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A Systematic Literature Review: Literacy Practices and Roles of Chinese Parents and Chinese Heritage Language Teachers In Chinese Children's Literacy Learning

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Abstract

The purpose of this systematic literature review (SLR) is to investigate the practices and roles of Chinese parents and Chinese heritage language (CHL) teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms. Through the theoretical framework that is, in part, premised in a pedagogy of multiliteracies, this SLR generated data from 41 screened articles. The articles are based on Chinese parents and CHL teachers' experiences and understandings in regard to Chinese children's Chinese and English acquisition. Findings indicate that this study offers scholars future areas of research to investigate which includes literacy learning activities that meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse families and professional CHL teacher training curriculum. It further contributes to existent understandings of the practices and roles of parents and teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the out-of-school (public) contexts and offers insights into home-school-community partnerships and professional CHL teacher training to support culturally and linguistically diverse children's literacy acquisition.

Keywords

Systematic literature review, Chinese parents, Chinese heritage language (CHL) teachers, Chinese children, literacy learning, home, CHL classroom

Summary for Lay Audience

Chinese children's multilingual language acquisition is intertwined with influences from their parents and teachers. The complementary supports between home and school are important for these children's multilingual language and literacy learning opportunities. Some Chinese parents and CHL teachers need to improve their confidence and methods about Chinese children's literacy learning. My SLR focuses on Chinese parents and CHL teachers and intends to contribute to the existing literature by providing a summary of the findings on their practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning in the out-of-school (public) contexts.

I have reviewed 41 selected studies of empirical qualitative research related to Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy acquisition. I screened and reviewed these studies based on explicit search approaches and thematic analyses. I synthesized the extracted information and reported the findings in detail to reproduce the results. This study contributed to the current understanding of Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning. It also provided insights into the culturally and linguistically diverse children's literacy learning needs and interests in the 21st century. Based on my review, the literacy educators and researchers may build family-school-community partnership and develop professional CHL teacher training to support Chinese children's literacy learning in the out-of-school (public) contexts.

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Chapter 1

1 Introduction

Chinese is a wildly ubiquitous language with about 1.3 billion (Ethnologue, 2019) people world-wide speaking it and moving it across the globe. Chinese, for instance, is a frequently spoken mother tongue in Canada. Chinese languages are the mother tongues of 16.3% of the population in Canada, accounting for the third largest immigrant group in the country (Statistics Canada, 2015). These numbers suggest the importance of inquiries related to families, literacies, Chinese, and Chinese as a heritage language (CHL) in Canada.

My study focuses on Chinese parents' and Chinese heritage language teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's (English and CHL) literacy learning in families and in CHL schools. A variety of definitions of heritage languages exists due to scholars' different interpretations of the term (e.g., Cummins & Danesi, 1990; Park, 2013) and in particular the question of whether indigenous languages constitute heritage languages (Park, 2013). While the question of indigenous languages is of utmost importance, especially in a settler-colonial context like Canada, it is outside the scope of this study on Chinese. Hence, suffice for now that I understand Chinese to be a heritage language given that it falls within part of Seals and Shah's (2017) inclusion criteria that "heritage languages include indigenous immigrant/diaspora community languages" (p. 3). In my research, I reviewed studies where Chinese is regarded as a heritage language. Chinese parents and their Chinese children in my research are those

with Chinese-related linguistic and cultural backgrounds, can speak Chinese, and live in multilingual environments. My research reviews studies on parents and children who are from immigrant Chinese families. Family is "a key prerequisite for maintaining and preserving languages" (Schwartz & Verschik, 2013, p. 1), and parents play a critical role in shaping their children's linguistic and social developmental trajectories (Spolsky, 2012). In addition, my reviewed studies are about the teachers who teach Chinese languages (such as Mandarin and/or Cantonese) in the CHL schools. CHL teachers play an important role in Chinese children's CHL learning (e.g., Du, 2017). Their teaching methods can positively influence Chinese children's CHL learning methods and children's motivations to maintain CHL.

Chinese languages have many regional varieties or dialects (Ho, 2015). The official Chinese language is Mandarin, and other main dialect groups have been identified, such as Wu, Northern and Southern Min, Gan, Hakka, Xiang, and Cantonese. Different Chinese dialects have different pronunciation, for example, a Chinese speaker may read texts according to the rules of pronunciation of his own Chinese dialects (Chinese languages, 2019).

