantizis, 2015, p. 20). This process develops differently in each individual, due to students' diverse personal experiences and/or from the facts, images, and texts they have acquired over time (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). My study explored the literature to investigate if TNE programs provided opportunities for students to make connections to functions of texts, diagrams, and/or data visualizations to expand their literacy and identity options.

Analysing critically requires students to "evaluate their own and other people's perspectives, interests, and motives" (Kalantzis & Cope, p. 357), rather than students taking for granted information as true. Educators could provide opportunities for meaning makers to interrogate texts, and the authors' motives (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012) to strengthen their cultural awareness and their overall understandings (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). My study explored the literature to investigate if TNE programs provided opportunities for students to be active, critical thinkers regarding texts and authors' motives to expand their literacy and identity options.

2.4.3.4 Applying

The final component of the knowledge process model is *applying*. Applying is an elaboration of "transformed practice" (New London Group, 1996). Applying refers to learners who "actively intervene in the human and natural world, learning by applying experiential, conceptual or critical knowledge— acting in the world on the basis of

knowing something of the world, and learning something new from the experience of acting" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 21). The term entails two ways learners can apply their knowledge: appropriately and/or creatively.

Applying appropriately is a chance for students to put theory to practice. Applying appropriately enables "learners [to] try their knowledge out in real-world or simulated situations to see whether it works in a predictable way in a conventional context" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 357). There is not a correct nor incorrect way to do this (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). It is a chance for students to try their hand at the knowledge they have learned. My study explored the literature to investigate if TNE programs provided opportunities for students to appropriately put theory to practice to expand their literacy and identity options.

Applying creatively refers to when learners creatively, innovatively express themselves or transfer their knowledge to diverse contexts either in real-world or simulated situations (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). My study examined the literature to inquire if TNE programs provided students with the opportunity to creatively and appropriately transfer their knowledge and understandings in real-life situations to expand their literacy and identity options.

2.4.4 Multimodality

Multimodality is an important part of multiliteracies. Research into the multimodal aspects of literacy provides tools for analysing, describing, and organizing the full repertoire of people's meaning making resources (Jewitt, 2009). Multimodality is defined as "the use of different or combined modes of meaning" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 39) to communicate and represent meaning. Modes (i.e., written, visual, spatial, audio, and oral) are "a set of resources people in a given culture can use to communicate" (Bainbridge, Heydon, & Malicky, 2009, p. 4). Each mode is interwoven with all the other modes, working together to create a communicative event (Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2003, 2010). The multimodal mode specifically "represents the patterns of interconnection among the other modes" (New London Group, 1996, p. 78) and this interconnection in itself is a production of meaning (Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2003, 2010; New London Group, 1996). Multimodal texts, and particularly those typical of new, digital media, should be

integrated into the curriculum and classroom, as it emerges with the 21st century learning milieu (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). I created Figure 2.3 to illustrate seven possible interconnected modes of a digital multimedia text (e.g., a music video with captions) on a tablet as suggested by Kalantzis and Cope (2015). For example, the written language (e.g., the written captions) is one mode nestled among an ensemble of other modes, that all work together to make meaning.

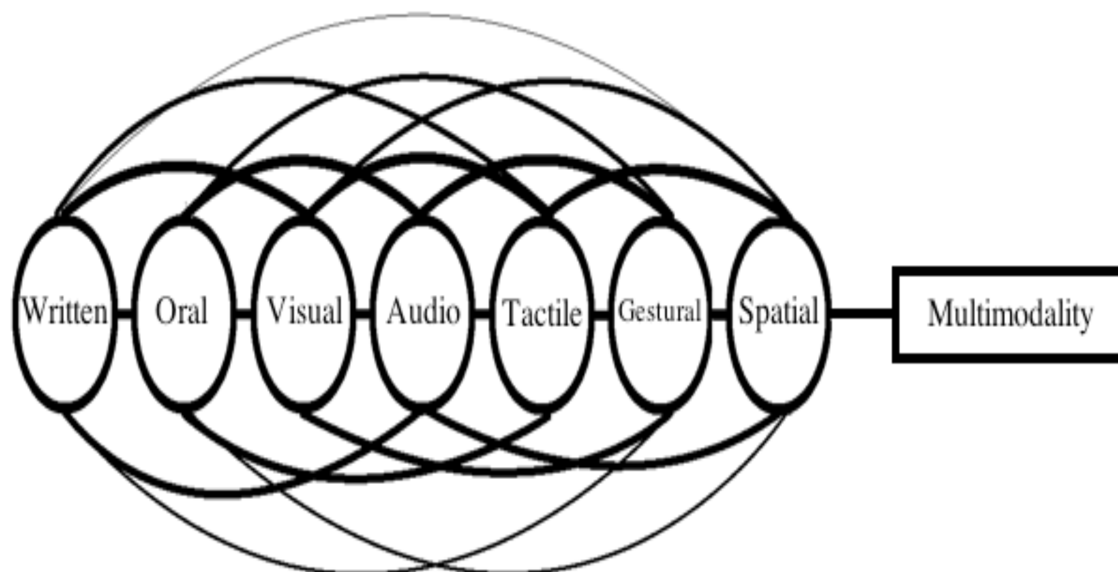

Figure 2.3: Multimodality and the interconnection of modes

We must expand the range of literacy pedagogy to multimodal forms of communication so we do not privilege alphabetical representations of meaning making that can be found in print based texts (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Kress, 2003).

The literature highlights that students prefer multimodal forms of literacy learning, as it aligns with their everyday literacy practices. Scholars affirm that all meaning making at base is multimodal (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Jewitt, 2009; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012; 2015; Kress, 2003, 2010; New London Group, 1996); Stein (2008), for instance, has pointed to multimodal communication in people's everyday lives citing children's model making. Even the event of a children's book read aloud may include both visual (i.e., writing and images) and oral (i.e., the voice of the reader) modes and thus be a multimodal literacy event. Further, Kress (1997) has documented young children's natural affinity for multimodal communication and its importance for their

print literacy acquisition. Also, Gee (2003) has long advocated for schools to adopt multimodal pedagogies that better align with children and youth's adeptness with multimodality in gaming situations.

Modes are culturally, historically, and socially shaped, therefore different modes have different effects for learning and also for shaping learners' identities (Jewitt, 2009). What teachers and students can do and think of with different modes differs in ways that are significant for learning (Jewitt, 2009). This discussion of multimodality is pertinent for understanding semiotic resources which figure in the findings of the study.

2.4.4.1 Semiotic Resources

Gunther Kress, Theo van Leeuwen, and Carey Jewitt have expanded upon multimodality in the recent literature. The literature on multimodality explains how it can be used to "build inventories of the semiotic resources (that is, the actions, materials and artefacts people communicate with) that modes make available to people in particular places and times" (Jewitt, 2009, p.16). Semiotic resources are defined by Kress (2003) as materials "of and for making meaning" (p. 9) in particular ways, and from one's imagination they are created. van Leeuwen (2004) delved deeper into this definition and described semiotic resources as:

> …the actions, materials and artifacts we use for communicative purposes, whether produced physiologically – for example, with our vocal apparatus, the muscles we use to make facial expressions and gestures – or technologically – for example, with pen and ink, or computer hardware and software – together with the ways in which these resources can be organized. (p. 285)

In certain 21st century classrooms, the computer screen has become the dominant semiotic resource for meaning making, rather than print-based books (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2009a; 2015; Jenkins, 2009; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015; Kress, 2003, 2010; New London Group, 1996). For example, in Ontario, 99% of students have access

to the use of a computer and computers are integrated into the classroom as early as kindergarten (Chen, Gallagher-Mackay & Kidder, 2014).

The semiotic resources that a learner chooses (and/or is permitted to use) are culturally bound and reflects and cultivates one's identity (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Jewitt, 2009; Kress, 2003, 2010). For example, literacy can be actively constructed, negotiated, and transformed through semiotic resources, which allows the learner a wider variety of tools and resources with which to express his meaning in comparison to more traditional notions, such as the teaching of standard reading and writing via text-based books (Kress, 2003, 2010). Thus, my study investigated the literature to determine if TNE provided students with opportunities to utilize diverse semiotic resources during their literacy learning. My study also looked at how the availability and choices made about semiotic resources shaped literacy and identity options in the globalized classrooms.

2.4.5 New Media Literacies

Highly relevant for semiotic resources and literacy in contemporary times are *new media technologies* (i.e., digital technologies including the internet, smartphones, tablets, computers, and more), which can rapidly and effectively portray ideas in a logical, meaningful way (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b). New media technologies have brought rise to *new media* and *new media literacies*—both concepts developed in and through multiliteracies.

New media refers to all the content available on-line through new media technologies; this content is usually contained in an interactive community (Kress, 2003). Examples of new media include on-line platforms such as e-books, podcasts, blogs, video games, and social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat). Cope and Kalantzis (2009a) note that because of new media technologies, "new media mix modes more powerfully than was culturally the norm and even technically possible in the earlier modernity" (p. 177). For instance, as of 2017, Facebook supports public communication in written text in more than 100 languages, and incorporates images, videos, and personal messaging by the user. Jenkins (2009) asserts that "changes in the media environment are

altering our understanding of literacy and requiring new habits of mind, new ways of processing culture, and interacting with the world around us" (p. 33).

Through the interplay of new media technologies and new media, the literature is firm that 21st century globalized learners can be active designers of media, rather than passive consumers of media (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b; Cummins, 2001; Gee, 2000, 2003, 2004, 2008; Jenkins 2009; Kalantzis & Cope, 2015; Kress, 2003; New London Group, 1996). For example, students can be the main characters of video games, in which they can create the dialogue through writing or speaking with others and manipulate their actions, rather than watching and reading the screen or text (Gee, 2003). Students have more options than ever before to have control of their media options, as options are becoming more individualized (Jenkins, 2009). Also, people are in control of all the music they put on their play lists and listen to on their devices, rather than listening to a specific genre on a radio station (Kress, 2003).

According to the relevant literature, in the classroom, 21st century learners are utilizing new media technologies and new media in dynamic, innovative ways, therefore students must be taught to use these devices critically and appropriately. *New media literacies* are "a set of cultural competencies and social skills that young people need in the new media landscape" (Jenkins, 2009, p. xiii). An example in the *Ontario Curriculum Grades 1-8: English as a Second Language and English Literacy Development Resource Guide* is "children will represent their thinking in various ways – for example, … by using electronic media such as applications on tablets where they can take photos and add their own text to accompany them" (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2001, p. 72). New media literacies should not seek to reinforce repetition, memorization, and copying; rather, the aim is to create "a kind of person, an active designer of meaning, with sensibility open to differences, change and innovation" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b, p. 175). My study investigated TNE literature to determine if TNE provided students with opportunities to become active media designers by manipulating new technologies (e.g., tablets) in correspondence with new media technologies (e.g., Facebook). My study also investigated the literature to see if students were provided strategies to use new media critically and appropriately.

To progress forward with TNE research, curriculum, and classroom pedagogy, for globalized students, educators must seek to understand how the current literature speaks to the changes in definitions of literacy and pedagogy discussed in this chapter. In the next chapter, I outline the methodology I used to investigate just this.

Chapter 3

3 Methods

In this chapter, I outline the data collection and data analysis methods that I used to design an explicit, comprehensive, reproducible systematic literature review. First, I describe how I applied 8-steps of Okoli and Schabram's (2010) *Systematic Literature Review Guide* (See §3.1) to situate my SLR. I then outline the searching strategies and screening criteria for planning selecting the literature (See §3.1.1). Next, I provide a quality appraisal of the strengths of the selected articles (See §3.1.2). I then describe how I extracted the data to find the trends in the reviewed TNE research by hand-coding and creating categories (See § 3.1.3). After that, I specify how I extracted the reported affordances of TNE and the implications for TNE curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training to expand learners' literacy and identity options through deductive and inductive thematic analyses (See § 3.1.4). I then explain the research methodology (i.e., qualitative research) of how I wrote and synthesized my findings (See § 3.1.5).

3.1 Systematic Literature Review

A research literature review is "a systematic, explicit, comprehensive, and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing the existing body of completed and recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners" (Fink, 2005, p. 3). Like Okoli and Schabram (2010), I use this definition to define my systematic literature review. I adopted the eight steps of Okoli & Schabram's (2010) methodological approach to designing a SLR (See Appendix A[2]). I summarized the eight steps that I took to conduct this SLR:

1. *Purpose of the literature review*: One must explicitly identity the purpose and intended goals of the review.

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[2] Appendix A illustrates 8-steps of Okoli and Schabram's (2010) systemic literature review guide namely: the purpose of the literature review, the protocol and training, searching for the literature, practical screen, quality appraisal, data extraction, synthesis of studies, and writing the review.

2. *Protocol and training*: If there is only one reviewer, a protocol does not need to be complete. If there is more than one reviewer it is critical to be in agreement of the procedure.
3. *Searching for the literature*: One must be explicit in describing the details of the literature search, to assure trustworthiness.
4. *Practical screen*: One must be explicit about the included studies and the ones that were eliminated.
5. *Quality appraisal*: One must explicitly spell out the criteria for judging which articles were of insufficient quality to be included. All the included articles must be scored for their quality.
6. *Data extraction*: One must extract the relevant, applicable information from each study.
7. *Synthesis of studies*: One must combine the extracted facts using appropriate research methods (i.e., qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-methods).
8. *Writing the review*: One must report the findings in sufficient detail that the results of the review can be independently reproduced.

I have already outlined the intended purpose of this SLR (See § 1.2) and I am an independent researcher, therefore my thesis proposal is a sufficient protocol document. Below, I outline the search strategies and practical screen criteria, the quality appraisal, and the data extraction I implemented to gather my data. I then explain how I synthesized and reported my findings. Along with how I established trustworthiness throughout and any possible limitations to this study.

3.1.1 Search Strategies and Practical Screen Criteria

I conducted an initial electronic search of the "thesaurus term[s]" (Shaw et al., 2004, p. 2) "transnational education, literacy, identity" on the *basic Western Libraries Summon™* database. I employed these controlled keywords to locate all the resources indexed in abstracts, resource content, or anywhere within the document. The results of this initial search in January 2017 gathered an abundance of sources, including 21,999 books/e-books, 1,739 book chapters, 7,083 journal articles, and more. In total, there were 32,953 all-inclusive resources spanning from 1953 to 2017. I then implemented a set of

screening criteria to make the search more targeted and manageable. This eight-step screening process included specific criteria pertaining to the selection of the Boolean phrases, document types, peer-reviewed resources, databases, advanced controlled thesaurus terms, empirical research, qualitative research and concluded with a quality appraisal of the literature. These screening criteria are described in more detail below.

3.1.1.1 Boolean Phrase

The initial search terms "transnational education AND literacy AND identity" were inputted into the advanced search bar. The advanced search bar offers a *Boolean phrase* function. The Boolean phrase operators were designed to "define[s] logical relationships between terms in a search" (EBSCO*host*, 2016, n.p.) by providing the researcher the choice to select AND, OR, or NOT. I used the Boolean phrase AND to condense the search results to a more manageable number because when AND is selected all the key terms inputted for the search integrate into final tabulations. However, there were still a tremendous 33,055 all-inclusive articles that resulted from the search. I then selected a specific *document type* to decrease the data search results.

3.1.1.2 Document Type

The *document type* function allows the researcher to select which specific document structure they would like to review (i.e., abstracts, articles, books, book chapters, etc.). I selected book chapters and journal articles, and a total of 35 books resulted and 7,215 journal articles resulted. I did not think 35 book chapters was an adequate number of sources, especially in comparison to the large number of journal articles. Galvan (2009) contends that "the most common primary sources are reports of empirical research published in academic journals" (p. 1), therefore, I transferred the focus of this SLR to exclude books, and to only investigate journal articles.

3.1.1.3 Peer-Review

I then selected the *peer-reviewed* function. Peer reviewed articles are journal articles that have gained acceptance to an organization by experts whose credentials are known and

who are experts within the subject area (EBSCO*host* (2016). This resulted in 6,682 papers.

3.1.1.4 Databases

I then inserted the initial search terms "transnational education AND literacy AND identity" into the Elton B. Stephens Company (*EBSCO™*) advanced search bar and the *ProQuest Education™* advanced search bar. The *EBSCO™* platform and the *ProQuest Education™* platform were employed as database hosts to find the data for this SLR (See Figure 3.1). Figure 3.1 shows a clear depiction of the database hosts that I employed to find the data.

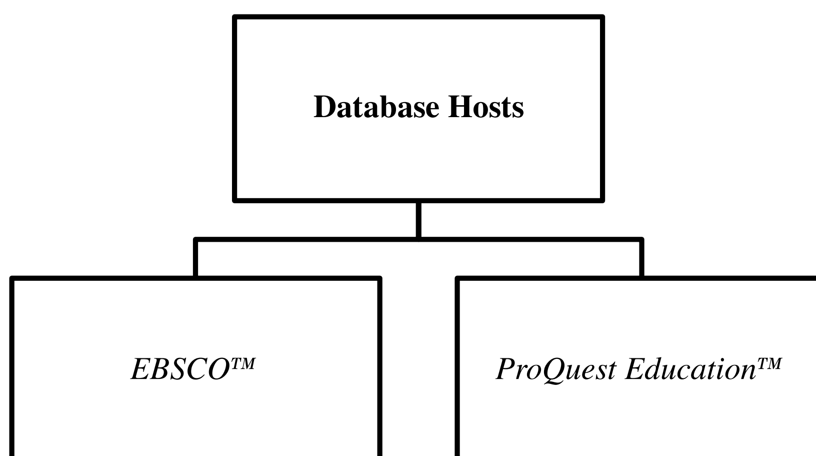

Figure 3.1: Database Hosts

The *EBSCO™* platform was utilized as the database host as it offers "the most-used, premium on-line information resources worldwide" (EBSCO*host*, 2016, n.p.), it offers more than "2,000 unique journal articles" (EBSCO*host*, 2016, n.p.) and it is "the world's largest and most complete collection of full-text education journals" (EBSCO*host*, 2016, n.p.). The *EBSCO™* host platform can be synchronized with two other databases for optimal resources, the *Education Source™* database and the *Professional Development Collection™* database (See Figure 3.2). Figure 3.2 illustrates two other databases that were used along with the EBSCO database.

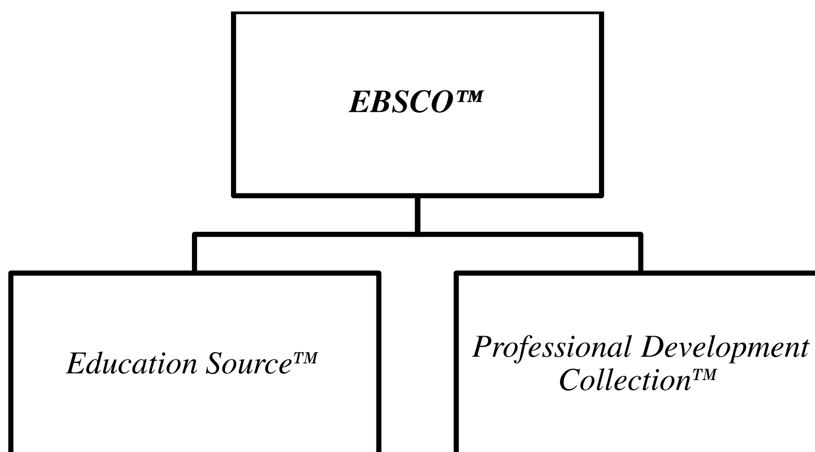

Figure 3.2: *EBSCO™* database as a host

I incorporated the *Education Source™* database because it includes a diversity of research from various levels of education such as early childhood to higher education, as well as educational specialties such as education for CLD learners (EBSCO*host*, 2016). Next, I included the *Professional Development Collection™* database because it provides a "highly specialized collection of educational journals" (EBSCO*host*, 2016, n.p.) that may not be found in the other databases.

Next, I implemented the *ProQuest Education™* database as the second host database for its "rich aggregated collections of the world's most important scholarly journals" (ProQuest, 2017, n.p.). The *ProQuest Education™* host database platform can also be synchronized with two other databases, the *Canadian Business & Current Affairs (CBCA) Education Database*, as well as the *Education Database, Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)*. (See Figure 3.3). Figure 3.3 shows a clear depiction of the other two databases that were used with the *ProQuest Education™* database.