Besides Sénéchal and Young's (2008) review on intervention studies related to parent-child reading activities and children's reading acquisition, there are few systematic literature reviews about Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in children's literacy learning. Hence, I set out to conduct a systematic literature review (SLR) of the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in children's CHL/English literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms.

1.1 Research Problem

Research into children's literacy learning abounds in the scholarly and professional literatures. In terms of scholarship pertinent to literacy learning and my study, specifically, researchers have investigated immigrant children's English/heritage language learning at home and at public schools (e.g., Anderson, & Chen, 2013; Campbell, 2000; Chen et al., 2012; Du, 2015; Hao et al., 2013; Menard-Warwick, 2009; Sadowski, 2004; Taylor, 1983; Taylor & Dorsey-Gaines, 1988; Weinberger, 1996b). Others have explored multilingual children's Chinese learning at home and at heritage language schools (e.g., Brinton et al., 2008; Comanaru & Noels, 2009; Duff & Li, 2009; Han, & Chen, 2010; Kondo-Brown & Brown, 2007; Norton, 2013; Xiao, 2006; Zhang, 2009). These studies have documented a range of children's literacy practices generating knowledge to promote children's literacy learning with their parents and teachers in the home and school contexts.

According to the literature home is an important context for literacy learning. Rowsell (2006a), for example, has suggested that home literacy experiences relate to creating communication opportunities that support classroom learning. Home literacy activities, like reading picture books and writing home assignments, help children understand what they have learned and will learn in school.

Additionally, studies like Du (2015) have found that parents are important in their children' literacy learning at home. Parents' own experiences and ideas toward literacy can help parents support their children's literacy learning at home (Weinberger,

1996b). Some family literacy programs also help parents support their children's literacy learning in the home contexts (e.g., Brooks, 1996; Nutbrown et al., 2005; Swain et al., 2014). According to these studies, educators need to take families' different needs, interests, and backgrounds into consideration (e.g., Nutbrown et al., 2017) so that more parents may confidently support their children's literacy development.

Moreover, many home literacy scholars have studied the interrelationship of language, culture, and literacy acquisition through a sociocultural perspective (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978; Wood et al., 1976). For example, some sociocultural elements, such as cultural and linguistic backgrounds, may influence learners' literacy acquisition (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Wink & Putney, 2002). Scholars (e.g., Leichter, 1984; Li, 2006; Shi, 2013) also indicated that family members' cultural backgrounds, views about the value of English/heritage languages, or language proficiencies in the majority language can influence their children's literacy learning.

According to the literature on children's CHL learning, the heritage language school is an important place for children to learn Chinese as a heritage language (e.g., Du, 2017; Pu, 2008). Chinese heritage language (CHL) schools help Chinese children in immigrant families maintain their CHL and support children's Chinese-English biliteracy development (Pu, 2008). Heritage schools more generally, have been found to help children develop their and cultural knowledge with their heritage language (Compton, 2001). In some instances, HL schools may be referred to as community schools, and some schools are open on weekends (Pu, 2012). Their curricula relate to

heritage language skills and cultures. For example, Pu indicated that educators in some CHL schools introduce values and norms that reflect heritage language cultures through textbooks and classroom activities. The CHL learners can learn traditional Chinese cultures and values such as honesty, perseverance, filial piety, diligence, dedication, concentration, benevolence, and thrift in the CHL textbooks (e.g., Curdt-Christiansen, 2008). Additionally, for example, in the United States, teachers in both CHL schools and public schools all teach general literacy knowledge and skills, such as words, parts of speech, and reading and writing skills (Pu, 2008). These teaching and learning practices help Chinese children learn both the CHL and dominant language (e.g., Du, 2017; Pu, 2008).

Based on previous literature on children's literacy learning in schools, teachers use different teaching methods to teach students literacy knowledge. For example, some children are taught to read and write through rote learning (Du, 2017). In Du's study, some teachers invited students to explore their writing using different topics in order to help them improve their writing skills. Some heritage language teachers also provided multiple modes for children to learn literacy skills (e.g., Du, 2017). In general, available modes include "reading, viewing, understanding, responding to, producing, and interacting with written text combined with other modes, particularly with screen-based texts" (Walsh, 2011, p. 12). These multimodal practices "may include listening, talking, enacting, and investigating as well as writing, designing, and producing such texts" (p. 12). These multimodal literacy practices have become visible in some heritage language classroom teaching practices (e.g., Wei, 2014; Wu,

2013). For example, the literature documents in some heritage language schools, teachers supporting children's literacy learning using pictures and games (e.g., Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Wei, 2014).

In terms of interactional styles, the literature shows that some CHL teachers implement teacher-centered and/or teacher-student interactions in their language teaching. For example, Du's (2017) study of CHL teachers documented teacher-centered methods as well as teachers using class activities to increase students' class participation. By contrast, when some teachers implemented teacher-student interactions such as peer/group activities, students were more engaged in their CHL learning (Wu, 2011).

This introduction to the literature suggests that children's multilingual language acquisition is intertwined with influences from parents and teachers (e.g., Chen et al, 2012), and complementary supports between home and school are important for children's multilingual language and literacy learning opportunities (e.g., Gregory, 2008; Weinberger, 1996a). Therefore, my SLR was designed to synthesize the various literacy learning practices discussed in the literature. In this SLR, I summarized and identify the literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms.

The study attends to the literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms in the hopes of generating knowledge that might be of use to many different stakeholders, most notably parents themselves. My interest in supporting parents comes from

studies that indicate that parents need such support; for instance,"many of the parents lacked confidence" (Weinberger, 1996a, p. 6) in their children's literacy learning. Some parents "were unsure about what they should" (p. 3) do about their children's literacy learning at home. These uncertainties may "undermine parents' confidence" (p. 3); therefore, it is necessary to provide parents with literacy information to help them guide their children's literacy learning at home. Additionally, little attention has been paid to CHL teachers' teaching practices in children's literacy learning in culturally and linguistically contexts (Du, 2017). Given the pressing need to address culturally and linguistically diverse students' multilingual literacies education in the era of increasing global mobility, a comprehensive understanding of their parents' and heritage language teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning is warranted. This SLR provides a systematic summary of the literacy practices and roles for researchers, parents, and educators to support children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms.

In summary, this SLR could provide insights for educators who focus on children's CHL and English learning to understand and support culturally and linguistically children's multilingual language acquisition (Chinese/English) in the out-of-(public) school contexts.

1.2 Overview of the Review

This SLR intends to contribute to the existing literature by providing a summary of the findings on the literacy learning practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL

teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the home and in the CHL classrooms. The following research questions frame this SLR:

1) In the reviewed studies, what are the recorded literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home?

2) In the reviewed studies, what are the recorded literacy practices and roles of the Chinese heritage language teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the Chinese heritage language classrooms?

This thesis is organized into four chapters. In Chapter 2, I outline and describe the methodological framework, the data collection, and data analysis methods that I used to conduct the SLR. In Chapter 3, I report my research data with respect to the documented literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms. In this chapter, I provide the theoretical frameworks. This helps to provide a foundation for understanding the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers within the reviewed studies. I then report the findings based on the reviewed studies that are related to Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning in their families and the CHL classrooms respectively. In Chapter 4, I discuss my own study findings about practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers regarding Chinese children's literacy learning. Discussion in this chapter also includes implications for parents and the teachers regarding culturally and linguistically diverse children's literacy acquisition in the out-of-school (public)

contexts.

Chapter 2

2 Methods

In this chapter, I outline the data collection and data analysis methods. I use these methods to design an explicit, comprehensive, and reproducible systematic literature review. First, I describe how I conducted my research based on Okoli and Schabram's (2010) SLR approach (See §2.1). I then outline the searching strategies and screening criteria for selecting studies (See 2.1.1). Next, I describe how I extracted data to identify the literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the home and the CHL school contexts (See §2.1.2). I then explain how I synthesized and reported my data/findings (See § 2.1.3).

2.1 Systematic Literature Review

I used a systematic literature review (SLR) to conduct my research. Fink (2005) indicates that the research literature review is a systematic, explicit, and comprehensive method for identifying, evaluating, and synthesizing "the existing body of completed and recorded work produced by researchers, scholars, and practitioners" (p. 3). In my study, I adopted research steps based on Okoli and Schabram's (2010) SLR approach. I summarized the steps that I followed to conduct this SLR:

    1. Identify the purpose of the SLR

    2. Search for studies by describing trustworthy search details

    3. Screen the reviewed studies

    4. Extract relevant data from each selected article

5. Synthesize the extracted information by means of proper research methods, such as a qualitative research method

6. Report the findings in detail to reproduce the results

2.1.1 Search Strategies and Practical Screen Criteria

I conducted my search on Western Libraries Summon (a search engine in the Western University online library) to conduct my search. I adopted a set of screening criteria to make my search results more explicit and manageable. My specific criteria included the selection of the databases, Boolean phrases, document types, search terms, and qualitative empirical research. I describe these screening criteria in detail in the following content in this chapter.