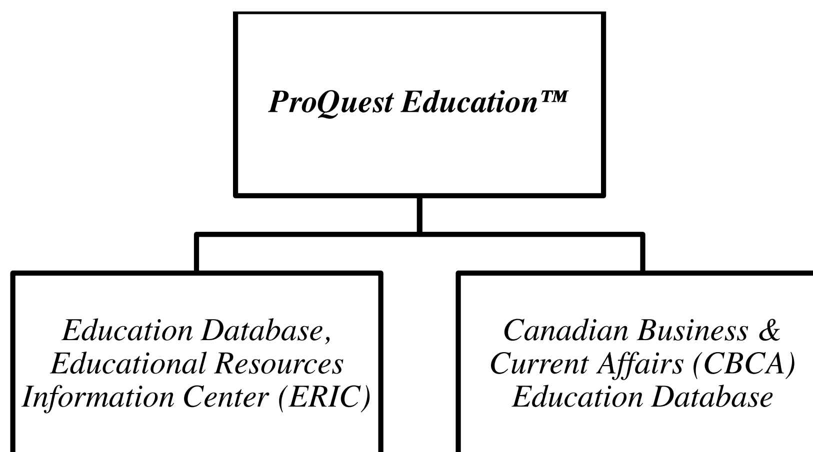

Figure 3.3: *ProQuest Education™* database as a host

I incorporated the *CBCA Education Database* because it has an "in-depth and detailed focus on Canadian publications" (ProQuest, 2017, n.p.), whereas, the *ERIC* database mainly includes publications of American education sources. The *ERIC* database provided the opportunity for the data to have a broader international scope rather than limiting the perspective only to a Canadian database. I also selected the *ERIC* database because it not only has sources for students of higher education, junior college, elementary, and second language learning, but it more specifically has sources about teachers and teacher pre- and in-service education.

After I ran the search, the data results were still too narrow. For instance, in the *ProQuest Education™* database, the results produced 19 English peer-reviewed journal articles, which in fact duplicated two of the three papers found in the EBSCO™ database. After I compiled the articles together using the search term "transnational education AND literacy AND identity", I was left with 20 English, peer-reviewed journal articles, which was again, not enough for a rigorous, comprehensive literature review.

3.1.1.5 Advanced Controlled Thesaurus Terms

To broaden the number of articles and to narrow the focus of the data to relate to my research questions, I separated the original search terms and conducted 16 different advanced searches between the two databases. I first searched "transnational education AND literacy", and I included *various levels of study* that pertained to the research

questions. Specifically, the various levels of study that I included in the search are as follows: higher education, secondary, elementary, primary, junior, teacher education, teacher training, and teacher preparation. I used the Boolean phrase operator AND to broaden the search options. I then compiled the documents related to the search terms "transnational education AND literacy AND various levels of study" (See Table 3.1). Table 3.1 illustrates the total results of the eight searches I conducted of the respective search terms in the *EBSCO™* database, the *ProQuest Education™* database and then the combination of both databases. I then removed the duplicate data sources to have a total of 51 journal articles remain.

Table 3.1 Eight searches of TNE AND literacy AND various levels of study

Search Terms	**No. of *EBSCO™* Articles**	**No. of *ProQuest Education™* Articles**	**Total Articles of *EBSCO™* and *ProQuest Education™* Combined**
Transnational education AND literacy AND higher education	15	27	40
Transnational education AND literacy AND secondary	2	14	14
Transnational education AND literacy AND elementary OR primary OR junior	1	13	13
Transnational education AND literacy AND teacher education OR	1	16	17

teacher training OR teacher preparation	
Total	**51**

The higher education term was recognized as the most prominent level of study term when it was searched with “transnational education AND literacy”. Again, to broaden the search, I investigated the terms “transnational education AND identity AND various levels of study” (See Table 3.2). Table 3.2 depicts the total results of the eight searches I conducted of the respective search terms in the *EBSCO™* database, the *ProQuest Education™* database and then the combination of both databases.

Table 3.2 Eight searches of TNE AND identity AND various levels of study

Search Terms	No. of *EBSCO™*	No. of ***ProQuest Education™***	**Total No. of *EBSCO™* and *ProQuest Education™* Articles Combined**
Transnational education AND identity AND higher education	26	63	81
Transnational education AND identity AND secondary	5	39	42
Transnational education AND identity AND elementary OR primary OR junior	5	26	31
Transnational education AND identity AND teacher education OR teacher training OR teacher preparation	5	39	41
Total			**122**

I compiled all the transnational education AND identity papers AND all the various level of education papers. I then removed the duplicates, which caused 122 articles to remain.

Again, the higher education term was recognized as the most prominent level of study term when it was searched with "transnational education AND identity". Finally, I compiled both groups that were mentioned above together. I removed one set of the duplicated papers causing 151 English peer-reviewed journal articles to remain.

3.1.1.6 Empirical Research

I narrowed the search by extracting empirical papers because TNE students' literacy and identity options are a relatively new area of research, thus I am able to work with establishing a frontier for a field of study and have constructive impact on teacher education policy and practice. Empirical research is the gain of knowledge through planned observations or experiences; and recorded as qualitative, quantitative or through mixed methods research (Goodwin, 2010). I kept 76 empirical papers and excluded 52 conceptual papers. Miles and Huberman (1994) define conceptual research as a text that can "explain, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied– the key factors, concepts, or variables— and the presume relationships among them" (p. 18). I also excluded 23 "irrelevant papers" because the focus of these articles did not pertain to my research questions.

3.1.1.7 Qualitative Research

I extracted qualitative research papers only and excluded papers with quantitative and mixed-methods research designs. Qualitative data involves "making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories, and regularities" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 461). Again, as a future researcher, I have an interest in designing qualitative research, thus investigating qualitative research is important to me. From the 76 selected empirical papers, 15 of the papers used a mixed-methods approach and one paper used quantitative methods. These articles were further screened out of the collection, leaving a total of 60 papers with a total of 1,149 page numbers (See Appendix B[3]). As I am an independent researcher, I

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[3] Appendix B lists 60 articles, all the reference information, plus shows the total number of pages in each article.

included the justification and excluded items, (See Appendix C[4]) because as a researcher it is my responsibility to clearly report data and make the data available for other members of the research community to check (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 77).

3.1.2 Quality Appraisal

To conclude the screening process, one must evaluate the quality of articles that are to be included in a SLR (Okoli & Schabram, 2010). I adapted nine categorical items from (Blaxter, 2013; Okoli & Schabram, 2010; Timulak, 2014; Zhang, Nagle, McKishnie, Lin, & Li [submitted]) and employed a five-point Likert scale, (1-extremely disagree, 2-disagree, 3-neutral, 4-agree, and 5-completely agree) to rate nine categories of each study. This appraisal model is adapted from the existent literature that pertains to the conduction of meta-syntheses of qualitative studies (Blaxter, 2013; Okoli & Schabram, 2010; Timulak, 2014). The following are the nine categorical items I employed to assess the quality of the 60 papers.

1. *Research Questions:* The research questions or the research focuses are clearly articulated.

2. *Literature Review*: The connections to the previous literature are clear and adequate.

3. *Context:* The research is clearly contextualized with relevant information about the setting and participants.

4. *Data Collection*: The data gathering tools used are appropriate to the nature of the research question(s) being asked, (e.g., the participants, setting, and data gathering are theoretically justified).

5. *Data Analysis*: The steps of the analysis process are clearly stated (e.g., there is sufficient information regarding how the themes, concepts, and categories were

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[4] Appendix C lists the justification for the excluded 91 articles as either conceptual, quantitative, mixed-method, or irrelevant.

derived from the data; there is adequate information regarding the validity of the findings [e.g., triangulation, reliability, validity, and expert checking]).

6. *Data Presentation*: The data presentation is systematic and enables the readers to judge the range of evidence being used (e.g., quotations, field notes, and other data sources are used appropriately).
7. *Data and Interpretation:* There is a clear distinction made between the data and the interpretations.
8. *Results*: The results are unequivocal and credible with a) the results addressing the research questions and b) sufficient original evidence presented to satisfy the readers of the relationship between the evidence and the conclusions.
9. *Conclusions:* Clear conclusions are drawn from the important findings and are trustworthy.

3.1.2.1 Assessment of the 60 Included Papers

I now present the quality appraisal to conclude the screening process of the 60 reviewed articles (See Table 3.3). Table 3.3 illustrates the evaluation of the quality appraisal of the 60 articles, in which none of the 60 papers were required to be excluded from the study. A summary of all the assessment results of the 60 papers can be viewed in Appendix D[5].

Table 3.3: Quality appraisal of the 60 articles

Assessment Categories of Reviewed Studies (*n* = 60)	***M***	***SD***
1. Research Questions	4.27	0.98
2. Literature Review	4.22	1.08
3. Context	4.08	0.75

[5] Appendix D lists the quality appraisal of the nine assessment categories (i.e., research questions, literature review, context, data collection, data analysis, data presentation, data and interpretation, results, and conclusion), the mean and standard deviation based off of the 5-point Likert Scale.

4. Data Collection	4.19	0.78
5. Data Analysis	4.10	1.27
6. Data Presentation	4.39	1.15
7. Data and Interpretation	4.42	1.08
8. Results	4.39	1.14
9. Conclusion	4.25	0.78

After the eight-step screening process, which included the quality appraisal, the resulting articles included 60 English, empirical, qualitative, peer-reviewed journal articles relating to transnational education AND literacy AND identity and various levels of study from the *EBSCO™* and *ProQuest Education™* databases. After the studies were screened, justified, and selected, the applicable information was systematically extracted from each study to answer the four proposed questions. Now, I present how I extracted the relevant data to answer my three research questions.

3.1.3 Data Extraction of the Trends of Reviewed TNE Studies

I created codes and categories for the 60 articles to identify trends of the reviewed research on TNE. The codes and categories of inquiry included areas of the reviewed research such as the date of publication to determine if research on transnational education is keeping pace with the rise in TNE schools and growing student population. I also investigated the methodologies, methods, other data sources, and data analyses that were employed in the studies to determine if there are underused tools that could enhance future TNE research.

Next, in Africa, they say "it takes a village to raise a child", much like the success of TNE programs involve more perspectives than just the students. To determine the population sample that is most predominant in the research I reported all the participants that were included in the 60 studies. I then broke the participants down to the students' level of education and the level of education the teachers are qualified to teach. As such, I

documented the categories for the students' level of education as primary, junior, intermediate, and senior, following the most recent *Ontario Ministry of Education's Ontario* curriculum guidelines from kindergarten to grade 12 (i.e., *The Ontario Curriculum Grades 1-8: English as a Second Language and English Literacy Development Resource Guide* [2001], *The Ontario Curriculum, Grades 9 and 10: English* [2007] curriculum guide, and *The Ontario Curriculum, Grades 11 and 12: English* [2007] curriculum guide). Also, for the higher education (HE) level, I reported students enrolled at the undergraduate or graduate level. Undergraduate students include students enrolled in or that have obtained a Bachelor's degree, and graduate students include students enrolled in or that have obtained a Master's (MA) degree, Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree or a professional degree (e.g., medicine) (See Table 3.4). Table 3.4 shows the students' education level (e.g., primary) and the corresponding grade in which the students are enrolled in (e.g., grade 1, grade 2, grade 3). Please note, that this HE category excludes individuals enrolled in pre-teacher education as they are in a category on their own.

Table 3.4 Students' education level guideline

Education Level	Grade
Primary	Kindergarten (K) - Grade 3
Junior	Grade 4 – 6
Intermediate	Grade 7- 10
Senior	Grade 11- 12
Undergraduate Level	Bachelor's Degree
Graduate Level	Masters of Arts/ Doctor of Philosophy Degree/Professional Degree

For the teachers (See Table 3.5) I reported pre- and in- service teachers from K to grade 12 that were involved in the 60 papers. Table 3.5 depicts the title of the teaching position (e.g., in-service teacher) and the corresponding grades in which these teachers are qualified to teach (e.g., K-12). Also, for HE teachers, I reported professors, heads of

departments and/or lecturers that were involved in the studies. I reported any other subjects that were involved in the study and reported them as "other sources".

Table 3.5 The level of education the teachers are qualified to teach

Education Level	Grade
Pre-service teacher	K-12
In-service teacher	K-12
HE teacher	HE
Other sources	K-HE

After that, I investigated the participants' gender to determine if a particular gender was studied more than another. I then sought to discover the location of where the participants were situated at the time of the study to determine if researchers entered the field at offshore locations to find their participants. Finally, I explored the cultural backgrounds that the students and the teachers identified with to determine which cultures are represented in the TNE literature and to determine if there are areas that could be investigated further in the future. I have synthesized the data from each total into figures and tables, which is illustrated and discussed further in Chapter 4.

3.1.4 Data Extraction of the Thematic Analyses

Boyatzis (1998) contended, thematic analysis is "a process that can be used with most, if not all, qualitative methods" (p. 4). Thematic analysis is "a process of encoding qualitative information" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4), which "requires an explicit 'code'" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4), for example, a list of themes. A theme is "a pattern found in the information that at minimum describes and organizes the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4). A hybrid approach of thematic analysis was utilized to discover what is currently in the research regarding the affordances of transnational education in relation to the expansion of students' literacy learning and identity options. The qualitative methods employed incorporated both the *deductive thematic analysis* approach and the *inductive thematic analysis* approach. First, I explain how I employed the deductive thematic analysis and then the inductive thematic analysis.

3.1.4.1 Deductive Thematic Analysis

Deductive thematic analysis is when a researcher codes for "themes [that] are generated deductively from theory and prior research" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4). I coded for themes pertaining to autonomous literacy themes, as well as multiliteracies themes to determine the affordances of transnational education that the reviewed studies reported regarding expanding students' literacy learning and identity options.

To conduct this analysis, I first uploaded the 60 selected texts into NVivo for Mac Version 11 (NVivo, 2015), then entered the three deductive themes and the relevant subthemes for autonomous literacy model deductive themes (See Table 3.6). Table 3.6 depicts the autonomous literacy model deductive themes that I used to analyse the 60 papers.

Table 3.6 Autonomous literacy model deductive themes

Autonomous Literacy Model Deductive Themes (See § 2.3.1.1)
Autonomous Literacy Model and Pedagogy in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.2)
1. "Teacher- talk" dominated classrooms, in which the teacher dominated the talk time rather than students during class time
2. "Whole class instructions" with little one-on-one, or group attention
3. "Teacher-time", in which teachers determined the use of class time and curriculum objectives with little input or consideration from the students
4. "Teacher-centered" classrooms, where students faced the teacher and were situated in rows
5. "Text-book teachers", in which teachers heavily referred to textbooks to guide curricular and instructional decision making
6. "Teach-for-the-test-teachers", in which teachers questioned, drilled, or tested students with one and only one correct answer
Autonomous Literacy Model and Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.3 & § 2.3.1.4)
Doing repetition, memorization, drills, and dictation during listening, speaking, reading, and writing exercises

Autonomous Literacy Model and Identity in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.5)
Negotiating their identities in a "melting pot" (New London Group, 1996, p. 72) environment

After I inputted the autonomous literacy model deductive themes, I entered the multiliteracies themes and the relevant subthemes (See Table 3.7) into the software. Table 3.7 illustrates the multiliteracies deductive themes that I created to conduct my analysis.

Table 3.7 Multiliteracies deductive themes

Multiliteracies (e.g., Multimodality & New Media Literacies) Deductive Themes
Experiencing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.1)
Experiencing the known Weaving their school learning and out-of-school experiences (i.e., features that represent their unique identities namely, languages, celebrations, hobbies, after school activities, travel experiences, etc.)
Experiencing the new Being immersed in authentic, unfamiliar learning environments
Conceptualising in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.2)
Actively questioning, discussing, theorizing, and growing from literacy materials or nurturing their metalanguage (i.e., talking about language, images, texts, and meaning-making interactions)
Analysing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.3)
Making connections to functions of texts, diagrams, and/or data visualizations and being active, critical thinkers regarding texts and authors' motives
Applying in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.4)
Applying Appropriately Appropriately putting theory to practice
Applying Creatively Creatively transferring their creations and understandings in real-life situations

Semiotic Resources for Meaning Making in TNE classrooms (See §2.4.4)
Utilizing diverse semiotic resources
New Media Literacies in TNE classrooms (See §2.4.5)
Manipulating new technologies (e.g., tablets) as active media designers in correspondence with new media technologies (e.g., Facebook); Being guided as to how to use new media critically and appropriately

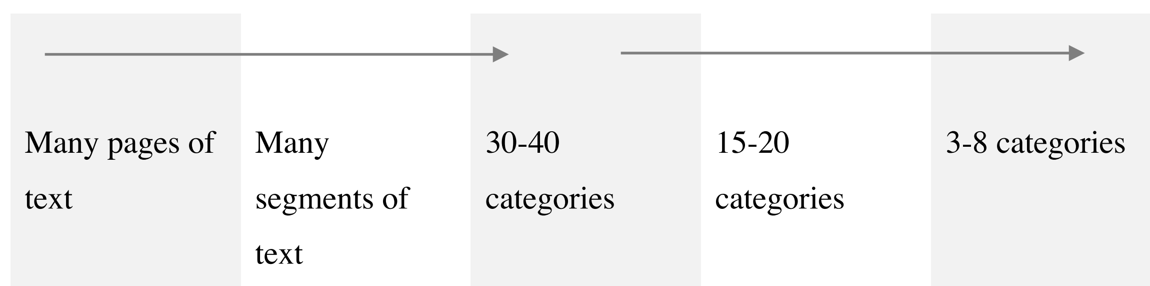
A more detailed description of these themes can be found in Chapter 2. To complete the data extraction process, I specifically read and reviewed the results, findings, discussion, implication, and conclusion sections of the 60 papers searching for phrases in the texts that related to the predetermined themes. The key phrases were recorded and the article numbers were documented. The results of these findings are presented in Chapter 4.

3.1.4.2 Inductive Thematic Analysis

I designed the inductive thematic analysis to discover the "frequently reported patterns used in qualitative data analysis" (Murray, 2003, p. 1), without any predetermined idea about which themes would be cultivated. I adopted Murray's (2003) "adapted coding process of inductive analysis" (p. 6), originally developed by Creswell (2002) (See Table 3.8) to extract the data from the reviewed articles to uncover the reported affordances of TNE and the implications of TNE curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher education to expand students' literacy and identity options. Table 3.8 illustrates the coding process I employed to create my inductive themes.

Table 3.8 Coding process for the inductive analysis

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Initially read through text data	Identified specific segments of information	Labelled the segments of information to create categories	Reduced overlap and redundancy among the categories	Created a model that incorporated the most important categories



Note: Adapted coding process of inductive analysis from (Murray, 2003, p. 6), originally developed by Creswell (2002).

To extract the data, I first inputted the 60 papers into NVivo for Mac, version 11 (NVivo, 2015). I read the 60 articles to become familiar with the details and themes that could possibly emerge. I then read specific sections: the results, findings, discussion, and conclusion sections to discover what the data driven themes were. Data-driven codes "appear with the words and syntax of the raw information" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 30). As I read these sections, I created 30 general themes that were created from actual phrases in the texts. I then merged the overlapping themes into 15 new themes. I then summarized the themes into 2 categories (See Table 3.9). Table 3.9 shows the two inductive themes I included in my thematic analysis to determine the affordances of transnational students' literacy and identity options.

Table 3.9 Inductive themes

Inductive Themes
1. Nurturing fluid identities in the classroom
2. Having the opportunities to imagine membership in new communities

3.1.5 Synthesis of Findings

To synthesize and report the findings of these qualitative papers I situate this research in a qualitative research methodology. By employing a qualitative approach to my SLR, I gain in-depth insights, or "thick descriptions" (Geertz, 1973), into TNE students' social, cultural and linguistic practices, perspectives, and voices. Qualitative research supports that these practices and perspectives, and the meanings that I attribute to them in my

findings and discussion section, are continually evolving with changes in time and context (Cohen, et al., 2007). As mentioned, I have been an offshore teacher prior to this and I am currently an offshore teacher, thus, I have insight into some of the challenges that occur in TNE programs. These challenges have been deduced from the literature, however, “certain themes remain hidden from the researcher” (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975, p. 2) in which through inductive thematic analysis I can “examine data in as many ways possible” (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975, p. 2) to bring to the research community unbiased, trustworthy results.

3.1.6 Trustworthiness & Ethical Considerations

This SLR abides by all Western University’s ethical guidelines and requirements and conforms to three criteria for trustworthiness in qualitative research, which are “credibility,” “transferability,” and “dependability” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, 300). These four criteria are equivalent to quantitative terms, namely, internal validity, external validity, and reliability(Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3.1.6.1 Credibility

I ensured credibility (i.e., ensuring the results are believable from the perspective of the participant in the research [Lincoln & Guba, 1985]) through triangulation. Triangulation is the use of multiple methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena (Patton, 1999). Triangulation can be employed as a strategy to test credibility when information intersects from different sources (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, & Neville, 2014). In this SLR I used data source triangulation (e.g., Carter et al., 2015; Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1999), in which I screened for and collected data that incorporated students on a global spectrum, who were in diverse grade levels, to gain multiple perspectives and validation.

3.1.6.2 Transferability

As mentioned (See §3.1), a SLR must be *systematic* in following a methodological approach, *explicit* in explaining the procedures by which it was conducted, *comprehensive* in its scope of including all relevant material,

and *reproducible* by others who would follow the same approach in reviewing the topic (Okoli & Schabram, 2010). I ensured transferability (i.e., the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings [Lincoln & Guba, 1985]) by following the eight steps of Okoli & Schabram's (2010) methodological approach to designing a SLR. My SLR is transferable because it is systematic, explicit, comprehensive, and reproducible in the sense that I explicitly described the search strategies and practical screen criteria, the quality appraisal and the data extraction criteria I implemented to gather and record my data sources.