2.1.1.1 Databases

I selected databases in the Western libraries: the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Education Database, Canadian Business & Current Affairs (CBCA) Education, and Academic Search Complete. Among these databases, ERIC, Education Database, and CBCA Education belong to the ProQuest platform which includes "rich aggregated collections of the world's most important scholarly journals and periodicals" (ProQuest, 2019, n.p.). I searched literature on this platform by using the three databases simultaneously. This helped me find and select articles more effectively. Additionally, these databases are educational databases. Thus, they helped me find the search results related to my research on Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' literacy practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning.

Table 2.1 Databases used in the study

		Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)
Databases	ProQuest Platform	Education Database
		Canadian Business & Current Affairs (CBCA) Education
	Academic Search Complete	

2.1.1.2 Boolean Phrase

I used the Boolean phrase function in my search process to help me screen articles. This is because "Boolean logic defines logical relationships between terms in a search" (EBSCO host, 2019, n.p.). "The Boolean search operators are AND, OR, and NOT", and I can use "these operators to create a very broad or very narrow search" (EBSCO host, 2019, n.p.). In order to specify the search results, I used 15 search terms (see Table 2.2 & Table 2.3) to search articles through the Boolean phrase function. In order to make my search results more manageable, I further selected a specific document type to specify the search results.

2.1.1.3 Document Type

The document type function allows researchers to select different types of documents, such as e-books, dissertations, journal articles, and book chapters. In my study, I selected "journal article" as the document type of my reviewed studies because "the most common primary sources are reports of empirical research published in academic journals" (Galvan, 2009, p. 1).

2.1.1.4 Search Terms

My search terms (see Table 2.2 & Table 2.3) are based on my research questions.
Search terms in Table 2.2 have helped search out studies related to Chinese parents'
literacy information regarding their Chinese children's literacy learning at home.
Search terms in Table 2.3 have helped search out articles related to CHL teachers'
literacy practices and roles in the CHL classrooms. Using the search terms and the
search results, I found articles related to Chinese children's literacy learning in
immigrant Chinese families with their Chinese parents and/or at CHL schools with
their CHL teachers. Thus, such search terms are consistent with my research questions
and have helped me select related journal articles from 1999-2019.

Table 2.2 Search Terms related to Chinese parents in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home

Search Terms	No. of Articles on the ProQuest Platform	No. of Articles in the Academic Search Complete	Duplicated Articles

"[1]Chinese parent*" AND "Chinese child*" AND "Chinese family" AND Chinese home literacy environment OR Chinese home literacy activities OR Chinese home literacy practices OR Chinese home-school*" OR Chinese family literacy OR Chinese home-based literacy OR Chinese household literacy	161	7	3

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[1] Quotation marks were used for some search terms to help the researcher find literature containing such terms and manage the number of search results.

Table 2.3 Search Terms related to CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning in the CHL classrooms

Search Terms	No. of Articles on the ProQuest Platform	No. of Articles in the Academic Search Complete	Duplicated Articles
Chinese heritage language school OR Chinese community school AND Chinese teach* AND young Chinese child* AND "Chinese parent*"	118	9	5

Some of the articles found through the above search terms focus on both the public school and the home. Some discuss both Chinese parents and parents from other ethnic groups. Some relate to parents from both immigrant families and non-immigrant families. I included such articles because some of their contents relate to my research questions.

Moreover, there are eight duplicate articles between the ProQuest platform and the Academic Search Complete. I removed all duplicated articles and the articles that lacked important information (e.g., unidentified author/ journal name). Therefore,

based on the above search strategies and criteria, 212 English journal articles remained.