3.1.6.3 Dependability

Qualitative research tends to assume that each researcher brings a unique perspective to the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I have ensured dependability (i.e., my findings could be reproducible [Lincoln & Guba, 1985]) through the documentation of an audit trail. An audit trail is "the trail of materials assembled for the use of the auditor, metaphorically analogous to fiscal accounts" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 319). All of my reported data results are found in the Appendix section and by documenting this audit trail I have accounted for my interpretations.

3.1.7 Limitations to the SLR

There are two significant limitations to this SLR due to the size of the dataset, and the data collection methods. Due to my MA thesis time restrictions, I only used English, qualitative, peer-reviewed journal articles with specific search terms from the *Western Libraries* databases. The size of the dataset was so large that I was required to eliminate many valuable sources of information that pertain to the field of TNE as there were over 21,999 books/e-books, 1,739 book chapters, 7,083 journal articles, book reviews, 29, and more resources (dissertations, government documents, conference proceedings, newspapers, etc.) which would then impact the conclusions of this paper.

Another limitation pertains to the data collection and analysis methods. I am an independent researcher and most sources on how to conduct a SLR suggest that literature reviews should be conducted with at least two individuals to avoid biasing the results. For example, there is not an intercoder reliability score available for the scientific strengths of

the 60 studies, as I independently evaluated the articles. Naturally this may have caused rater bias for the results of the interpretation of the quality appraisal of the studies. However, as a researcher, I did my best to stay as neutral and honest, and document as much of my data in the appendices as possible to reflect the truthfulness of the outcome of the findings.

In Chapter 3, I summarized the eight steps of Okoli & Schabram's (2010) methodological approach I employed to conduct this SLR. I also outlined the search strategies and practical screen criteria, and the data extraction methods I implemented to gather my data. I then explained how I synthesized and reported my findings, and how I established trustworthiness throughout and addressed possible limitations to this study. I now report the findings of the first two research questions in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

4 Findings

In Chapter 4, I report the findings of the study. I present what my study found about the trends of the reviewed transnational education studies. I also discuss the findings in the literature related to the deductive and inductive themes that I introduced in the last chapter. Both sets of themes provide the basis for discussing the reported affordances of TNE relative to students' literacy and identity options in globalized school settings.

4.1 Trends Identified in the Literature

The study first asked, what are the trends of the reviewed research on transnational education? To respond to this question, I present descriptive statistics of trends I identified in the 60 reviewed research articles. First, I report on trends related to the publication dates of the studies, the research methodologies, the data gathering tools, and the data extraction tools. Then I report on aspects of the population sample, namely, the students' level of education, the grades/levels the teachers were qualified to the teach, the participants' gender, the geographical location of the research the papers reported on, and information that was given by the articles relative to the cultural backgrounds of the students and the teachers.

As described in the previous chapter, there were 60 papers that met the inclusion criteria of my study. These 60 papers were published across the 19-year time span of the study search. Figure 4.1 visually represents the distribution of these publications over that time span (i.e., 1998 to 2017) (See also Appendix E which lists publication dates, the corresponding article numbers, and the total number of reported articles per year).

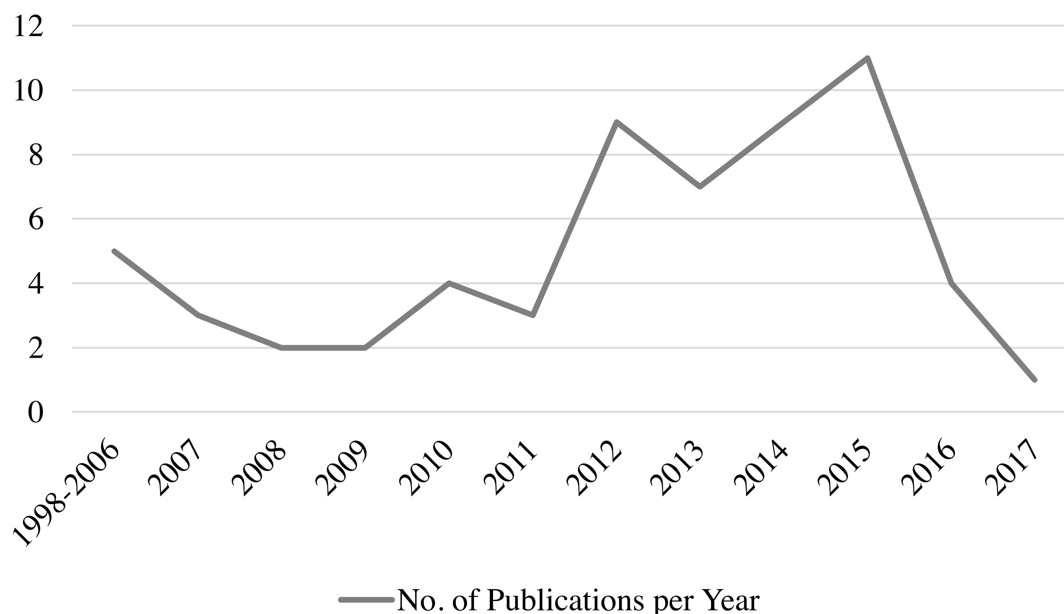


Figure 4.1: Number of publications from 1998 to 2017

The line graph illustrates that in the first 13 years there were 19 studies that were entered into the selected Western databases (e.g., Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bak & Von Brömssen, 2010; Bartlett, 2007; Brison, 2011; Feast & Bretag, 2005; Hagelund, 2007; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Lie, 2010; Martínez, 2009; Mayer, 2003; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Naidoo, 2008; Reid, 2005; Rizvi, 2005; Rubinstein- Ávila, 2007; Sampedro, 1988; Woodrow, 2011; Yang & Qiu, 2010; Yi, 2009). More specifically, in the reviewed literature TNE scholars initiated qualitative research on HE literacy and identity options in 1998, then later intermediate students in 2005, senior students in 2007, junior students in 2009, and finally primary students in 2011. Importantly, in the last five years from 2012 to 2017, the number of studies more than doubled (n = 41). Particularly, 2015 was the first year when published studies happened to investigate students from each level of study (i.e., primary, junior, intermediate, senior, and HE). There was a steep decline in 2016 and 2017; however, the articles were collected and screened in January 2017, which may have affected the number of displayed studies in 2016 and 2017. Next, I report the research methodology trends I identified in the literature.

The most prominent methodologies that were used in the 60 reviewed papers were case studies (n = 29) and ethnographic research (n = 26). Figure 4.2 illustrates the methodologies that were used in the 60 reviewed studies.

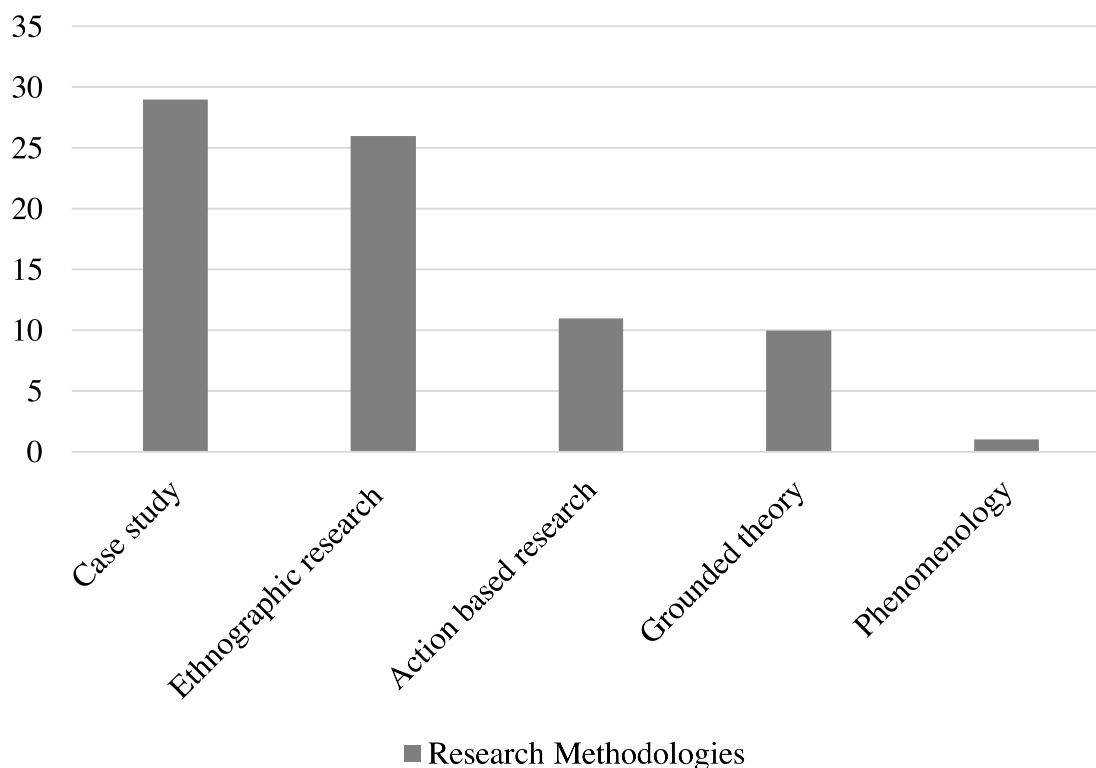


Figure 4.2: Methodologies

Action based research (n = 11), grounded theory (n = 10), and phenomenology (n = 1) were also employed as qualitative methodologies (See Appendix F[6]).

The methods that were reported as employed the most in the 60 studies were naturalistic observations (n = 35), in-depth interviews (n = 31), and semi-structured interviews (n = 29). Figure 4.3 shows the methods that were employed in the literature.

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[6] Appendix F lists the definitions of the reported research methodologies that were found in the 60 reviewed articles, along with the corresponding papers, and the total number of papers.

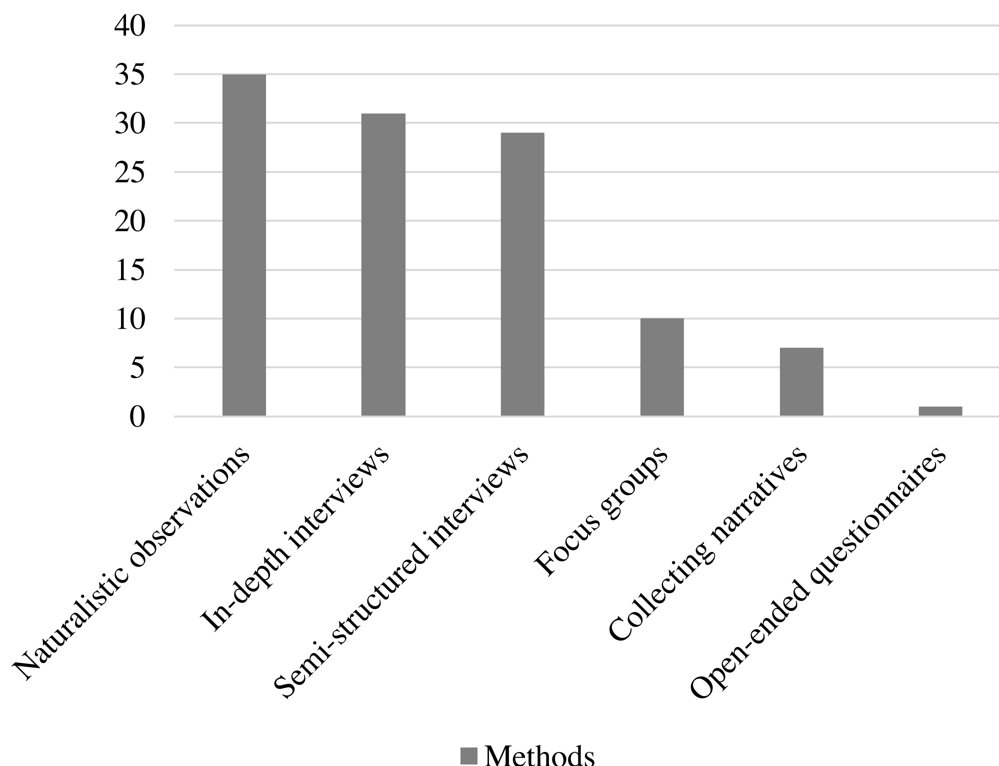

Figure 4.3: Data collection tools

Following these methods were focus groups (*n* = 10), collecting narratives from participants (*n* = 7), and an open-ended questionnaire (See Appendix G[7]). The other forms of data reported as being part of the studies included field notes (*n* = 29) and/or interview transcripts (*n* = 27), artifacts (*n* = 24), documents (*n* = 16), audio recordings (*n* = 16), video recordings (*n* = 8), and/or digital tools (*n* = 13) as data sources (See Appendix H[8]).

The most common analytical tool (See Figure 4.4, Appendix I[9]) reported as used in the reviewed studies was thematic analysis (*n* = 37), which occurred in 62% of the

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[7] Appendix G lists the definitions of the reported research methods that were found in the 60 reviewed articles, along with the corresponding papers, and the total number of papers.

[8] Appendix H lists the definitions of the other data sources that were found in the 60 reviewed articles, along with the corresponding papers, and the total number of papers.

[9] Appendix I lists the definitions of the reported data analysis tools that were found in the 60 reviewed articles, along with the corresponding papers, and the total number of papers.

papers. Figure 4.4 illustrates the analytical tools that were used in the 60 papers. The next prominent data analysis tools were document analysis (*n* = 16), the constant comparative method (*n* = 8), and cross-case analysis (*n* = 5).

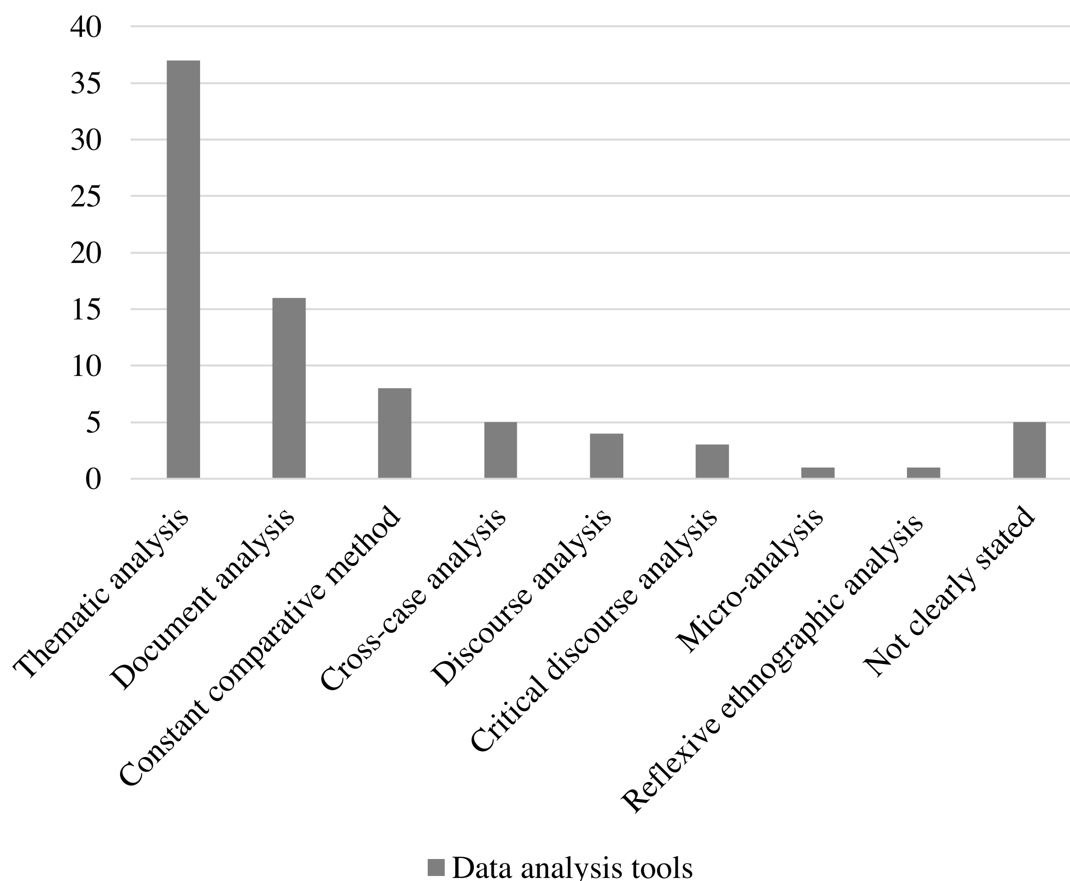

Figure 4.4: Data analysis tools

Five of the articles did not explicitly identify the analytical procedures that were employed in their studies (Motha, Jain, & Tecle, 2012; Naidoo, 2008; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz, Juan-Garau, & Jacob, 2013; Rizvi, 2005).

The participants that were involved in these studies were identified as students, teachers, or others. Overall, 42 papers included students (K-HE) as participants and 31 papers involved teachers (pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and professors) as participants and nine studies included other participants. The other participants (See

Appendix J[10]) involved in these reviewed studies were listed as chancellors (n = 1), parents (n = 1), policy makers (n = 2), school administrators (n = 7), tutors (n = 1), and university partners (n = 1). To break these populations down further, Figure 4.5 illustrates the diversity of all the participants that were reportedly investigated throughout the 60 reviewed studies.

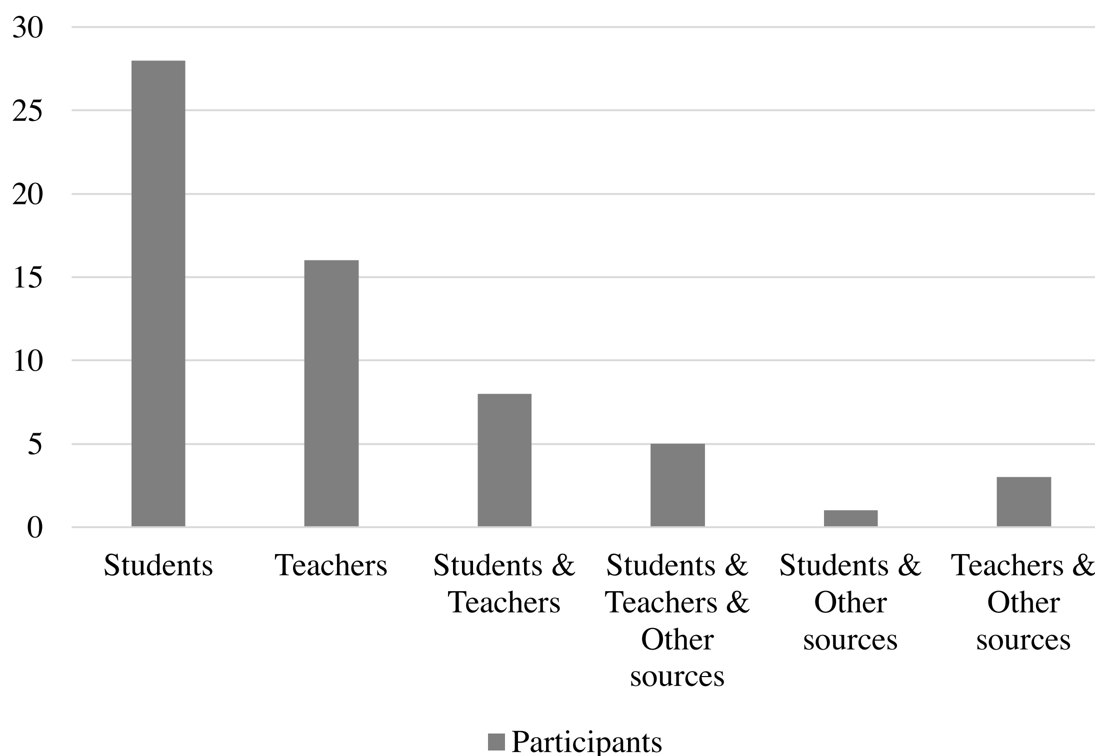

Figure 4.5: Participants in 60 articles

Almost half of the articles (n = 28) reportedly investigated only students, and 16 papers explored only teachers. Eight of the reviewed studies explored students and teachers together (Bickel et al., 2013; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; DeJaynes, 2015; Ghiso, 2016; Pandya, Pagdilao, & Kim, 2015; Prasad, 2015; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomber, 2013). Whereas, a limited number of papers investigated all three participant categories together: students, teachers, and others (n = 5) (Bernardo et al., 2012; Brison, 2011; Menken,

[10] Appendix J lists the population sample found in the 60 reviewed articles.

Kleyn, & Chae, 2012; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011). One study (Haines, 2015) investigated both students and others as her participant sample, whereas three papers explored teachers and other participants (Feast & Bretag, 2005; du Plessis & Sunde, 2017; Zhang & Heydon, 2015). Next, I report more specific details pertaining to the student population.

From the 42 papers that involved students, their levels of study ranged from kindergarten to graduate studies (See Figure 4.6, Appendix K[11]). Figure 4.6 shows the student participants and their levels of study. Studies that included participants enrolled in kindergarten to grade 12 (*n* = 28) were the dominant group studied, followed closely by HE students (*n* = 15). One article (Lam, 2014) included both K-12 and HE students and one article included both undergraduate and graduate students (Sampedro, 1988).

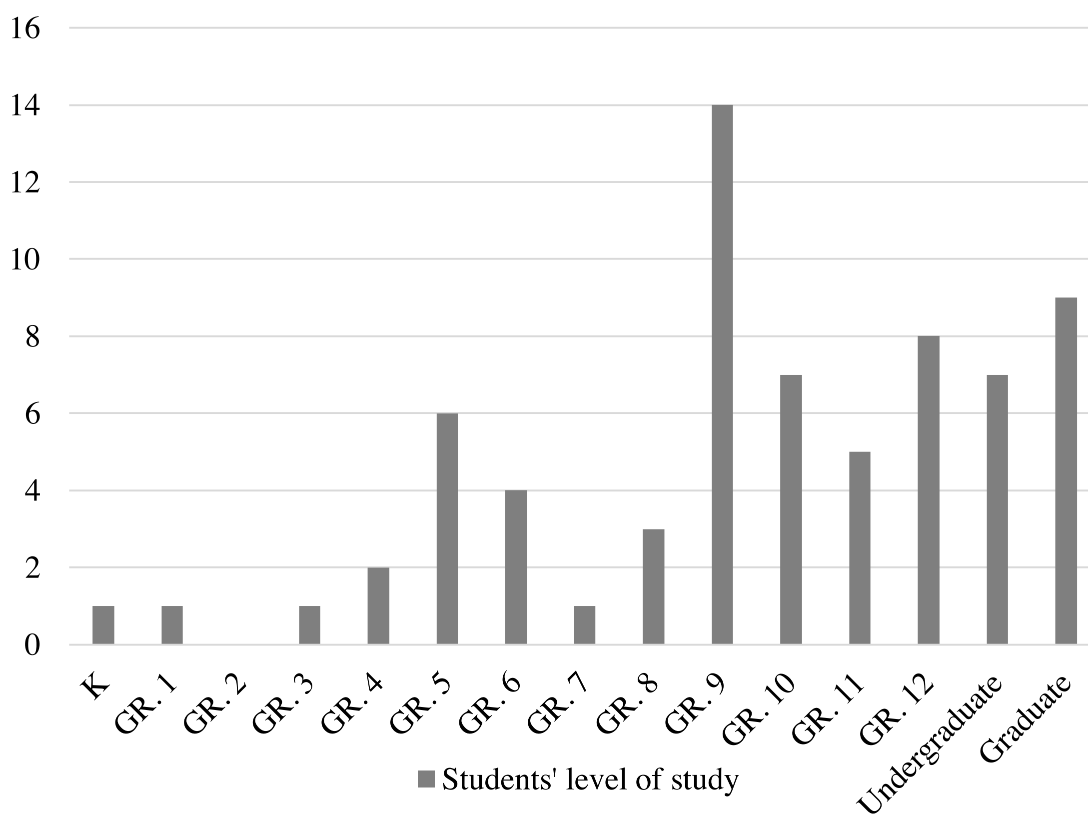

Figure 4.6: Students' level of study

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[11] Appendix K lists the reported students' level of education, the corresponding articles, and the total number of articles that were extracted from the literature.

Looking only at students from K-12, the intermediate group (grades 7-10) was the most studied population (*n* = 16) in which grade 9 was the dominant group studied overall. Secondary school seniors (grades 11-12) were studied in nine articles in total, whereas primary students (K-3) and junior students (grades 4-6) were an underrepresented population. Only eight papers in total included these participants. In fact, there were zero articles pertaining to the grade 2 student population.

Concerning the HE student population, undergraduate students from universities were reported on in six papers, while one paper (Pullman, 2015) investigated college students. Graduates from a university context were in nine papers, two of which included both undergraduate and graduate level students. Next, I report more specific details pertaining to the teacher population.

From the 31 papers that included information about teachers' levels of education (See Figure 4.7, Appendix L[12]), the K-12 in-service teachers were the most popular educator participant group, as they appeared in 19 of the studies with three studies including pre-service teachers (Brison, 2011; Brochin Ceballos, 2012; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011). Figure 4.7 illustrates levels of education the teachers were qualified to teach.

[12] Appendix L lists the reported teachers' level of education, the corresponding articles, and the total number of articles that were extracted from the literature.

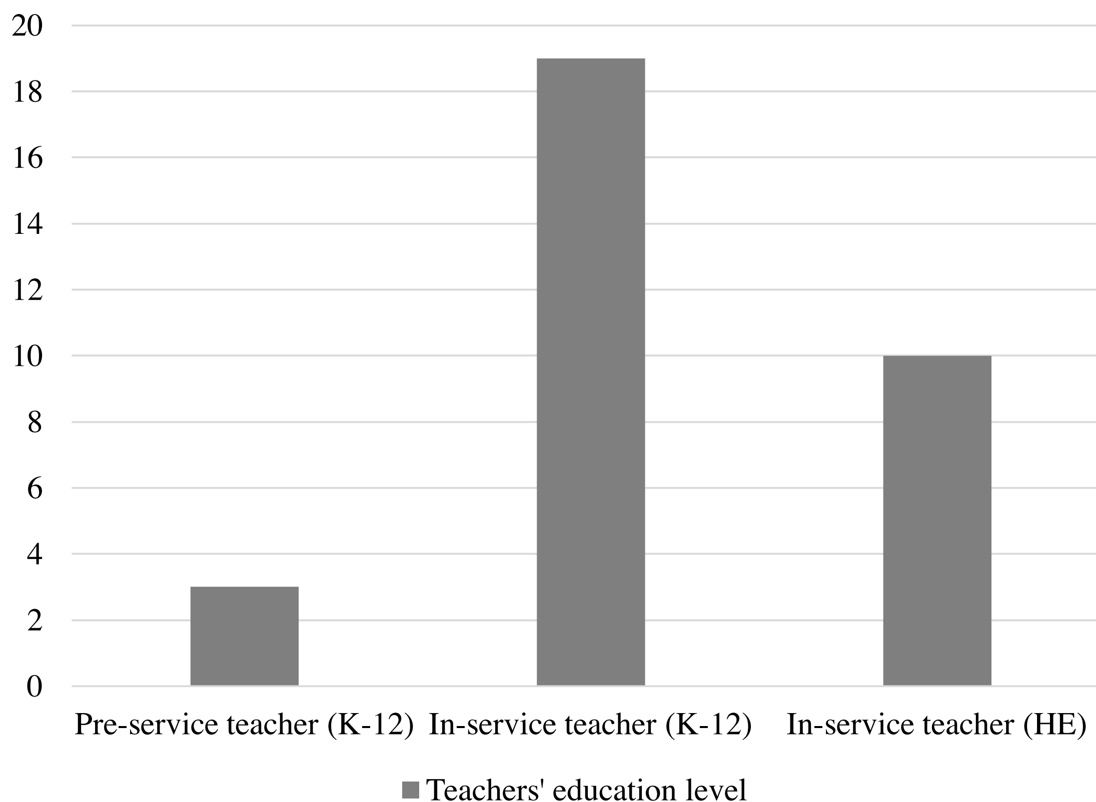

Figure 4.7: Number of articles per teachers' education level

One of these studies (Brison, 2011) included both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers and one of these studies (Menken et al., 2012) included administrative staff located at the facility. As mentioned above, eight of these papers investigated both teacher participants and student participants in the same study (Bickel et al., 2013; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; DeJaynes, 2015; Ghiso, 2016; Pandya et al., 2015; Prasad, 2015; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomber, 2013). At the HE level, professors were examined in ten studies and five of these studies included other participants (Bernardo, Butcher, & Howard, 2012; Feast & Bretag, 2005; Haines, 2015; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011). Next, I report the gender of all the documented participants in the reviewed literature.

Figure 4.8 illustrates the gender of the participants that took part in the reviewed TNE studies (See Appendix M[13]).

[13] Appendix M lists the reported gender of the participants, the corresponding articles, and the total number of articles that were extracted from the literature.

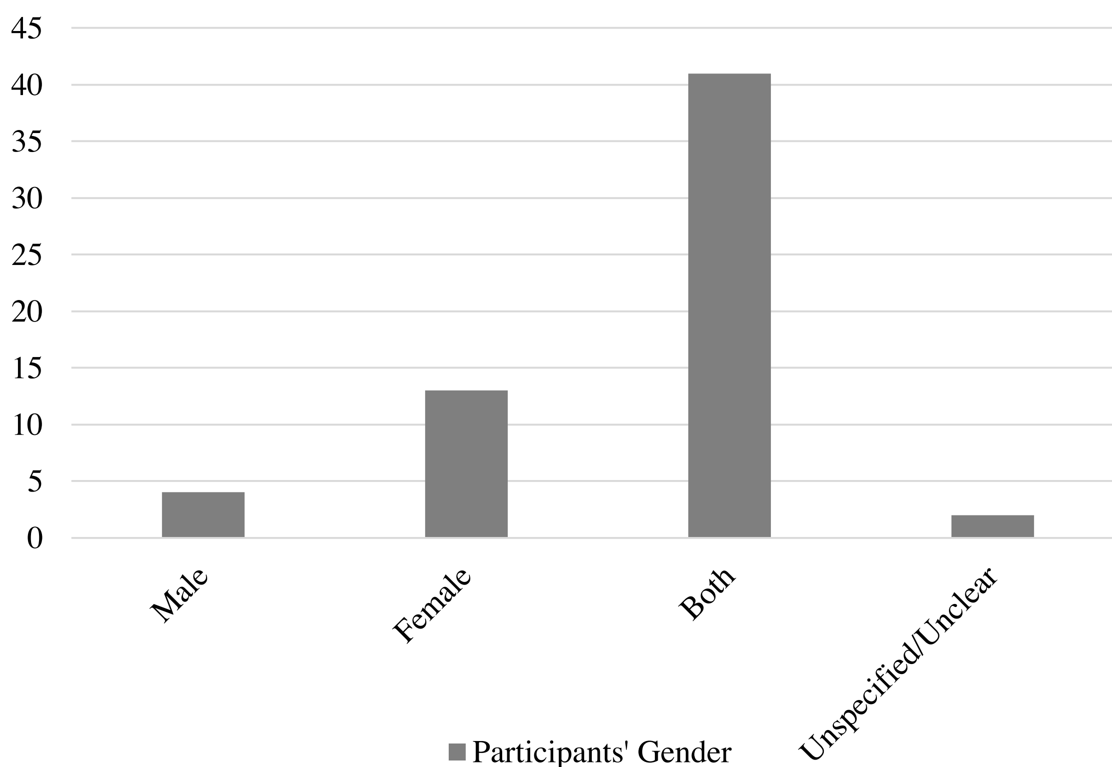

Figure 4.8: Number of articles per participants' gender

From the 60 studies, 68% of the studies included both male and female participants. Thirteen studies focused on female participants and four studies investigated males only. None of the articles that included both male and female participants investigated or reported any differences observed between the two genders. Next, I present the trends of the geographical contexts which the participants were situated in that I extracted from the TNE literature.

The participants in the 60 reviewed studies were situated in a total of 23 countries (See Appendix N[14]). From these 60 reviewed articles 11 of the studies investigated multiple sites in which the participants were situated (Bernardo et al., 2012; Bickel et al., 2013; Haines, 2015; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Kane, 2014; Lam, 2014; Pherali, 2012; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Woodrow, 2011). More specifically, six of these

[14] Appendix N lists the countries the participants were situated in, the reported corresponding articles, and the total number of papers.

studies occurred in the USA and another country (Brazil, Qatar, China, Mexico, and Germany). Three studies occurred in Australia and another country (Philippines, Norway, and China). One study occurred in the UK and China and one study occurred in Canada and France.

Even though the majority of the participants in the reviewed literature were situated in North America, the studies reported a mixture of students' cultural backgrounds (See Figure 4.9, Appendix O[15]). Figure 4.9 shows the students' cultural backgrounds that were reported in the 60 papers.

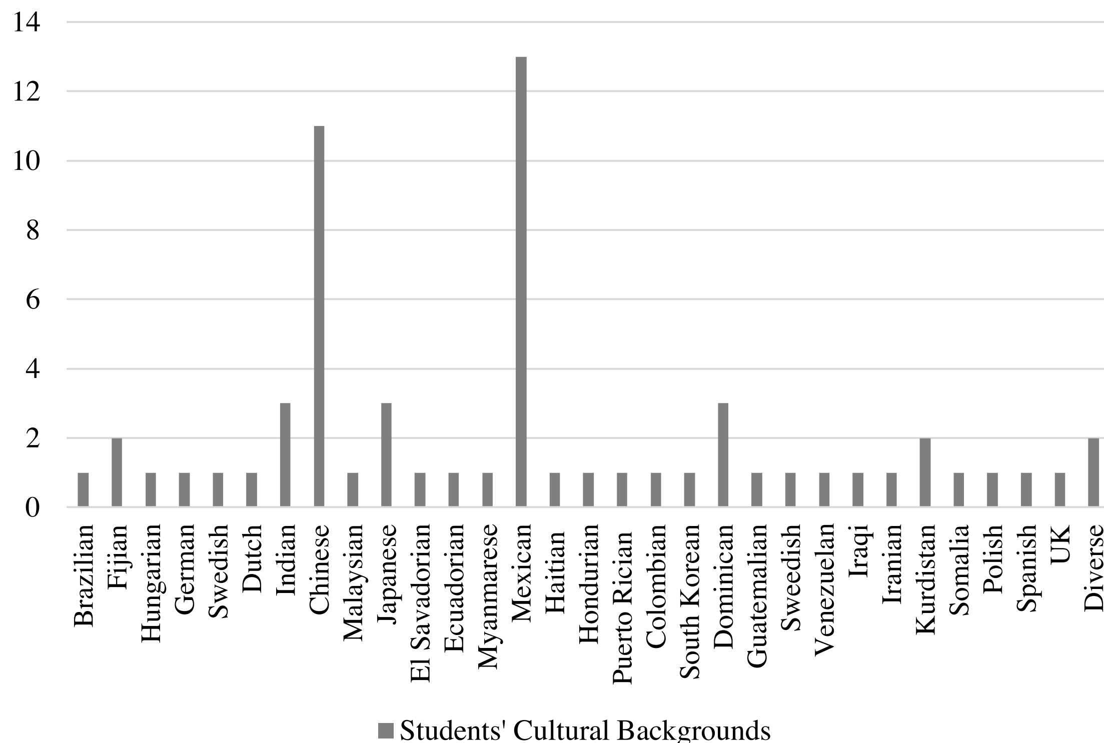

Figure 4.9 Students' cultural backgrounds

[15] Appendix O lists the students' and teachers' cultural backgrounds, the article number in which it was found, and the total number of articles per culture.

There were at least 30 cultural backgrounds that were involved in the reviewed research. Mexican students (*n* = 13) and Chinese students (*n* = 11) were most prominently investigated.

The teachers' reported cultural backgrounds were not as expansive as those of the students' (See Figure 4.10, Appendix O). Figure 4.10 illustrates the teachers' reported cultural backgrounds.

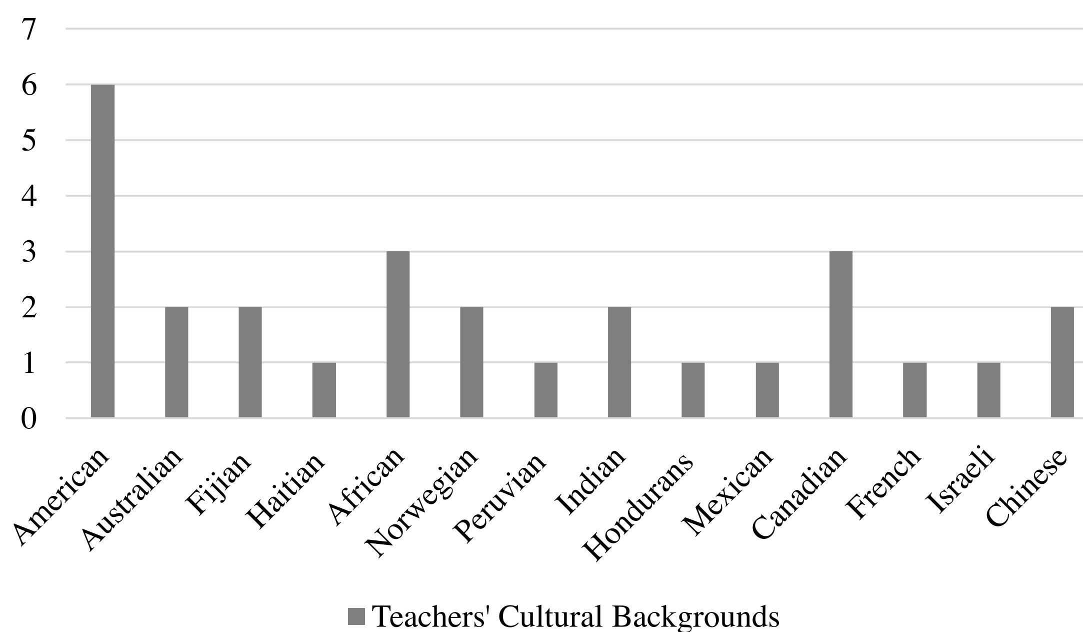

Figure 4.10: Teachers' cultural backgrounds

The teachers were most dominantly identified as American (*n* = 6), Canadian (*n* = 3), and African (*n* = 2).

4.2 Findings of the Affordances of TNE

To respond to the second research question (What are the affordances (if any) of transnational education in the reviewed studies in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options?), I report the findings of the affordances of TNE in the reviewed studies in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options. I first present the findings related to the deductive themes I generated from the literature on the

autonomous model of literacy (See Appendix P[16]) and next the deductive themes from the multiliteracies pedagogy literature (See Appendix Q[17]). Last, I report the inductive themes (See Appendix R[18]) that I identified in the reviewed literature.

4.2.1 Findings for the Themes Related to the Autonomous Model of Literacy

In total, 13 studies (Allard, 2015; Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bartlett, 2007; Bernardo et al., 2012; Flores, Kleyn, & Menken, 2015; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Lie, 2010; Menken et al., 2012; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011; Yi, 2009; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014) identified that the autonomous literacy model was used in the TNE classrooms.

Specifically, eight studies found that teacher-talk dominated classrooms (Bartlett, 2007; Bernardo et al., 2012; Flores et al., 2015; Lie, 2010; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011; Yi, 2009; Zhang, 2015). Five studies reported whole class instructions with little one-on-one, or group attention (Bartlett, 2007; Bernardo et al., 2012; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang, 2015). In four of the papers, the classroom revolved around teacher-time, in which teachers determined the use of class time with little input from the students (Bernardo et al., 2012; Flores et al., 2015; Pullman, 2015; Zhang, 2015). Eight of the articles reported teacher-centered classrooms where students faced the teacher and were situated in rows (Allard, 2015; Bartlett, 2007; Bernardo et al., 2012; Flores et al., 2015; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Menken et al., 2012; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011). Seven studies included text-book teachers, in which teachers heavily referred to textbooks to guide curricular and instructional decision making (Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bartlett, 2007; Bernardo et al., 2012; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang & Heydon, 2014). Finally, four papers involved teach-for-the-

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[16] Appendix P lists the autonomous literacy model deductive themes, the article number in which the theme was found, and the total number of articles per theme.

[17] Appendix Q lists the multiliteracies deductive themes, the article number in which the theme was found, and the total number of articles per theme.

[18] Appendix R lists the inductive themes, the article number in which the theme was found, and the total number of articles per theme.

test-teachers, teachers that tested students as either right or wrong (Bernardo et al., 2012; Pullman, 2015; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang, 2015). To illustrate, Bartlett (2007) reported on one transnational student Maria's learning experience in different classroom contexts. When Maria was taught within an autonomous literacy model, she did not enjoy learning via teacher-talk, whole class instruction, teacher-centered classrooms, and through text-book centered lessons. As a result, Bartlett reported Maria's low grades, disengagement, uncompleted assignments, and little class participation. Similarly, Woodrow (2011) documented her own practical experience of teaching HE (MA in Education TESOL students) in China. She reported that when the focus of the course was exam-driven, the transnational students felt disengaged.

Relative to listening, speaking, reading, and writing, ten reviewed studies reported that the TNE classes followed the autonomous literacy model and focused on exercises that included repetition, memorization, and responding to drills (Bartlett, 2007; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; Kane, 2014; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Marshall et al., 2012; Pullman, 2015; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Woodrow, 2011; Yi, 2009; Zhang, 2015). For example, Bartlett (2007) documented literacy tasks that required filling in the blanks, repetition, and did not require comprehension. The student Maria might not have understood what she was writing; however, "memorizing and filling in the blanks was enough to appease her teacher" (p. 224). Marshall et al. (2012) reported that students were provided informal opportunities to write; however, students were expected to conform to standardized rules while writing specifically for high stakes academic purposes (i.e., essays, tests, and final projects).