2.1.1.5 Qualitative Empirical Research

I extracted qualitative empirical articles (Cohen et al., 2007; Goodwin, 2010) as my selected data sources. Empirical research obtains knowledge through planned observations or experiences, and it uses qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods (Goodwin, 2010). A qualitative study includes "making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories, and regularities" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 461). To ensure the scope of this systematic literature review is feasible for an MA thesis, I excluded articles that used quantitative methods or mixed methods. I included only qualitative studies for their potential to provide rich descriptions about Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' literacy practices and roles related to their Chinese children's literacy learning. Additionally, some articles' content was irrelevant to my research questions, so, I judged these articles as "irrelevant articles" as well. In sum, I excluded 171 articles (See Appendix B). I completed a preliminary reading of the abstracts of the papers to ensure that the content and focuses of the papers meet my criteria. Finally, in total, 41 selected journal articles remained (See Appendix A).

2.1.2 Data Extraction of the Thematic Analyses

In my study, I used deductive and inductive thematic analyses (Boyatzis, 1998; Murray, 2003) to analyze the collected data. 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). Thematic analysis is "a process of encoding qualitative information", and it requires "an explicit 'code' " (p. 4) to list the theme. In my study, I used deductive thematic analysis and inductive thematic analysis to explore the literacy practices and roles in the selected articles related to Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' roles and practices in Chinese children's literacy learning.

2.1.2.1 Data Extraction of the Deductive Thematic Analysis

In my deductive thematic analysis, the encoded themes were "generated deductively from theory and prior research" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4), as for example, the prior research regarding home literacy and the theory of multiliteracies pedagogy. The following deductive themes and sub-themes from theories and prior research guide my deductive analysis (See Table 2.4).

Table 2.4 Deductive themes related to practices and roles of parents and teachers in children's literacy learning

Deductive Themes Related to Parents' Practices and Roles in Their Children's Literacy Learning at Home
Home reading and writing
Culturally embedded conversations
Providing home literacy materials
Parents helping their children learn literacy with other family members
Parents creating literacy learning opportunities outside the home
Asking/getting advice from institutions or others about children's literacy learning
Parental expectations of their children's literacy achievement

(learn both Chinese and English well and maintaining CHL and/or culture)
Parents helping their children's literacy learning based on parents' own prior literacy experiences
Family capital
Deductive Themes Related to Teachers' Practices and Roles in Children's Literacy Learning in the Classrooms
Situated practice
Overt instruction
Critical framing
Transformed practice

In the deductive thematic analysis, I extracted data by reading and reviewing these sections of the selected articles: findings, discussions, implications, and conclusions. I recorded the key phrases and documented the article numbers. I first downloaded the selected articles. Then, I read the articles (the sections of findings, discussions, implications, and conclusions). Next, I highlighted/underlined information related to the deductive themes manually in colors. For example, I started by numbering each selected article so that each article has its own ID number. Then, I read the selected articles and highlighted information related to a certain deductive theme in color and documented selected articles' data relating to such a theme together. For instance, when I read an article and found information about a certain deductive theme, I would highlight such information in yellow color. Then, I listed this theme, and after this theme, I listed the relevant data from this article. These relevant data include this article's ID number, its author/s' name/s, the publication year, the

summary of the highlighted information, and the page number of the article where the information is located. Then, I used the same method to highlight and extract other articles' information that related to the same theme. Finally, I listed all the articles' data about such a theme together after this theme. I analyzed all these selected articles and deductive themes based on this method.

2.1.2.2 Data Extraction of the Inductive Thematic Analysis.

In the inductive thematic analysis, I identified the frequently reported patterns (Murray, 2003) in the selected articles that related to Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' literacy practices and roles without any predetermined idea that such themes would exist. Table 2.5 illustrates the coding process I employed to create the inductive themes.

Table 2.5 Coding process for the inductive analysis

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Initial read through the selected articles	Identified and labeled the segments of information to create themes	Reduced overlapping and redundant themes	Created the model to incorporate the most important themes

In the inductive analysis, I read the findings, discussions, implications, and conclusions sections of the selected articles to uncover the inductive themes. I coded themes based on "the words and syntax of the raw information" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 30). Based on my review, I did not find salient inductive themes, so I summarized my findings results (See Table 2.6). Table 2.6 shows my findings related to the literacy

practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms.