In over half (n = 42) of the reviewed articles, students were not able to negotiate their identities in transnational education classrooms and were immersed in a "melting pot" (New London Group, 1996, p. 72) environment (Allard, 2015; Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bartlett, 2007; Brison, 2011; Bondy, 2015; Brochin Ceballos, 2012; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; du Plessis & Sunde, 2017; Endo, 2016; Feast & Bretag, 2005; Flores et al., 2015; Hill, 2013; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Kane, 2014; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011, Lie, 2010; Marshall et al., 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Martínez, 2009; Mayer, 2003; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Menken et al., 2012; Motha et al., 2012; Pandya et al., 2015; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Pherali, 2012; Prasad, 2015;

Pullman, 2015; Reid, 2005; Rizvi, 2005; Rubinstein-Ávila, 2007; Saada, 2013; Sampedro, 1988; Shao-Kobayashi, 2013; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Smith, 2014; Woodrow, 2011; Yang & Qiu, 2010; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015). For example, 16 studies reported English-only policies in the TNE contexts, which constrained the space for students' identity negotiations (Allard, 2015; Brochin Ceballos, 2012; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; Endo, 2016; Flores et al., 2015; Kane, 2014; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Marshall et al., 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menken et al., 2012; Pullman, 2015; Shao-Kobayashi, 2013; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Yang & Qiu, 2010; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015). Endo (2016) reported that the transnational students in her ethnographic study were constantly inundated with English-only messages from their teachers and their peers. The teachers (who were all white) at their school expected English to be the only language used for communication and instruction in the school even though it was not an official policy. Students were not allowed to code-switch nor use Japanglish (i.e., a mix of Japanese and English phrases) to help their peers understand concepts. The teachers reported that it is for "everyone's safety" (p. 207) that English is the only language allowed in the classroom. Endo reported that two of the students were "reprimanded and silenced for expressing their identities at school" (p. 211). Daniel and Pacheco (2016) discussed a participant from Myanmar that spoke four languages (i.e., Larenni, Burmese, Thai, and she was learning English). Only her English achievements were recognized, even though she used all three other languages to make sense of her daily life and her school assignments. Daniel and Pacheco suggested that teachers should emphasize and make space for the use of their students' additional languages to help students feel more comfortable in the classroom. They argued that the classroom environment should involve multiple languages for students to learn individually and collaboratively.

4.2.2 Findings for the Themes Related to Multiliteracies Pedagogy

Overall, in 47 studies I identified the themes related to the reported use of aspects of multiliteracies pedagogy in the TNE classrooms, in particular, the deductive themes about knowledge processes. However, only 13 studies used the multiliteracies framework (Bickel et al., 2013; DeJaynes, 2015; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Lie, 2010; Marshall, et

al., 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Pandya et al., 2015; Prasad, 2015; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Yi, 2009; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014).

4.2.2.1 Experiencing the Known in TNE Classrooms

Thirty studies reported that when students' school learning and out-of-school experiences were weaved together in the transnational education classrooms, this allowed for engagement in meaning making and enabled students to celebrate their personal experiences with their teachers and peers (Bartlett, 2007; Bickel et al., 2013; Brison, 2011; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; DeJaynes, 2015; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Fabricius, 2014; García & Gaddes, 2012; Ghiso, 2016; Hagelund, 2007; Haines, 2015; Kane, 2014; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Lie, 2010; Marshall et al., 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Obenchain, Alarcón, Ives, Bellows, & Alamă, 2014; Pandya et al., 2015; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Prasad, 2015; Rizvi, 2005; Saada, 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Yang & Qiu, 2010; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014). For example, Petrón and Greybeck (2014) reported that English transnational teachers in Mexico "taught vocabulary and cultural lessons based on their own background, not that of a textbook. In this way, they transformed the learning environment into real world lessons on language and culture" (p. 149).

Specifically, 23 of these studies reported that both students' first languages and additional languages were implemented during class time, at lunch, after school, and in virtual spaces (Bickel et al., 2013; Brison, 2011; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; DeJaynes, 2015; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; García & Gaddes, 2012; Hagelund, 2007; Knight & Oesterreich, 2011; Marshall et al., 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Obenchain et al., 2014; Pandya et al., 2015; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Prasad, 2015; Saada, 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014). To illustrate, Lie (2010) argued that "literacy cannot be explained merely in terms of the traditional skills of reading and writing" (p. 30). He reported positive experiences with students' using situated experiences and the use of multiple texts through plural pathways

(i.e., linguistic and semiotic). The multilingual environments in which students' multilingual abilities were viewed as learning resources allowed students to engage with a diversity of cultures and various meaning-making. Also, García and Gaddes (2012), along with Skerrett (2012) found that transnational students preferred to incorporate their first languages while composing their texts.

4.2.2.2 Experiencing the New in TNE Classrooms

Twenty-two studies reported that students preferred to be immersed in authentic, unfamiliar learning environments (Bartlett, 2007; Bernardo et al., 2012; Bickel et al., 2013; Brison, 2011; DeJaynes, 2015; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; García & Gaddes, 2012; Kane, 2014; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Prasad, 2015; Rubinstein-Ávila, 2007; Saada, 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014, 2015). For instance, Skerrett and Bomer (2013) documented the writing event of a collaborative class magazine project for high school students. The teacher believed this project provided outlets for students to bring their lifeworlds into texts and "to create sanctioned and safe borderzones between the academic work of school and students' everyday lives" (p. 323). Kane (2014) reported the use of problem-based learning in higher education. "Problem-based learning (pbl) is a cooperative, student-centered instructional method used in the delivery of core basic sciences material. It focuses on learning through engagement with medical cases that the students are likely to be confronted with as practicing physicians" (p. 99). Students preferred this way of learning as it gave them an opportunity to practice their bedside manners and explaining their practical knowledge with their peers before entering the field. Also, Haines (2015) investigated Dutch, transnational, third-year medical students' that took an elective course in Africa. This experience was to provide students the opportunity to test their ambitions as future doctors and to try out ideas for their future careers in an unfamiliar environment. Haines found that "the students faced unfamiliar contexts, and new and sometimes very confusing contexts" (p. 45). He reported that the students felt "lost, hopeless, or overwhelmed" (p. 44). The four students felt empowered and transformed by this experience. They realized how much they knew was minuscule

to how much they still needed to learn before entering the field for practice and desired to keep learning.

4.2.2.3 Conceptualising in TNE Classrooms

Twenty two studies reported opportunities for TNE students to conceptualize in their classrooms (Bernardo et al., 2012; Bickel et al., 2013; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; DeJaynes, 2015; Diao, 2014; Fabricius, 2014; García & Gaddes, 2012; Ghiso, 2016; Hagelund, 2007; Haines, 2015; Lam, 2014; Lie, 2010; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Obenchain et al., 2014; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Woodrow, 2011; Yang & Qiu, 2010; Yi, 2009; Zhang , 2015). Specifically, 21 studies reported that students actively questioned, discussed, theorized, and grew from interactions with classroom literacy materials and one study reported on opportunities for students' metalinguistic awareness to be nurtured (Lie, 2010). Stewart and Hansen-Thomas (2016) addressed how transnational students conceptualized "translanguaging" in poetry through class discussions, journal writing, whole class readings, and independent readings. Zhang's (2015) study reported that a Canadian teacher, Mr. Abrams, decided to change his approach to teaching the Ontario Secondary School Literacy Test (OSSLT) news stories after he noticed his Chinese students' negative feedback about his test-oriented teaching. Instead of teaching students how to respond to the stimulus picture and the headline in OSSLT, Mr. Abrams involved his students in group discussions and oral presentations of new stories that the students were interested to report in their local contexts. He was pleased to see that his students were actively discussing the features of news stories and how to incorporate them in their self-created news stories.

4.2.2.4 Analysing in TNE Classrooms

There were 22 papers that reported that students had opportunities to analyze in specific TNE classrooms. Three studies reported that students were provided opportunities to make connections to functions of texts, diagrams, and/or data visualizations (Alviar-Martin, 2010; DeJaynes, 2015; Lie, 2010). DeJaynes (2015), for instance, created an on-line course for grade 10 youth that curated "complex, transnational identities through a

wide range of representational modes and art forms" (p. 183). She found that the students were engaged in analyzing the functions of multimodal texts and represented themselves in the blogs using typed texts, colours, images, and cultural artifacts to effectively share how they wanted to be perceived by their peers. Lie (2010) illustrated that a teacher participant had her transnational students read texts before class so they could actively discuss the key concepts in class. She introduced the concept of "mindfulness" (p. 36) to help students understand they were "reproducers of texts and to be sensitive of the values embedded in texts" (p. 36). She enabled her students to theorize and grow from their literacy materials to enhance "critical awareness of language use and choice focusing on English" (p. 37). The teacher and students also reportedly discussed concepts of the "international readings" (p. 36) and drew on examples from local contexts. The teacher pointed out to the class that literacy is "…more than the understanding of linguistics knowledge and it encompasses the use of other modalities, such as visual signs and cultural knowledge" (p. 36).

There were 21 studies that reported opportunities for TNE students to practice being active, critical thinkers relative to reading texts (Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bickel et al., 2013; Brison, 2011; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; DeJaynes, 2015; García & Gaddes, 2012; Haines, 2015; Kane, 2014; Lie, 2010; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Prasad, 2015; Pullman, 2015; Saada, 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Woodrow, 2011; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015). For instance, Zhang's (2015) study identified teachers' efforts to guide students in critically analyzing each political system's allowances and constraints in a Canadian transnational education program in South China. However, the teacher participants' statements about nurturing "critical" and "objective" (p. 111) thinkers seemed to only emphasize textual analysis, that is, close examinations of the texts' historical and sociocultural backgrounds. But there were no evident data about multiliteracies pedagogy's ideal of interrogating the power relations in the social realities in China. Bickel et al.'s (2013) study serves as an example of supporting students' interrogation of what it means to be "experts". Despite the instructors' teaching expertise in English that originated in the United States, students were encouraged to play the role of "experts" and lead discussions about their local communities and personal identities.

4.2.2.5 Applying in TNE Classrooms

Sixteen studies reported that students applied theories they learned in transnational classes to other contexts (Bickel et al., 2013; DeJaynes, 2015; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; García & Gaddes, 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Petrón & Greybeck, 2014; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Rubinstein-Ávila, 2007; Saada, 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015). Skerrett (2012), for example, reported a Mexican transnational grade 9 student in the USA, Vanesa, who was able to interconnect reading, writing, dance, and art to create multiple literacy and language practices that connected to her transnational life. For instance, through dancing to hip-hop music at her school, she became interested in and learned to speak African American English. She became the focal dancer of a dance recital the school had one night and desired to transfer these skills and enroll in a dance academy when she returned to Mexico. Stewart and Hansen-Thomas (2016) exemplified a great case for applying knowledge with a transnational student, Paula from Mexico. The class had read bilingual poems and were asked to create their own poems. Paula broke away from monolingual norms to write a third, unassigned poem that weaved together English and Spanish. She was able to select "which words were best expressed in Spanish in her English poem, as well as how to best translate her English poem to Spanish" (p. 466).

4.2.2.6 Applying Creatively in TNE Classrooms

Fourteen studies reported that students creatively applied their textual creations and knowledge in real-life situations (Bickel et al., 2013; DeJaynes, 2015; Hou & McDowell, 2014; García & Gaddes, 2012; Ghiso, 2016; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Naidoo, 2008; Pandya et al., 2015; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Saada, 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Yi, 2009; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016). Prasad (2015), for instance, noted in an elementary classroom that through the design of an identity text (Cummins, 2001) "the entire class worked collaboratively to produce one book that included all students' home languages" (p. 507). The teacher also asked each student to write out a recipe card of their favourite dish from home and share it with the class. Prieto-Arranz et al. (2013)

reported on grade 9 students from both Poland and Spain that were learning English together virtually via a blog. Students were given compulsory, collaborative classwork and homework. Experimentation with diverse literacy practices (i.e., creating digital texts, experimenting with new vocabulary, and using non-verbal semiotic codes such as emoticons) enabled student to "express themselves in informal and creative ways that are uncommon in the foreign language classroom" (p. 32).

4.2.2.7 Semiotic Resources for Meaning Making in TNE Classrooms

Twenty-two studies reported that transnational students were provided opportunities to utilize a diverse range of semiotic resources (Bickel et al., 2013; Brison, 2011; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; DeJaynes, 2015; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Feast & Bretag, 2005; Lam, 2014; Lie, 2010; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Mayer, 2003; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Pandya et al., 2015; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Skerrett, 2012; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Smith, 2014; Woodrow, 2011; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014). Yi (2009), for example, explored Korean transnational grade nine students and reported that through on-line activities students created and constructed "a transnational and transcultural community" (p. 100). For instance, one student, Mike, used multiple resources online at school and at home (e.g., instant messaging, e-mails, music, and novels). Yi found that Mike's on-line activities were significant to his literacy learning, because these activities allowed him to "cross borders and enrich his transnational life and experience" (p. 110). Also, Skerrett (2012) found that transnational youth employed a range of writing practices online at school and at home that included keeping a diary, texting, and writing stories. These writing activities were said to be beneficial for students as they "satisfied several transnational needs such as building relationships with linguistically and culturally diverse groups, chronicling, and reflecting on transnational life, and generating transnational perspectives" (pp. 381-382). Woodrow (2011) observed a teacher who taught two cohorts of Chinese students using different modes and identified the respective challenges. The first cohort of students had printed readers that were compiled for students to conduct their writing assignments (i.e., essays) and the second cohort had electronic access to the university's

library materials. The first cohort of students were expected to hand in their essays face-to-face, and the second cohort was expected to hand it in on-line. Woodrow described challenges of the first cohort of students submitting their hard copy essays on time and the challenges of providing feedback to these students. She also reported that the electronic essays were more efficient to provide students feedback; however, there was a higher rate of plagiarism when students submitted electronically. The students in the first cohort reported feelings of isolation and frustration because there was a limited number of library resources that they could utilize for their projects. The second cohort was also frustrated because they had limited access to the Internet in the Chinese school and found the on-line platform difficult to use. Both cohorts of students felt as if they were at a great disadvantage in comparison to students in the Australian host school.

4.2.2.8 New Media Literacies in TNE Classrooms

Seventeen studies reported that transnational students were provided opportunities to be active media designers in which they manipulated new technologies (e.g., tablets) with new media technologies (e.g., Facebook), (Allard, 2015; Bickel et al., 2013; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Ghiso, 2016; Lam, 2014; Lie, 2010; Mayer, 2003; Pandya et al., 2015; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Rubinstein-Ávila, 2007; Skerrett, 2012; Woodrow, 2011; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014). de la Piedra and Araujo (2012), for instance, claimed that in their Mexican/USA grade 5 and 6 focus group, transnational students preferred using digital literacies to print based literacies. They stated that students were "savvy" (p. 223) with digital technologies and that "digital literacies were the most prevalent form of literacy" (p. 222) used out of the classroom compared to print literacy. They reported that transnational students used digital literacies for reading, writing, video games, watching videos, and chatting with their friends or family in their home country and had access to linguistic and cultural resources that they were interested in. Zhang and Heydon's (2014) study used the multimodal method to elicit transnational students' stories about their lived experience at a Canadian transnational education program in China. Student participants shared multimodal artifacts that showcased their skills and knowledge as active media designers. However, students shared in the interviews that their use of technologies was predominantly social

(e.g., sharing edited audios and videos with friends). Their roles as active media designers were not evidently supported in the TNE classrooms because other forms of literacy (e.g., print literacy and English-related literacy) were reported by the students as dominant in the school.

Seven studies found that through the use of new on-line technologies, transnational students were guided in how to use new media critically and appropriately in transnational education classrooms (Bickel et al., 2013; Kane, 2014; Lam, 2014; Pandya et al., 2015; Prasad, 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Zhang & Guo, 2015). For instance, in Bickel et al.'s study, (2013) Brazilian teens that were taught English on-line by instructors and graduate students in the USA had opportunities to appropriately "develop on-line communication skills and the skills and knowledge needed to engage with each other as active local and global citizens" (p. 440). This in turn allowed students to connect and generate knowledge from their own experiences, which enhanced their written and oral communication skills. Bickel et al. discovered that "not only do students crave multimedia projects, but when such assignments also invite students to begin with their own existing knowledge and cultural experiences, they can build new literacy skills for different kinds of texts and complex communications with transnational audiences" (p. 446). The teachers utilized Blackboard learning for discussion groups and learning support; however, they found that students had an "insatiable appetite for synchronous Skype conversations through which they could practice conversational spoken English" (p. 445). Through such platforms, students would actively text, chat, share songs, or sing with their instructors. Whereas, de la Piedra and Araujo (2012) claimed that many Spanish, Latino/a students lived in two homes, two countries, and spoke two languages, thus they used instant messaging on their phones and their computers to connect with their families and friends. However, facilitation from their teachers on how to communicate appropriately or critically with these devices were not offered to them. Lam (2014) also reported on students that used instant messages and other on-line media to foster relationships with their peers and family members in China. He also found that students were not taught how to use these devices appropriately or critically in the classroom. He argued that "youths' on-line literacy practices need to be understood

within particular social fields in which they are situated and how they allow the youth to navigate and take up position within social fields that cross national boundaries" (p. 488).

4.2.3 Inductive Themes

I now report on the inductive themes that I identified in the reviewed literature. These themes pertain to the affordances of transnational students' literacy and identity options.

4.2.3.1 Fluid Identities in TNE Classrooms

Eighteen of the reviewed articles reported the nurturing of transnational students' fluid identities (Alviar-Martin, 2010; Bak & von Brömssen, 2010; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; de la Piedra & Araujo, 2012; Diao, 2014; Fabricius, 2014; Flores et al., 2015; García & Gaddes, 2012; Ghiso, 2016; Kane, 2014; Lie, 2010; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Obenchain et al., 2014; Prasad, 2015; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014). Ghiso (2016) defined students' fluid identities as when students are "… situated in multiple countries, global technological networks, and have plural identities" (p. 1). Also, Zhang and Guo (2015) investigated a transnational Chinese, grade 5 student in a Mandarin-English bilingual program. Their findings indicated that this student was mobile, in which she "move[d] across linguistic, cultural, and ethnic spaces of interaction" (p. 210) and she "switched identities in different contexts" (p. 226). Her identity was not "tied to one place and one community" (p. 225).

4.2.3.2 Imagined Communities in TNE Classrooms

There were 19 studies that reported that TNE students were provided expansive identity options including the ability to imagine membership in new communities. (i.e., "groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination" [Norton, 2003, p. 241]) (Allard, 2015; Bak & von Brömssen, 2010; Bickel et al., 2013; Daniel & Pacheco, 2016; Diao, 2014; Haines, 2015; Kane, 2014; Lam, 2014; Martínez, 2009; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Obenchain et al., 2014; Pandya et al., 2015; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2013; Rizvi, 2005; Sampedro, 1988; Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016; Yi, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014).

Findings from Zhang and Heydon (2014) illustrate this phenomenon. The authors conducted a case study that employed ethnographic tools on nine Chinese participants enrolled in a Canadian double degree program in Mainland China. Through the student participants' self-created multimodal artifacts, this study found that these transnational students concurred that the Canadian transnational education program enabled them to "interact with imagined global others" (p. 389). For example, one female student, Tina-Qin, created an image of a cartoon that represented herself, living in an imagined space, between China and Canada. Through this multimodal artifact, she identified herself as a strong, hardworking girl who would like to have the opportunity to attend medical school in Canada. Zhang and Heydon suggested that teachers can expand on learners' literacy and identity options through creating a space for their students to think about and discuss their imagined communities in the classroom.

In Chapter 4, I reported the study findings related to trends in the reviewed transnational education studies. I first contextualized the TNE studies through features such as the publication dates, the research methodologies, the data collection methods, and data analysis tools. Then I reported on aspects of the population sample, namely, the students' levels of education, the levels of education the teachers are qualified to the teach, the participants' genders, the geographical contexts of the research that the participants were situated in, and the reported cultural backgrounds of the students and the teachers. I also reported the affordances of TNE in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. I first presented the findings from the autonomous literacy model deductive themes and next the multiliteracies deductive themes. Then I reported the inductive themes that rose from the reviewed literature.

Chapter 5

5 Discussion, Implications, and Conclusion

The purpose of this SLR was to contribute to the existing literature by providing researchers a holistic summary of the most up to date findings of TNE. This study was designed to generate new knowledge for stakeholders (e.g., policymakers and educators) to raise the standards of TNE curricula design, pedagogical practices, and teacher training that can be implemented into 21st century TNE classrooms. The following three research questions framed this SLR:

1) What are the trends of the reviewed research on transnational education?

2) What are the reported affordances (if any) of transnational education in the reviewed studies in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options?

3) What are the implications for transnational education in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options?

As described in Chapter 2, I premised this study on understandings from the literature of the relationships between TNE, literacy options, and identity options for students in globalized contexts. In Chapter 3, I outlined the data collection and data analysis methods that I used to design this SLR, including the 8-steps of Okoli and Schabram's (2010) *Systematic Literature Review Guide*. I outlined the searching strategies and screening criteria for selecting the literature, and how I extracted the data to identify the trends in the articles by hand-coding and creating categories. After that, I specified how I identified the reported affordances of TNE and the implications for TNE curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training to expand learners' literacy and identity options through deductive and inductive thematic analyses. In Chapter 4, I reported the findings of the trends of the reviewed transnational education studies. I also reported the affordances of TNE in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. Now in Chapter 5, I discuss the reported findings about the trends of the reviewed transnational education studies and the reported affordances of TNE in terms of expanding learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. Discussions in this chapter also include implications for transnational education in

curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options.

5.1 Discussion of Trends

The phenomenon of transnational education is certainly growing and with it the question of what research needs to be conducted. There is an increasing TNE student population; to illustrate the growth, consider that there were 133 Canadian offshore schools as of December 2017 (CICIC, 2017) and about 27,000 students were being educated toward a Canadian diploma as of September 2017 (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2016). Given the complexities of the meeting of language, culture, diverse knowledges, and nationalities, the concepts of literacy and identity options as discussed in the introduction to this study seem pertinent and demonstrated through the SLR here, an under-researched area.

The SLR identified that the methodological approaches that were most common in the reviewed studies were case studies and ethnographic research. The review demonstrates some of the knowledge that these methodologies were able to yield. As TNE research grows, we might ask about the most apt methodologies for producing needed knowledge.

The findings also suggest that students were investigated more often than educators and a limited number of studies used multiple participants from students, teachers, and/or others' perspectives. As research in the area grows, it will be important to see how studies might learn from multiple participant resources available in TNE facilities (i.e., combining students and teachers etc.) as these people have valuable insights that could be incorporated to triangulate data, build trustworthiness of research, and contribute to the existent knowledge about TNE curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher education.

This SLR brought to light that there is a gap in the literature for primary and junior students, especially in grade 2. For instance, in Canada alone, there are 48 authorized TNE primary schools located worldwide (CICIC, 2017), and more specifically, 11 that enroll primarily elementary students (K – 8). Future research might

be conducted with these specific populations of students. Also, grade 10 (*n* = 7), grade 11 (*n* = 5), and grade 12 (*n* = 8) are significant years for students to prepare for HE. As stated by Zhang (2015), there is still an underrepresented area in the literature regarding literacy and identity options for these groups of students and research must continue to address this gap. Also, to expand the scope of TNE research, various settings other than university such as colleges could be investigated in the future, as only one paper investigated a college rather than a university setting.

The results from the findings related to teachers' qualifications suggested that pre-service teachers from kindergarten to grade 12 are an understudied population in qualitative TNE research. I would argue that more research could be conducted on the pre-service teacher population to shed light on how to better prepare them for the differences or challenges of becoming transnational education teachers. For instance, du Plessis and Sunde (2017) contend that beginning teachers held the proper official teacher qualifications, but they were not prepared to teach for the first time in offshore contexts when there were language barriers and when they were unfamiliar with a specific classroom culture. They state that the stress of the context would frustrate teachers making them want to leave the school, which results in disrupted student learning.

The reported gender results demonstrated that there is gender diversity in the reviewed qualitative TNE research. In cases that were diverse (68%), males were only slightly understudied (6%) compared to females (22%). However, as gender is a major construct of one's identity, discovering if the difference in gender plays a role for students and teachers in globalized classrooms is an area that is worth more investigation in future transnational education research.

In terms of the cultural backgrounds of participants, the SLR found that there was greater diversity of student participants' than teachers' backgrounds. For instance, 11 studies explored students who were identified as Chinese (Diao, 2014; Hou & McDowell, 2014; Lam, 2014; Marshall, Hayashi, Yeung, 2012; Marshall & Moore, 2013; Menken et al., 2012; Naidoo, 2008; Pullman, 2015; Rizvi, 2005; Woodrow, 2011; Zhang & Heydon, 2014), and only two studies (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2015) investigated perspectives from teachers who were identified as having a Chinese cultural background.

In the future, there is room for TNE research that draws on multiple perspectives of teachers from diverse linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds.

5.2 Discussion of Affordances

I now discuss the identified affordances ("either good or ill" [Gibson, 1979, p. 127]) of TNE in terms of learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. I first discuss the findings of the deductive themes related to the autonomous literacy model and multiliteracies and then the inductive themes.

5.2.1 The Autonomous Literacy Model and Literacy and Identity Options

The findings show that the autonomous literacy model in the TNE classrooms constrained transnational students' literacy and identity options.

Specifically, the reported autonomous teaching practices included teacher-talk dominated activities, whole class instructions, teacher-centered classrooms, teaching for test, and focusing on exercises such as repetition and memorization. Examples of the reviewed studies (e.g., Bartlett, 2007; Woodrow, 2011) reported the impacts of such autonomous literacy practices upon transnational students' learning experiences, such as disengagement and lack of class participation. However, except for two studies on Canadian transnational education in China (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Heydon, 2014), little is known in the reviewed studies about how such disengagement and lack of participation would influence transnational students' expansive literacy and identity options.

Findings of the reviewed papers relate that autonomous literacy practices also failed to reveal "the complexity of personal and cultural diversity present" in various transnational education classrooms (Bartlett, 2007, p. 448). For example, over half of the reviewed articles reported a "melting pot" model in TNE classrooms and 16 studies addressed English-only policies in the TNE contexts. Students were not able to negotiate language choices (e.g., Daniel & Pacheco, 2016) and identities in some TNE classrooms,

with some even being "reprimanded and silenced" for expressing identities (Endo, 2016, p. 211).

Due to disengagement and low participation through autonomous teaching practices, educational researchers might ask how transnational teachers could be supported to involve their students in active class discussions, collaborative learning, and one-on-one instruction. Teacher education might be an important resource in this regard, in its work to provide pre-service teachers strategies to incorporate students' first languages, cultural backgrounds, and transnational students' local experiences to leverage their students' knowledge as resources.

5.2.2 Multiliteracies and Literacy and Identity Options

The findings relate that the four knowledge processes of multiliteracies pedagogy (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015) of experiencing, conceptualizing, analysing, and applying were evident in some transnational education classrooms.

Given transnational students' prior educational experience through their familiar, local pedagogical orientations, it is worthwhile to investigate transnational students' reception and/or resistance to these pedagogical applications and the ensuing impacts upon their literacy learning and identity formation. However, very few of the reviewed studies addressed such a local-global encounter, with the exception of Zhang (2015) and Zhang and Heydon (2015) where they reported students' and administrators' privileging of Canadian literacy teachers' multimodal pedagogies in the Canadian transnational education program in Mainland China. In an era of increasing global connectivity, scholars have addressed teachers' development of global perspectives in globalized schooling contexts (e.g., Hamilton & Clandinin, 2011). Educational researchers might here ask how teacher education institutions frame cross-border education in a globalizing world and might nurture pre-service and in-service teachers' awareness of recognizing the pedagogical wisdom of the local, host countries while introducing what might be considered more Western-centric approaches.

Cope and Kalantzis (2009a) accentuate the notion of "pedagogical weavings" (p. 184) which refers to the process of moving back and forth across and between these four

different pedagogical orientations. In the reviewed papers, except for 13 studies that addressed the connections between in-school and outside-of-school experiences, few studies explicitly addressed the pedagogical weavings of experiencing, conceptualizing, analysing, and applying. Therefore, I foresee the need for future applications of multiliteracies that focus on the "powerful and effective teaching" that "oscillates or weaves through different pedagogical modes, depending on what is being taught, the age/developmental capacities of the cohort, the cultural and linguistic resources of community and students" (Garcia, Luke, & Seglem, in press, n. p.). Concurring with Zhang et al.'s (submitted) suggestion in their systematic review on multiliteracies studies, I wonder if innovative weavings of different pedagogical orientations could also offer important insights into the possibilities and challenges of interacting the local and global pedagogical orientations in diverse transnational education contexts.

5.2.3 Fluid Identities and Imagined Communities

The findings of fluid identities show that transnational students move across various spaces (i.e., linguistically, culturally, and ethnically [Zhang & Guo, 2015]) and that their identities are not tied to one space (Zhang & Guo, 2015). Some studies reported how transnational students' fluid identities were nurtured pedagogically such as through individual creation of identities texts (Prasad, 2015) and collaborative projects of identity representations (Skerrett & Bomer, 2013). However, based on my findings, only a few studies explicitly addressed such pedagogical practices and the pertaining implications for transnational students' literacy and identity options (e.g., Prasad, 2015; Skerrett & Bomer, 2013). Such a scarcity calls for more research into innovative ways to nurture transnational students' fluid identities. Also, I foresee the necessity to conduct research on transnational students' perceptions about the impacts of such pedagogical practices upon their literacy learning and identity formation to inform transnational education policies and pedagogies.

The findings of 19 reviewed studies indicate that transnational students were provided opportunities to imagine membership in new and global communities. However, transnational students' interactions with the global others were reportedly limited to

school contexts with transnational educators. For example, in Zhang and Heydon's (2014) study, addressing what was missing in the transnational education curriculum, one Chinese student participant in the Canadian transnational education program expressed her eagerness to interact with Canadian peers back in Ontario so that she could get to know more about how they "lead their lives, what they do on a daily basis, how they learn [new things], and how they deal with peer relationships" (p. 402). Given the scarce literature on the incorporation of imagine membership in transnational education curriculum and pedagogy, I concur with Zhang and Heydon that such curricular and pedagogical incorporation could have the potential to engage students in literacy learning through increased participation in their imagined communities.

To conclude this systematic literature review, in Chapter 5 I discussed the reported findings about the trends of the reviewed transnational education studies and the reported affordances of TNE in terms of learners' literacy and identity options in globalized schooling contexts. Discussions in this chapter also included implications for transnational education in curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher training regarding expanding learners' literacy and identity options. The findings and discussion indicate that this study offers TNE scholars future areas of research to investigate. It enhances the existent understandings of the affordances of TNE around the globe and offers insights into cross-border curriculum decision making for growing TNE programs. The study also provides suggestions about pedagogy in TNE classrooms to expand students' literacy and identity options, which is insightful for pre-service and in-service teacher training for cross-border education.

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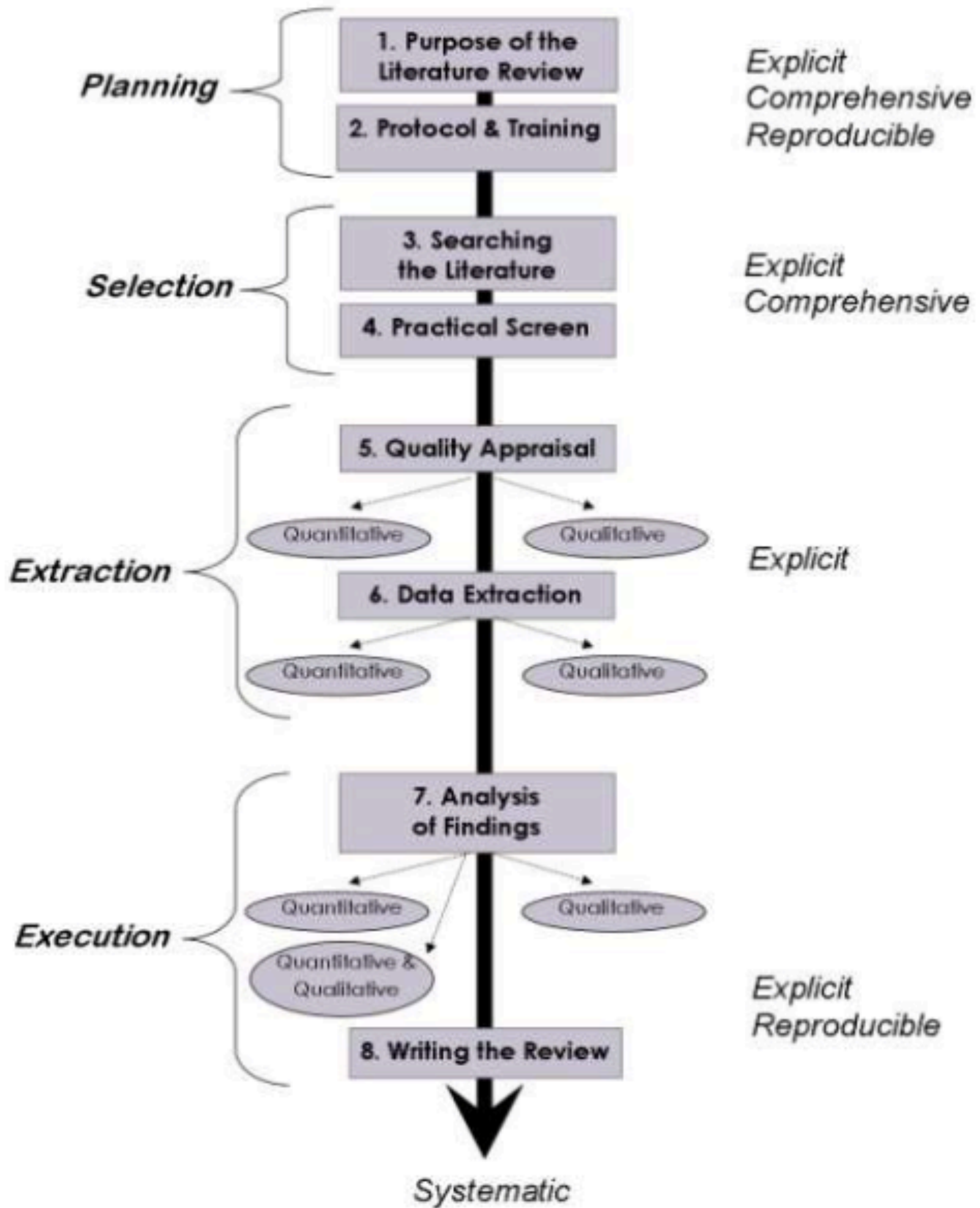
Appendices

Appendix A: Okoli and Schabram's (2010) systemic literature review guide



Appendix B: 60 selected article references and total page numbers

Article No.	60 Selected Article References	Total Page No.
1.	Allard, E. C. (2015). Undocumented status and schooling for newcomer teens. *Harvard Educational Review, 85*(3), 478-501.	**24**
2.	Alviar-Martin, T. (2010). Reconciling multiple conceptions of citizenship: International school teachers' beliefs and practice. *The Journal of Education, 191*(3), 39-49.	**11**
3.	Bak, M., & von Brömssen, K. (2010). Interrogating childhood and diaspora through the voices of children in Sweden. *Childhood, 17*(1), 113-128.	**16**
4.	Bartlett, L. (2007). Bilingual literacies, social identification, and educational trajectories. *Linguistics and Education, 18*(3), 215-231.	**17**
5.	Bernardo, M. A. C., Butcher, J., & Howard, P. (2012). An international comparison of community engagement in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Development, 32*(1), 187-192.	**6**
6.	Bickel, B., Shin, J. K., Taylor, J., Faust, H., & Penniston, T. (2013). Learning English internationally while engaging communities locally: Online EFL supporting community learning for young leaders. *TESOL Journal, 4*(3), 439-462.	**24**
7.	Brison, K. J. (2011). Producing "Confident" children: Negotiating childhood in Fijian kindergartens: Producing "confident" children. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 42*(3), 230-244.	**15**

8.	Bondy, J. M. (2015). Hybrid citizenship: Latina youth and the politics of belonging. *High School Journal, 98*(4), 353-373.	**21**
9.	Brochin Ceballos, C. (2012). Literacies at the border: Transnationalism and the biliteracy practices of teachers across the US-Mexico border. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15*(6), 687-703.	**17**
10.	Daniel, S. M., & Pacheco, M. B. (2016). Translanguaging practices and perspectives of four multilingual teens. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 59*(6), 653-663.	**11**
11.	DeJaynes, T. (2015). "Where I'm from" and belonging: A multimodal, cosmopolitan perspective on arts and inquiry. *E-Learning and Digital Media, 12*(2), 183-198.	**16**
12.	de la Piedra, M. T., & Araujo, E. B. (2012). Literacies crossing borders: Transfronterizo literacy practices of students in a dual language program on the USA-Mexico border. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 12*(3), 214- 229.	**16**
13.	Diao, W. (2014). Between ethnic and English names: Name choice for transnational Chinese students in a US academic community. *Journal of International Students, 4*(3), 205-223.	**19**
14.	du Plessis, A. E., & Sunde, E. (2017). The workplace experiences of beginning teachers in three countries: A	**19**

	message for initial teacher education from the field. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 43*(2), 132-150.	
15.	Endo, R. (2016). Counternarrating racialized expectations at school: The diverse enactments of "non-dominant" identities among 1.5-generation Japanese immigrant youth. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 15*(4), 201-215.	**15**
16.	Fabricius, A. H. (2014). The transnational and the individual: A life-history narrative in a Danish university context. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy, 40*(3), 284-299.	**16**
17.	Feast, V., & Bretag, T. (2005). Responding to crises in transnational education: New challenges for higher education. *Higher Education Research & Development, 24*(1), 63-78.	**16**
18.	Flores, N., Kleyn, T., & Menken, K. (2015). Looking holistically in a climate of partiality: Identities of students labeled long-term English language learners. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 14*(2), 113-132.	**20**
19.	García, A., & Gaddes, A. (2012). Weaving language and culture: Latina adolescent writers in an after-school writing project. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 28*(2), 143-163.	**21**
20.	Ghiso, M. P. (2016). The laundromat as the transnational local: Young children's literacies of interdependence. *Teachers College Record, 118*(1), 1-46.	**46**

21.	Hagelund, A. (2007). 'But they are Norwegians!' Talking about culture at school. *Ethnography and Education, 2*(1), 127-143.	**17**
22.	Haines, K. (2015). Imagining oneself: Narrative evaluations of the professional identities of learners in a transnational higher-educational setting. *Learning & Teaching, 8*(1), 30-49.	**20**
23.	Hill, M. D. (2013). Growing up Quechua: Ethnic identity, narrative, and the cultural politics of childhood migration in Cusco, Peru. *Childhood, 20*(3), 383-397.	**15**
24.	Hou, J., & McDowell, L. (2014). Learning together? Experiences on a China–U.K. articulation program in engineering. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(3), 223-240.	**18**
25.	Kane, T. (2014). Whose lingua franca?: The Politics of Language in Transnational Medical Education. *The Journal of General Education, 63*(2/3), 94-112.	**19**
26.	Knight, M. G., & Oesterreich, H. A. (2011). Opening our eyes, changing our practices: Learning through the transnational lifeworlds of teachers. *Intercultural Education, 22*(3), 203-215.	**13**
27.	Lam, W. S. E. (2014). Literacy and capital in immigrant youths' online networks across countries. *Learning, Media and Technology, 39*(4), 488-506.	**19**
28.	Lie, K. Y. (2010). Sustaining critical literacy in multilingual contexts: Voices and perspectives of a Malaysian postgraduate classroom. *Critical Literacy: Theories & Practices, 4*(2), 29-43.	**15**

29.	Marshall, S., Hayashi, H., & Yeung, P. (2012). Negotiating the multi in multilingualism and multiliteracies: Undergraduate students in Vancouver, Canada. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes, 68*(1), 28-53.	**26**
30.	Marshall, S., & Moore, D. (2013). 2B or not 2B plurilingual? Navigating languages literacies, and plurilingual competence in postsecondary education in Canada. *TESOL Quarterly, 47*(3), 472-499.	**28**
31.	Martínez, I. (2009). What's age gotta do with it? Understanding the age-identities and school-going practices of Mexican immigrant youth in New York City. *The High School Journal, 92*(4), 34-48.	**15**
32.	Mayer, V. (2003). Living Telenovelas/Telenovelizing life: Mexican American girls' identities and transnational telenovelas. *Journal of Communication, 53*(3), 479-495.	**17**
33.	Menard-Warwick, J. (2008). The cultural and intercultural identities of transnational English teachers: Two case studies from the Americas. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(4), 617-640.	**24**
34.	Menken, K., Kleyn, T., & Chae, N. (2012). Spotlight on "long-term English language learners": Characteristics and prior schooling experiences of an invisible population. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 6*(2), 121-142.	**22**
35.	Motha, S., Jain, R., & Tecle, T. (2012). Translinguistic identity-as-pedagogy: Implications for language	**16**

	teacher education. *International Journal of Innovation in English Language Teaching and Research, 1*(1), 13-28.	
36.	Naidoo, L. (2008). Crossing borders: Academic service learning as a pedagogy for transnational learning. *International Journal of Learning, 15*(3), 139-145.	**7**
37.	Obenchain, K. M., Alarcón, J., Ives, B., Bellows, E., & Alamă, M. (2014). Hungarian youth in Transylvania discuss hybrid notions of civic identity: Making the case for cultural preservation and multilingualism. *The High School Journal, 98*(1), 43-63.	**21**
38.	Pandya, J. Z., Pagdilao, K. C., & Kim, A. E. (2015). Transnational children orchestrating competing voices in multimodal, digital autobiographies. *Teachers College Record, 117*(7), 1-32.	**32**
39.	Petrón, M. A., & Greybeck, B. (2014). Borderlands epistemologies and the transnational experience. *GiST: Education and Learning Research Journal, 8*, 137-155.	**19**
40.	Pherali, T. J. (2012). Academic mobility, language, and cultural capital: The experience of transnational academics in British higher education institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16*(4), 313-333.	**21**
41.	Prasad, G. (2015). Beyond the mirror towards a plurilingual prism: Exploring the creation of plurilingual 'identity texts' in English and French classrooms in Toronto and Montpellier. *Intercultural Education, 26*(6), 497-514.	**18**