Table 2.6 Findings Summary of the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms

Findings Summary
For Chinese Parents
Connecting Children with a Kind of Literacy Learning Network
For Chinese Heritage Language Teachers
Chinese-English biliteracy mediators

2.1.3 Trustworthiness

I conducted my study based on trustworthiness criteria in qualitative research, including "transferability" and "dependability" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 300). These criteria reflect the validity and reliability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of a study.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that transferability means that the qualitative study methods and results are described in sufficient detail that readers can deduce what is pertinent to their own contexts to transfer. As stated, my research procedures were based on Okoli and Schabram's (2010) SLR approach. I reported all my study steps explicitly, such as my search strategies, screening criteria, data extraction, and data analysis. These comprehensive and systematic procedures explicitly described and ensured the transferability of my study. My SLR is transferable because it is systematic, explicit, comprehensive, and reproducible, and I explicitly described the search strategies, screen criteria, and the data extraction criteria that I implemented to

gather and record my data sources.

I ensured the dependability of my study by means of an audit trail. Based on Lincoln and Guba's (1985) advice concerning qualitative research, the audit trail is "the trail of materials assembled for the use of the auditor, metaphorically analogous to fiscal accounts" (p. 319). In my study, my reported data results are in the Appendices for audit trail. Such data can be checked and examined to ensure the dependability of my study.

2.1.4 Limitations to the SLR

In my study, due to the restrictions of my study time and data size, I only used 15 search terms to search English language journal articles in some educational databases. Some articles related to my research could have been found through other search terms, or document types Some articles in other databases or written in other languages would have impacted the conclusion of the study. Additionally, I was the only researcher in my study, so if I appraised the selected articles by myself, it would be difficult to avoid biases. However, I did my best to conduct my research honestly to show the trustworthiness and validity of my study.

In Chapter 2, I summarize my SLR steps and outline the search strategies and practical criteria. I also summarize my data extraction methods and the way I synthesized and reported my findings. My specific screen criteria, for example, included the selection of the databases, Boolean phrases, document types, search terms, qualitative empirical research, deductive and inductive thematic analyses. I finally explain how I ensured trustworthiness to my study.

Chapter 3

3 Findings Report

In Chapter 3, I first introduce the theoretical frameworks that have guided my thematic data analysis, such as how I conceptualized literacy and literacy pedagogy in this project including through a pedagogy of multiliteracies. This introduction provides a theoretical foundation for my data analysis regarding Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' literacy practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning. Second, I report my findings on the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in the reviewed studies regarding Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms, respectively.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

In this section, I introduce the theories that have guided my thematic data analysis. I first introduce how literacy is conceptualized in this project. Next, I introduce a pedagogy of multiliteracies.

3.1.1 Conceptualization of Literacy

Traditionally, literacy refers to the ability to read and write (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2009; Harendita, 2016); however, the traditional conceptualization of literacy evolved into multiliteracies (Edward, 2009b). The New London Group (1996) states that multiliteracies attends to literacy practices in different cultures and languages (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2009), multimodal literacies (e.g., Kress, 2000), and new media literacies (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2009; Luke, 2000). It considers cultural and linguistic diversity and multimodal channels of communication created by new

technologies (Edward, 2009b). For example, in a multilingual society, speakers do not always share a common language (e.g., Edwards, 2009a; Kettner, 2007; Gort, 2009). They become bilingual/multilingual for different reasons (Baker, 2006; May, 2006; Mills, 2011; Stooke, 2009). For example, some people learn different languages because they need to live or work in different countries and communicate with individuals from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Multiliteracies takes a social practice perspective of literacy, finding that literacy relates to language knowledge and texts that are "parts of lived, talked, enacted, value-and-belief-laden practices carried out in specific places and at specific times" (Gee et al., 1996, p. 3). Researchers in this vein (e.g., Barton et al., 2000; Barton & Hamilton, 1998) express literacy as a socially situated practice and both social activities and associated ideologies underpin those practices (e.g., De La Piedra, 2009) .

Going along with the above, according to Street (1984), there are two models of literacy: the autonomous model of literacy and the ideological model of literacy. The autonomous model views literacy as a set of decontextualized technical skills which can be passed from teachers to learners (Street, 1984). There are some terms used in the literature that reflect the autonomous model of literacy. These terms include the "old literacy basics" (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2012), "literacy in the singular" (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 1), traditional literacy (e.g., New London Group, 1996; Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012), "basic literacy" (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2015, p. 46), and "mere literacy" (e.g., New London Group, 1996, p. 64). For example, according to Kalantzis and Cope's (2012) study of old literacy basics,