42.	Prieto-Arranz, J. I., Juan-Garau, M., & Jacob, K. L. (2013). Re-imagining cultural identity: Transcultural and translingual communication in virtual third-space environments. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 26*(1), 19-35.	**17**
43.	Pullman, A. (2015). Racialized bodies, pliable minds: Ethnography on the fringe of transnational education. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 35*(1), 1-13.	**13**
44.	Reid, C. (2005). Global teachers with globite cases. *Australian Journal of Education, 49*(3), 251-263.	**13**
45.	Rizvi, F. (2005). Rethinking "brain drain" in the era of globalisation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 25*(2), 175-192.	**18**
46.	Rubinstein-Ávila, E. (2007). From the Dominican Republic to drew high: What counts as literacy for Yanira Lara? *Reading Research Quarterly, 42*(4), 568-589.	**22**
47.	Saada, N. L. (2013). Teachers' perspectives on citizenship education in Islamic schools in Michigan. *Theory & Research in Social Education, 41*(2), 247-273.	**27**
48.	Sampedro, V. (1998). Grounding the displaced: Local media reception in a transnational context. Journal of Communication, 48(2), 125-143.	**19**
49.	Shao-Kobayashi, S. (2013). "My dad is samurai": Positioning of race and ethnicity surrounding a transnational *Colombian Japanese high school student. Linguistics and Education, 24*(3), 361-372.	**12**

50.	Skerrett, A. (2012). Languages and literacies in translocation: Experiences and perspectives of a transnational youth. *Journal of Literacy Research, 44*(4), 364-395.	**32**
51.	Skerrett, A., & Bomer, R. (2013). Recruiting languages and lifeworlds for border-crossing compositions. *Research in the Teaching of English, 47*(3), 313-337.	**25**
52.	Smith, K. (2014). Exploring flying faculty teaching experiences: Motivations, challenges and opportunities. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(1), 117-134.	**18**
53.	Stewart, M. A., & Hansen-Thomas, H. (2016). Sanctioning a space for translanguaging in the secondary English classroom: A case of a transnational youth. *Research in the Teaching of English, 50*(4), 450-472.	**23**
54.	Woodrow, L. (2011). Transnational graduate education in China: Reflections from a longitudinal study. *International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives, 10*(1), 47-60.	**14**
55.	Yang, R., & Qui, F. (2010). Globalisation and Chinese knowledge diaspora: An Australian case study. *Australian Educational Researcher, 37*(3), 19-37.	**19**
56.	Yi, Y. (2009). Adolescent literacy and identity construction among 1.5 generation students: From a transnational perspective. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, 19*(1), 100-129.	**30**
57.	Zhang, Y., & Guo, Y. (2015). Becoming transnational: Exploring multiple identities of students in a Mandarin-English bilingual program in Canada. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 13*(2), 210-229.	**20**

58.	Zhang, Z. (2015). Chinese and Canadian teachers implement a hybrid Sino-Canadian curriculum: A multiliteracies perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 48*(2015), 106-116.	**11**
59.	Zhang, Z., & Heydon, R. (2014). Lived literacy curriculum in a globalized schooling context: A case study of a Sino-Canadian transnational program. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 46*(3), 389-418.	**30**
60.	Zhang, Z., & Heydon, R. (2015). The changing landscape of literacy curriculum in a Sino-Canada transnational education program: An actor-network theory informed case study. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 48*(4), 547-564.	**18**
TOTAL		**1,149 PAGES**

Appendix C: Justification for exclusion of 91 articles

Article No.	References	Justification for Exclusion
1.	Alexiadou, N., & van de Bunt-Kokhuis, S. (2013). Policy space and the governance of education: Transnational influences on institutions and identities in the Netherlands and the UK. *Comparative Education, 49*(3), 344-360.	**Conceptual**
2.	Arsenault, P. M., & Stevenson, L. S. (2012). Developing a pedagogy for globalization: A marketing and political science multi-disciplinary and transnational approach. *Journal of Teaching in International Business, 23*(4), 277-290.	**Mixed Methods**
3.	Benahina, A. (2015). Transnational Education in Morocco: Current and Future Challenges. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(11), 127-133.	**Conceptual**
4.	Berry, T. R. (2014). Internationalization, internalization, and intersectionality of identity: A critical race feminist re-images curriculum. *JCT (Online), 30*(1), 4.-15.	**Irrelevant**
5.	Bruna, K. R. (2010). Mexican immigrant transnational social capital and class transformation: Examining the role of peer mediation in insurgent science. *Cultural Studies of Science Education, 5*(2), 383-422.	**Conceptual**
6.	Callaghan, T., & Mizzi, C. R. (2015). Educational administration and queer educators: Building relationships of inclusion and diversity. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, *(173),* 1-8.	**Irrelevant**

7.	Choo, S. S. (2015). Towards a transnational model of critical values education: The case for literature education in Singapore. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 35*(2), 226-240.	**Conceptual**
8.	Caruana, V., & Montgomery, C. (2015). Understanding the transnational higher education landscape: Shifting positionality and the complexities of partnership. *Learning and Teaching, 8*(1), 5-29.	**Conceptual**
9.	Dalal, A. K. (2011). Indigenisation of psychology in India. *Psychology Teaching Review, 17*(2), 29-37.	**Conceptual**
10.	de la Piedra, M. T., & Guerra, J. C. (2012). The literacy practices of Transfronterizos in a multilingual world. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15*(6), 627-634.	**Conceptual**
11.	Devos, A. (2014). The educational work of belonging. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 12*(3), 403-419.	**Irrelevant**
12.	Ehala, M., & Niglas, K. (2006). Language attitudes of Estonian secondary school students. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 5*(3), 209-227.	**Mixed-methods**
13.	González, M., & Ríos-Villarini, N. (2012). Floating migration, education, and globalization in the US Caribbean. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 25*(4), 471-486.	**Irrelevant**
14.	Gargano, T. (2009). (Re)conceptualizing international student mobility: The potential of transnational social fields. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 13*(3), 331-346.	**Conceptual**

15.	Grek, S., & Lawn, M. (2009). A short history of Europeanizing education: The new political work of calculating the future. *European Education, 41*(1), 32-54.	**Conceptual**
16.	Grever, M., Pelzer, B., & Haydn, T. (2011). High school students' views on history. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 43*(2), 207-229.	**Mixed-methods**
17.	Gu, Q., & Schweisfurth, M. (2015). Transnational connections, competences and identities: Experiences of chinese international students after their return 'home'. *British Educational Research Journal, 41*(6), 947-970.	**Mixed-methods**
18.	Hardy, I. (2012). 'Managing' managerialism: The impact of educational auditing on an academic 'specialist' school. *European Educational Research Journal, 11*(2), 274-289.	**Irrelevant**
19.	Ham, S-H., & Cha, Y. (2009). Positioning education in the information society: The transnational diffusion of the information and communication technology curriculum. *Comparative Education Review, 53*(4), 535-557.	**Mixed-methods**
20.	Harvey, A. (2010). Nationalism and higher education: Emerging trends. *International Journal of Learning, 16(*12), 355-364.	**Conceptual**
21.	Hechiche, A. (2004). The ethics and culture of peace. *Higher Education in Europe, 29*(4), 495-502.	**Conceptual**
22.	Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15*(3), 261-278.	**Conceptual**

23.	Jiménez, R. T. (2003). Literacy and Latino students in the United States: Some considerations, questions, and new directions. *Reading Research Quarterly, 38*(1), 122-128.	**Conceptual**
24.	Jiménez, T. R., Smith, H. P., & Teague, L. B. (2009). Transnational and community literacies for teachers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 53*(1), 16-26.	**Conceptual**
25.	Jo, J. O. (2003). Educating "good" citizens: Imagining citizens of the new millennium. *The High School Journal, 87*(2), 34-43.	**Conceptual**
26.	Joseph, C. (2008). Difference, subjectivities and power: (De)colonizing practices in internationalizing the curriculum. *Intercultural Education, 19*(1), 29-39.	**Conceptual**
27.	Jung, A., Nam, S., & Han, S. (2015). Challenges faced by Korean transnational students in the United States. *American Secondary Education, 44*(1), 28-38.	**Mixed-methods**
28.	Kan, H. K. (2010). Caught in the betwixt-and-between: Visual narrative of an Asian artist-scholar. *International Journal of Education & Arts, 10*(29), 1-32.	**Irrelevant**
29.	Kell, C. (2011). Inequalities and crossings: Literacy and the spaces-in-between. *International Journal of Educational Development, 31*(6), 606-613.	**Conceptual**
30.	Kelly, M. (2015). Challenges to multilingual language teaching: Towards a transnational approach. *European Journal of Language Policy, 7*(1), 65-83.	**Conceptual**
31.	Khan, M. Y. (2007). 'Shaking up' vision: The video diary as personal and pedagogical intervention in Mona Hatoum's measures of distance. *Intercultural Education, 18*(4), 317-334.	**Irrelevant**

32.	Kim, J. E., & Deschambault, R. (2012; 2011). New literacy practices of a Kiregi mother from a(n) (im)migrant South Korean family in Canada. *Community Literacy Journal, 6*(2), 43-74.	**Irrelevant**
33.	Kim, S., & Slapac, A. (2015). Culturally responsive, transformative pedagogy in the transnational era: Critical perspectives. *Educational Studies, 51*(1), 17-27.	**Conceptual**
34.	Kim, T. (2010). Transnational academic mobility, knowledge, and identity capital. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 31*(5), 577-591.	**Conceptual**
35.	Knight, M. (2011). It's already happening: Learning from civically engaged transnational immigrant youth. *Teachers College Record, 113*(6), 1275-1292.	**Conceptual**
36.	Lam, W. S. E., Warriner, D. S., Poveda, D., & Gonzalez, N. (2012). Transnationalism and literacy: Investigating the mobility of people, languages, texts, and practices in contexts of migration. *Reading Research Quarterly, 47*(2), 191-215.	**Conceptual**
37.	Lam, W. S. E., & Rosario-Ramos, E. (2009). Multilingual literacies in transnational digitally mediated contexts: An exploratory study of immigrant teens in the United States. *Language and Education, 23*(2), 171-190.	**Mixed-methods**
38.	LaSpina, J. A. (2003). Designing diversity: Globalization, textbooks, and the story of nations. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 35*(6), 667-696.	**Conceptual**
39.	Lecluijze, E. S., de Haan, M. and Ünlüsoy, A. (2015). What online networks offer: “Online network compositions	**Mixed-methods**

	and online learning experiences of three ethnic groups". *International Journal of Higher Education, 4*(3), 68-81.	
40.	Lee, E., & Marshall, S. (2012). Multilingualism and English language usage in 'weird' and 'funny' times: A case study of transnational youth in Vancouver. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 9*(1), 65-82.	**Mixed-methods**
41.	Lindblad, S., & Lindblad, R. F. (2009). Transnational governance of higher education: On globalization and international university ranking lists. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 108*(2), 180-202.	**Quantitative**
42.	Llurda, E., Gallego-Balsà, L., Barahona, C., & Martin-Rubió, X. (2016). Erasmus student mobility and the construction of European citizenship. *The Language Learning Journal, 44*(3), 323-346.	**Irrelevant**
43.	López-Gopar, M. E., & Sughrua, W. (2014). Social class in English language education in Oaxaca, Mexico. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 13*(2), 104-110.	**Conceptual**
44.	Loves, M. (2009). Project Pandora: Student teaching and learning (Resource tool box). *Journal of college teaching and learning, 6*(3), 61-70.	**Irrelevant**
45.	Lucić, L. (2016). Changing landscapes, changing narratives: Socio-cultural approach for teaching global migrants. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society, 24*(2), 221-237.	**Conceptual**
46.	Malloy, J. A., & Mallozzi, C. (2007). International reports on literacy research: Argentina, Mexico, France. *Reading Research Quarterly, 42*(2), 298-302.	**Conceptual**

47.	McLaren, P. (2009). Guided by a red star: The Cuban literacy campaign and the challenge of history. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies (JCEPS), 7*(2), 51-65.	**Conceptual**
48.	McLaren, P., & Farahmandpur, R. (2001). Class, cultism, and multiculturalism. *Multicultural Education, 8*(3), 2-14.	**Conceptual**
49.	McLeod, J. (2009). Youth studies, comparative inquiry, and the Local/Global problematic. *Review of Education, Pedagogy, and Cultural Studies, 31*(4), 270-292.	**Conceptual**
50.	Mir, S. (2011). 'Just to make sure people know I was born here': Muslim women constructing American selves. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 32*(4), 547-563.	**Irrelevant**
51.	Mizzi, R. C. (2015). Mobility matters: Towards an understanding of transnational education. *New Horizons in Adult Education and Human Resource Development, 27*(4), 1-3.	**Conceptual**
52.	Mortensen, J. (2014). Language policy from below: Language choice in student project groups in a multilingual university setting. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 35*(4), 425-442.	**Conceptual**
53.	Münch, R. (2014). Education under the regime of PISA & Co.: Global standards and local traditions in conflict - the case of Germany. *Teachers College Record, 116*(9), 1-16.	**Conceptual**
54.	Myers, J., & Zaman, H. (2009). Negotiating the global and national: Immigrant and dominant-culture adolescents' vocabularies of citizenship in a transnational world. *Teachers College Record, 111*(11), 2589-2625.	**Mixed methods**

55.	Nawrotzki, K. D. (2007). 'Like sending coals to newcastle:' Impressions from and of the Anglo-American kindergarten movements. *Paedagogica Historica, 43*(2), 223-233.	**Conceptual**
56.	Nguyen, R. S. (2012). Interdisciplinary global education: Transnational lessons learned in identity and knowledge construction. *Global Education Journal, 2012*(3), 166-177.	**Conceptual**
57.	Nixon, H. (2011). ‘From bricks to clicks’: Hybrid commercial spaces in the landscape of early literacy and learning. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 11*(2), 114-140.	**Irrelevant**
58.	Okpalaoka, C. L., & Dillard, C. B. (2012). Migrations, relations, and identities of African peoples: Toward an endarkened transnational feminist praxis in education. *Educational Foundations, 26*(1-2), 121-142.	**Conceptual**
59.	O’Neill, G. T. (2014). “Just a natural move towards English”: Gulf youth attitudes towards Arabic and English literacy. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives, 11*(1), 1-22.	**Mixed methods**
60.	Openshaw, R., & Walshaw, M. (2013). Towards an August assembly of suave Venusians? The early post-second world war debate over New Zealand literacy and numeracy standards in transnational context. *History of Education Review, 42*(2), 137-152.	**Conceptual**
61.	Osborn, M., McNess, E., & Pollard, A. (2006). Identity and transfer: A new focus for home-school knowledge exchange. *Educational Review, 58*(4), 415-433.	**Irrelevant**

62.	Passani, A., & Debicki, M. (2016). Students opinions and attitudes toward LGBT persons and rights: Results of a transnational European project. *Journal of LGBT Youth, 13*(1-2), 67-88.	**Irrelevant**
63.	Ramírez, C. D. (2009). Forging a mestiza rhetoric: Mexican women journalists' role in the construction of a national identity. *College English, 71*(6), 606-629.	**Conceptual**
64.	Rios-Aguilar, C., & Mars, M. M. (2011). Integration or fragmentation? College student citizenship in the global society. *Education, Knowledge and Economy, 5*(1-2), 29-44.	**Conceptual**
65.	Roberts, S. (2013). Encounter, exchange and inscription: The personal, the local and the transnational in the educational humanitarianism of two quaker women. *History of Education, 42*(6), 783-802.	**Irrelevant**
66.	Rossatto, C. A. (2014). Global activism and social transformation vis-à-vis dominant forms of economic organization: Critical education within Afro-Brazilian and transnational pedagogical praxis. *Perspectives on Global Development and Technology, 13*(1-2), 151-175.	**Conceptual**
67.	Ruiz, N. T., Baird, P. J., & Torres Hernández, P. (2016). Field practice in la Mixteca: Transnational teacher education in the service of Mexican indigenous students in U.S. schools. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 15*(2), 97-112.	**Mixed methods**
68.	Saúde, S., Carioca, V., Siraj-Blatchford, J., Sheridan, S., Genov, K., & Nuez, R. (2005). Kinderet: Developing training for early childhood educators in information and	**Mixed-methods**

	communications technology (ICT) in Bulgaria, England, Portugal, Spain and Sweden. *International Journal of Early Years Education, 13*(3), 265-287.	
69.	Schratz, M. (2014). The European teacher: Transnational perspectives in teacher education policy and practice. *Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal, 4*(4), 11-27.	**Conceptual**
70.	Shams, F., & Huisman, J. (2016). The role of institutional dual embeddedness in the strategic local adaptation of international branch campuses: Evidence from Malaysia and Singapore. *Studies in Higher Education, 41*(6), 955-970.	**Irrelevant**
71.	Shohamy, E. (2013). The discourse of language testing as a tool for shaping national, global, and transnational identities. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 13*(2), 225-236.	**Conceptual**
72.	Starr-Glass, D. (2013). Threshold work: Sustaining liminality in mentoring international students. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education, 2*(2), 109-121.	**Conceptual**
73.	Subedi, B. (2006). Theorizing a ‘halfie’ researcher’s identity in transnational fieldwork. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 19*(5), 573-593.	**Irrelevant**
74	Subreenduth, S. (2008). Deconstructing the politics of a differently colored transnational identity. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 11*(1), 41-55.	**Conceptual**
75.	Subreenduth, S., & Rhee, J. (2010). A porous, morphing, and circulatory mode of self-other: Decolonizing identity politics by engaging transnational reflexivity.	**Conceptual**

	International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 23(3), 331-346.	
76.	Tauber, S. (2013). Key resources on Jewish religious education. *Religious Education, 108*(5), 542-547.	**Conceptual**
77.	Thomas, Y. S. B. (2010). Undergraduate dissertation prize for the geographies of children, youth and families research group of the RGS-IBG, 2009. *Children's Geographies, 8*(3), 325-325.	**Irrelevant**
78.	Villenas, S. A. (2009). Knowing and unknowing transnational Latino lives in teacher education: At the intersection of educational research and the Latino humanities. *The High School Journal, 92*(4), 129-136.	**Conceptual**
79.	Vieira, K. (2016). Doing transnational writing studies: A case for the literacy history interview. *Composition Studies, 44*(1), 138-140.	**Irrelevant**
80.	Vora, N. (2015). Is the university universal? Mobile (re)constitutions of American academia in the gulf Arab states. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 46*(1), 19-36.	**Irrelevant**
81.	Wahlström, N. (2010). A European space for education looking for its public. *European Educational Research Journal, 9*(4), 432-443.	**Conceptual**
82.	Willis, D. B., Enloe, W. W., & Minoura, Y. (1994). Transculturals, transnationals: The new diaspora. *The International Schools Journal, 14*(1), 29- 42.	**Conceptual**
83.	Yonezawa, A., Horta, H., & Osawa, A. (2016). Mobility, formation and development of the academic profession in science, technology, engineering and mathematics in	**Irrelevant**

	East and South East Asia. *Comparative Education, 52*(1), 44-61.	
84	Ziad, H. M. (2013). Inter-independence collaborative strategies for sustainable transnational higher education in the info-globalization age- A new science of e-learning is in the making. *Journal of Educational & Institutional Studies in the World, 3*(2), 69-79.	**Conceptual**
85.	Zúñiga, V., & Hamann, E. (2009). Sojourners in mexico with U.S. school experience: A new taxonomy for transnational students. *Comparative Education Review, 53*(3), 329-353.	**Mixed-Methods**
86.	Bejarano, C. (2010). Border rootedness as transformative resistance: Youth overcoming violence and inspection in a US-Mexico border region. *Children's Geographies, 8*(4), 391-399.	**Conceptual**
87.	Gu, Q. (2015). An emotional journey of identity change and transformation: The impact of study-abroad experience on the lives and careers of Chinese students and returnees. *Learning and Teaching, 8*(3), 60-81.	**Mixed-Methods**
88.	Salas, S., Jones, J. P., Perez, T., Fitchett, P. G., & Kissau, S. (2013). Habla con ellos-talk to them: Latinas/Os, achievement, and the middle grades: Moving bilingual children beyond subordinated categories toward full engagement in relevant and authentic learning that embraces their communities. *Middle School Journal, 45*(1), 18-23.	**Conceptual**
89.	Shin, H. (2015). Everyday racism in Canadian schools: Ideologies of language and culture among Korean transnational students in Toronto. *Journal of*	**Conceptual**

	Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 36(1), 67-79.	
90.	Wiggins, J. L., & Monobe, G. (2016). Positioning self in "figured worlds": Using poetic inquiry to theorize transnational experiences in education. *The Urban Review, 49*(1), 153-168.	**Irrelevant**
91.	Yelich Biniecki, S. M., & Conceição, S. C. O. (2014). How living or traveling to foreign locations influences adults' worldviews and impacts personal identity. *New Horizons in Adult Education and Human Resource Development, 26*(3), 39-53.	**Irrelevant**

Appendix D: The rated quality appraisal of the nine assessment categories

Article No.	Assessment Categories of Reviewed Studies (*n* = 60)								
	RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1.	**LITERATURE REVIEW 2.**	**CONTEXT 3.**	**DATA COLLECTION 4.**	**DATA ANALYSIS 5.**	**DATA PRESENTATION 6.**	**DATA & INTERP. 7.**	**RESULTS 8.**	**CONCLUSION 9.**
1.	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	5
2.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4
3.	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	5
4.	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4
5.	5	4	4	4	4	3	1	3	1
6.	4	1	3	3	4	5	5	5	5
7.	4	2	4	3	3	5	5	5	3
8.	2	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
9.	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	4	4
10.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
11.	5	5	5	4	3	3	4	3	3
12.	5	5	4	3	5	5	5	5	4
13.	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
14.	5	4	4	5	5	5	3	5	4

15.	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4
16.	4	3	4	4	4	1	3	1	5
17.	3	3	4	3	3	5	5	5	5
18.	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5
19.	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4
20.	5	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4
21.	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	3
22.	3	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4
23.	4	3	4	3	3	1	1	1	3
24.	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4
25.	4	1	4	3	3	5	1	5	4
26.	2	2	5	4	4	4	5	4	4
27.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
28.	4	5	4	5	5	1	5	1	4
29.	5	3	5	4	4	5	5	5	5
30.	5	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	4
31.	5	5	5	4	3	5	5	5	4
32.	3	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	4
33.	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	2	4
34.	1	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	4
35.	5	3	3	5	1	4	2	4	3
36.	2	5	3	3	1	1	2	1	5
37.	5	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	4
38.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4
39.	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
40.	5	4	3	4	5	4	4	4	4
41.	3	5	3	3	1	5	5	5	5
42.	5	4	3	3	1	4	5	4	4
43.	3	5	4	3	1	4	5	4	4
44.	4	2	4	3	4	4	4	4	4
45.	4	5	3	3	1	3	4	3	3
46.	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
47.	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	4

48.	4	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	5
49.	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
50.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
51.	3	5	3	3	5	5	5	5	4
52.	4	3	3	4	4	5	4	5	4
53.	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
54.	5	5	3	5	5	4	5	4	5
55.	5	3	4	4	3	5	3	5	4
56.	5	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	5
57.	5	5	3	5	5	5	5	5	5
58.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
59.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
60.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
M	**4.27**	**4.22**	**4.08**	**4.19**	**4.10**	**4.39**	**4.42**	**4.39**	**4.25**
SD	**0.98**	**1.08**	**0.75**	**0.78**	**1.27**	**1.15**	**1.08**	**1.14**	**0.78**

Appendix E: Results of the years the 60 reviewed papers were published

Year	Article No.	Total
2017	14	**1**
2016	10, 15, 20, 53	**4**
2015	1, 8, 11, 18, 22, 38, 41, 43, 57, 58, 60	**11**
2014	13, 16, 24, 25, 27, 37, 39, 52, 59	**9**
2013	6, 23, 30, 42, 47, 49, 51	**7**
2012	5, 9, 12, 19, 29, 34, 35, 40, 50	**9**
2011	7, 26, 54	**3**
2010	2, 3, 28, 55	**4**
2009	31, 56	**2**
2008	33, 36	**2**
2007	4, 21, 46	**3**
2005	17, 44, 45	**3**
2003	32	**1**
1998	48	**1**

Appendix F: Results of 60 research methodologies

Research Method	Definition	Article No.	Total
Case study	Robert K. Yin defined the case study as a comprehensive research method that "investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and relies on multiple sources of evidence in a triangulating fashion" (Yin, 1984, p. 13).	2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 12, 13, 16, 17, 19, 26, 27, 29, 31, 33, 41, 42, 43, 44, 47, 50, 51, 52, 53, 55, 56, 57, 58, 60	**29**
Ethnographic research	Ghazala Bhatti (2012) stated that ethnographic research "incorporates different views and perceptions, and describes the messy nature of everyday life", and Geertz (1973) contends that these views must be documented by the ethnographer through "thick descriptions" (p. 6).	1, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 28, 30, 32, 38, 39, 41, 43, 45, 46, 48, 49, 53, 59	**26**
Action Based Research	John Elliot (1991) defined action research method as "the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it… providing the necessary link between self-evaluation and professional development" (p. 69).	6, 20, 26, 35, 37, 38, 41, 43, 46, 54, 55	**11**
Grounded theory	Robert Thornberg (2012) claimed grounded theory is "a qualitative and inductive research approach, which is designed to explore, analyze, and	8, 18, 22, 24, 27, 32, 34, 36, 37, 53	**10**

	generate concepts about individual and collective actions and social processes" (p. 85).		
Phenomenology	Phenomenology concerns "an individual's first-hand experiences rather than the abstract experience of others" (Selvi, 2008, p. 39).	40	**1**

Appendix G: Results of 60 data collection tools

Data Collection Tools	Definition	Article No.	Total
Naturalistic Observation	Naturalistic observations involve researchers watching and listening to people in their natural settings (Angrosino, 2012).	2, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24, 26, 27, 30, 31, 32, 37, 39, 41, 43, 46, 48, 49, 50, 51, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60	**35**
In-depth Interview	In-depth interviews are "purposeful interactions in which an investigator attempts to learn what another person knows about a topic, to discover, and record what that person has experienced, what he or she thinks, and feels about it, and what significance or meaning it might have" (Mears, 2012, p. 171).	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 16, 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 29, 32, 33, 34, 37, 38, 39, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 51, 53, 54, 59	**31**
Semi-structured Interview	A semi-structured interview is a verbal interchange where the interviewer attempts to elicit information from another person by asking predetermined questions in a conversational manner that allows participants to offer issues they feel are important (Longhurst, 2003).	1, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15,18, 20, 22, 30, 31, 34, 37, 40, 42, 43, 44, 46, 50, 51, 52, 55, 56, 57, 58, 60	**29**

Focus Group	A focus group is when "a group of people, usually between six and 12, who meet in an informal setting to talk about a particular topic that has been set by the researcher" (Longhurst, 2003, p. 143).	3, 5, 6, 10, 15, 17, 19, 28, 36, 42	**10**
Collecting Narratives	Researchers can collect narratives for analysis, which are captions of participants' personal experiences, and over time can help researchers consider relationships between an individual's experience and their cultural context (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).	16, 22, 23, 35, 43, 45, 52	**7**
Open-ended Questionnaire	Is a questionnaire that includes "the possibility of discovering the responses that individuals give spontaneously… these surveys avoid bias that may result from suggesting responses to individuals" (Reja, Manfreda, Hlebec, & Vehovar, 2003, p. 161).	8	**1**

Appendix H: Results of the other data sources

Data Source	Definition	Article No.	Total
Field notes	Field notes are notes that are created by the researcher during the act of qualitative fieldwork to help the researcher remember and record the behaviors, activities, events, and other features of an observation (Schwandt, 2015). Field notes are also used by the researcher as evidence to produce an understanding of the culture, social situation, or phenomenon that is under investigation (Schwandt, 2015).	1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 30, 32, 33, 38, 39, 43, 46, 49, 50, 51, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 60	**29**
Transcripts	A transcript is a "written record of the detailed content of an interview or group discussion, usually produced from an audio or video tape record of the event" (The Association for Qualitative Research [AQR], 2016, n.p)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 38, 39, 40, 44, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 53, 56	**27**
Artifacts	Artifacts are objects that societies and cultures make for their own use, which can provide historical, demographic, and personal information about a culture, society, or an individual (Given, 2008).	6, 9, 11, 12, 18, 19, 20, 22, 28, 29, 36, 37, 39, 41, 42, 43, 49, 50, 51, 53, 54, 56, 57, 59	**24**

Documents	documents are research evidence that interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around a topic that is being researched (Bowen, 2009).	1, 2, 9, 14, 15, 19, 24, 25, 26, 30, 34, 39, 43, 57, 58, 60	**16**
Digital Tools	Digital tools include applications that are used with new technologies (e.g., a slide show prepared on PowerPoint, or a digital picture designed on Paint).	6, 11, 22, 27, 29, 30, 36, 41, 42, 43, 51, 56, 59	**13**
Audio recordings	An audio recording is when a researcher records sound (typically speech) for the purposes of data collection (Bloor & Wood, 2006).	4, 7, 8, 9, 12, 14, 16, 17, 30, 33, 37, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51	**16**
Video recordings	Video recordings are used by researchers to use a video device to record social life (Bloor & Wood, 2006).	7, 10, 16, 17, 27, 49, 51, 55	**8**

Appendix I: Results of 60 data analysis tools

Data Analysis Tools	Definition	Article No.	Total
Thematic analysis	Thematic analysis is "a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail…and interprets various aspects of the research topic" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 77).	1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31, 32, 33, 37, 39, 40, 47, 48, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 59	**37**
Document analysis	Bowen (2009) defined document analysis as "a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents--both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material" (p. 27).	1, 2, 9, 14, 15, 19, 24, 25, 26, 30, 34, 39, 43, 57, 58, 60	**16**
Constant comparative method	The researcher "compares newly acquired data with existing data and categories and theories that have been devised and which are emerging, in order to achieve a perfect fit between these and the data" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 473). "If there is a poor fit between data and categories, or indeed between theory and data, then the categories and theories have to be modified until all the data are accounted for" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 493).	2, 19, 33, 38, 39, 46, 58, 60	**8**

Cross-case analysis	Cross-case analysis is a means of grouping together common responses to interviews as well as analyzing different perspectives on central issues (Patton, 1999).	5, 6, 7, 9, 52	**5**
Discourse analysis	The term discourse analysis was first employed by Zellig Harris (1952) by connecting speech or writing far beyond the limit of a single sentence and correlating the speech or writing with culture and language.	16, 21, 29, 49	**4**
Critical discourse analysis	CDA investigates “power, injustice, abuse, and political-economic or cultural change in society” (Fairclough, Mulderrig, & Wodak, 2011, p. 357).	44, 58, 60	**3**
Micro-analysis	A micro-analysis is an analysis of an individual in their social setting (Blalock, 1979).	59	**1**
Reflexive ethnographic analysis	A reflexive ethnography analysis is reflexive because it is used for recognizing the relation we have to participants and also the relation we have to theory. Also, it is ethnographic because it seeks to understand an external world both in terms of the social processes we observe and the external forces we perceive (Burawoy, 2003).	23	**1**

Not clearly stated	The author(s) did not explicitly state the analysis procedures.	35, 36, 41, 42, 45 1, 2, 9, 14, 15, 19, 24, 25, 26, 30, 34, 39, 43, 57, 58, 60	**5**

Appendix J: Participants in the 60 reviewed papers

Participants	Article No.	Total
Students	1, 3, 4, 8, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 36, 37, 42, 45, 46, 48, 49, 53, 56, 57, 59	**28**
Teachers	2, 9, 14, 16, 21, 23, 26, 33, 35, 39, 40, 44, 47, 52, 55, 58	**16**
Students & Teachers	6, 10, 11, 20, 38, 41, 50, 51	**8**
Students & Teachers & Other sources	5, 7, 34, 43, 54	**5**
Students & Other sources	22	**1**
Teachers & Other sources	14, 17, 60	**3**
OTHER SOURCES		
Chancellors	5	**1**
Parents	7	**1**
Policy makers	7, 60	**2**
School administrators (principals, curriculum coordinators, staff)	5, 14, 17, 22, 34, 43, 60	**7**
Tutors	54	**1**
University partners	5	**1**

Appendix K: Students' education level in the 60 reviewed papers

Students' Education Level	Article No.	Total
Primary Students		
Kindergarten	7	**1**
Grade 1	20	**1**
Grade 2		**0**
Grade 3	38	**1**
Junior Students		
Grade 4	38, 41	**2**
Grade 5	3, 12, 32, 38, 41, 57	**6**
Grade 6	3, 12, 32, 41	**4**
Intermediate Students		
Grade 7	32	**1**
Grade 8	10, 32, 46	**3**
Grade 9	1, 15, 18, 19, 31, 32, 34, 42, 46, 49, 50, 51, 53, 56	**14**
Grade 10	11, 15, 18, 31, 32, 34, 49	**7**
Senior Students		
Grade 11	15, 31, 34, 49, 59	**5**
Grade 12	4, 8, 15, 27, 31, 34, 37, 49	**8**
Higher Education Students		
Undergraduate/College	5, 24, 27, 29, 30, 43, 48	**7**
Graduate	6, 13, 22, 25, 28, 36, 45, 48, 54	**9**

Appendix L: Teachers' education level in the 60 reviewed papers

Teacher's Education Level	**Article No.**	**Total**
K-12 Teachers		
Pre-service teacher	**7**, 9, 26	**3**
In-service teacher	2, **7**, 10, 11, 14, 20, 21, 23, 34, 35, 38, 39, 41, 44, 47, 50, 51, 58, 60	**19**
Higher Education Teachers		
Professor/Lecturer/Chair of department	5, 6, 16, 17, 33, 40, 43, 52, 54, 55	**10**

Appendix M: Participants' genders reported in the 60 reviewed papers

Gender	Article No.	Total
Diverse	1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 47, 48, 49, 54, 55, 56, 58, 59, 60	**41**
Male	2, 16, 45, 52	**4**
Female	8, 9, 19, 23, 27, 32, 33, 39, 46, 50, 51, 53, 57	**13**
Unclear	5, 17	**2**

Appendix N: Reported geographical contexts the participants were situated in

Country[19]	Article No.	Total
Australia	**5, 14**, 17, 36, 44, **54**, 55	7
Brazil	**6**	1
Canada	29, 30, **41**, 57	4
Chile	33	1
China	**24, 27**, 44, **54**, 58, 59, 60	7
Denmark	16	1
Fiji	7	1
France	**41**	1
Germany	**40**	1
Malaysia	28	1
Mexico	**31**, 50	2
Netherlands	**22**	1
Norway	**14,** 21	2
Peru	23	1
Philippines	**5**	1
Poland	**42**	1
Qatar	**25**	1
Romania	37	1
South Africa	**14, 22**	2
Spain	**42**	1
Sweden	3	1
United Kingdom	**24,** 52	2
USA	1, 2, 4, **6,** 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19, 20, **25,** 26, **27, 31**, 32, 34, 35, 38, 39, 40, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 51, 53, 56	32

[19] Bolded article numbers indicate articles that investigated multiple countries for research sites.

Multiple Countries	5, 6, 14, 22, 24, 25, 27, 40, 41, 42, 54	11

Appendix O: Students' and teachers' cultural backgrounds

Culture	Article No.	Total
Students		
Fijian	7	**1**
Brazilian	6	**1**
Hungarian	37	**1**
German	22	**1**
Swedish	22	**1**
Dutch	22	**1**
Indian	30, 36, 45	**3**
Chinese	13, 24, 27, 29, 30, 34, 36, 43, 45, 54, 59	**11**
Malaysian	28	**1**
Japanese	15, 29, 49	**3**
El Salvadorian	10	**1**
Ecuadorian	34	**1**
Myanmarese	10	**1**
Mexican	1, 8, 12, 18, 19, 20, 31, 32, 34, 38, 50, 51, 53	**13**
Haitian	11	**1**
Honduras	34	**1**
Puerto Rican	11	**1**
Colombian	11	**1**
Russian	11	**1**
South Korean	11	**1**
Dominican	4, 34, 46	**3**
Guatemala	34	**1**
Swedish	3	**1**
Venezuelan	34	**1**
Iraqi	3	**1**

Iranian	3	**1**
Kurdistan	3, 10	**2**
Former Yugoslavia	3	**1**
Somalian	3	**1**
Polish	42	**1**
Spanish	42	**1**
Diverse	41, 48	**2**
Teachers		
American	2, 7, 9, 10, 11, 34	**6**
Australian	14, 35	**2**
Fijian	7, 44	**2**
Haitian	26	**1**
African	14, 35, 44	**3**
Norwegian	14, 21	**2**
Peruvian	23	**1**
Indian	35, 44	**2**
Hondurans	38	**1**
Mexican	39	**1**
Canadian	41, 58, 60	**3**
French	41	**1**
Israeli	47	**1**
Chinese	58, 60	**2**

Appendix P: Reported autonomous literacy model deductive themes

Autonomous Literacy Model Deductive Themes (See § 2.3.1.1)	Study ID	No. of Studies
Autonomous Literacy Model and Pedagogy in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.2)		
1. "Teacher- talk" dominated classrooms, in which the teacher dominated the talk time rather than students during class time	**4, 5, 18, 28, 43, 54, 56, 58**	**8**
2. "Whole class instructions" with little one-on-one, or group attention	**4, 5, 43, 54, 58**	**5**
3. "Teacher-time", in which teachers determined the use of class time and curriculum objectives with little input or consideration from the students	**5, 18, 43, 58**	**4**
4. "Teacher-centered" classrooms, where students faced the teacher and were situated in rows	**1, 4, 5, 18, 26, 34, 43, 54**	**8**
5. "Text-book teachers", in which teachers heavily referred to textbooks to guide curricular and instructional decision making	**2, 4, 5, 39, 43, 54, 59**	**7**
6. "Teach-for-the-test-teachers", in which teachers questioned, drilled, or tested students with one and only one correct answer	**5, 43, 54, 58**	**4**
Autonomous Literacy Model and Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.3 & § 2.3.1.4)		
Autonomous Literacy and Reading and Writing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.4) Doing repetition, memorization, drills, and dictation during listening, speaking, reading, and writing exercises	**4, 10, 25, 26, 29, 43, 53, 54, 56, 58**	**10**
Autonomous Literacy Model and Identity in TNE classrooms (See § 2.3.1.5)		

Negotiating their identities in a “melting pot” (New London Group, 1996, p. 72) environment	**1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40, 41, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 51, 52, 54, 55, 56, 57**	**42**

Appendix Q: Reported multiliteracies deductive themes

Multiliteracies (e.g., Multimodality & New Media Literacies) Deductive Themes	Study ID	No. of Studies
Experiencing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.1)		
Experiencing the known Weaving their school learning and out-of-school experiences (i.e., features that represent their unique identities namely, languages, celebrations, hobbies, after school activities, travel experiences, etc.)	**4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 26, 28, 29, 30, 33, 37, 38, 39, 41, 45, 47, 50, 51, 53, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59**	**30**
Experiencing the new Being immersed in authentic, unfamiliar learning environments	**4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 19, 25, 30, 33, 39, 41, 46, 47, 50, 51, 53, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60**	**22**
Conceptualising in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.2)		
Conceptualising by naming Nurturing their metalanguage (i.e., talking about language, images, texts, and meaning-making interactions)	**28**	**1**
Conceptualising by theory Actively questioning, discussing, theorizing, and growing from literacy materials	**5, 6, 10, 11, 13, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 27, 30, 37, 42, 50, 51, 53, 54, 55, 56, 58**	**21**
Analysing in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.3)		

Making connections to functions of texts, diagrams, and/or data visualizations and being active, critical thinkers regarding texts and authors' motives	**2, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 19, 20, 25, 28, 30, 33, 39, 41, 43, 47, 50, 51, 53, 54, 56, 57**	**22**
Applying in TNE classrooms (See § 2.4.3.4)		
Applying Appropriately Appropriately putting theory to practice	**6, 11, 12, 19, 30, 33, 39, 41, 42, 46, 47, 50, 51, 53, 56, 57**	**16**
Applying Creatively Creatively transferring their creations and understandings in real-life situations	**6, 11, 19, 20, 24, 33, 36, 38, 41, 42, 47, 50, 53, 56**	**14**
Semiotic Resources for Meaning Making in TNE classrooms (See §2.4.4)		
Utilizing diverse semiotic resources	**6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 17, 27, 28, 30, 32, 33, 38, 41, 42, 50, 51, 52, 54, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60**	**22**
New Media Literacies in TNE classrooms (See §2.4.5)		
Manipulating new technologies (e.g., tablets) as active media designers in correspondence with new media technologies (e.g., Facebook); being guided as to how to use new media critically and appropriately	**1, 6, 12, 20, 25, 27, 28, 32, 38, 41, 42, 46, 50, 54, 56, 57, 59**	**17**

Appendix R: Reported inductive themes

Inductive Themes	Study ID	No. of Studies
1. Nurturing fluid identities in the classroom	**2, 3, 10, 12, 13, 16, 18, 19, 20, 25, 28, 30, 37, 41, 51, 56, 57, 59**	**18**
2. Having the opportunities to imagine membership in new communities	**1, 3, 6, 10, 13, 22, 25, 27, 31, 33, 37, 38, 42, 45, 48, 53, 56, 57, 59**	**19**

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