"students acquire basic levels of competencies in reading and writing" (p. 5). Additionally, through the employment of an autonomous model of literacy, learners do what teachers ask them to do. For example, these teachers are "text-book teachers" (Cuban, 2003), and they "teach for the test" (Cuban, 2003). That is to say, they use textbooks to guide curricular and instructional decision making, and there is only one correct answer, right or wrong (e.g., Cuban, 2003; Cope & Kalantzis, 2009b; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, 2015; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Richards, 2009). Street (1984) points out that based on the autonomous model of literacy, literacy is "narrow" (p. 1), "homogenised" (p. 2), "hegemonised" (p. 2), and "constructed for a political purpose" (p. 19). That is to say, the autonomous model of literacy privileges a certain population (e.g., Street, 1984, 2004), and the teachers' thoughts and teaching practices are the only correct way for literacy learning to occur (e.g., Cummins, 2001; Street, 1984). Some scholars (e.g., Banathy, 1994; Reigeluth, 1994; Relan & Gillani, 1997) also point out that the autonomous model of literacy concerns teacher-centered curriculum (Cuban, 2003), "didactic teaching" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015, p. 22), and "direct instruction" (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012, p. 92). Additionally, when the autonomous model of literacy exists in schooling systems, the teachers are authoritative in the teaching process (e.g., Banathy, 1994). For example, in some school teaching practices that are based on the autonomous model of literacy, teachers attempt to control learners' learning practices, such as when, where, what, and how they learn literacy. Some scholars (e.g., Relan & Gillani, 1997; Stones, 1981) further argue that these teaching approaches based on the autonomous model of literacy may

not meet all learners' needs or work for all learners. In a word, these teaching approaches based on the autonomous model of literacy may not help to "broaden the understanding of literacy and literacy teaching and learning" (New London Group, 1996, p. 61).

By contrast, the ideological model of literacy views literacy as a contextualized set of practices that are culturally embedded (Street, 1984). Additionally, according to the New Literacy Studies researchers, literacy is socially situated practices (e.g., Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Barton, Hamilton & Ivanič, 2000; Heath, 1983; Street, 1984). In the ideological model of literacy, literacy learning practices are based on "the nature of the social formation" (Street, 1984, p. 2). In the ideological model of literacy, literacy is not viewed as a set of decontextualized skills but as multiple practices that are constructed and negotiated within given contexts and through a variety of semiotic resources that include modes beyond the linguistic (Kress, 2003). Scholars in this vein (e.g., Banathy, 1994; Street, 1984) argue that the ideological model of literacy encourages teachers to have sensitivity to learners' needs (e.g., Banathy, 1994; Street, 1984) and promote equality for all literacy learners (Street, 1984). Additionally, through the ideological model of literacy, teachers can incorporate a variety of teaching methods that reach into different areas of learners' lives (i.e., distinct learning needs, interests, aspirations, and cultural backgrounds) (e.g., Cuban, 2003; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Richards, 2009; Street, 1984, 2004). In the ideological model of literacy, learners may feel valued and become active participants in a diverse society (e.g., Lea & Stierer, 2000; Street, 1984, 2004). In my study, I

conceive literacy as a series of practices that are embedded in social institutions, communities, or sociocultural events, such as literacy learning practices in the home or school contexts.

I explore the reported children's literacy learning practices with their parents that are socially and culturally embedded (e.g., Heath, 1983; Street, 1984). Besides, I also focus on how these parents' practices with their children's literacy learning reflect the assets of parents' social and cultural backgrounds and their own prior literacy learning experiences. In sum, the following features that I summarize have informed my thematic analysis of parents' practices and roles regarding their children's literacy learning at home, including

- Home reading and writing (e.g., Rowsell, 2006a)

- Culturally embedded conversations with their children (e.g., Ren & Hu, 2013)

- Providing home literacy materials (e.g., Du, 2015; Ren & Hu, 2013)

- Parents helping their children learn literacy with other family members (e.g., Weinberger, 1996a)

- Parents creating literacy learning opportunities outside the home (e.g., Weinberger, 1996a)

- Asking/getting advice from institutions or others about children's literacy learning (e.g., Weinberger, 1996b)

- Parental expectations of their children's literacy achievement (e.g., Du, 2015; Weinberger, 1996b)

- Parents helping their children's literacy learning based on parents' own prior

literacy experiences (e.g., Weinberger, 1996b)

- Family capital (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Leichter, 1984; Shi, 2013)

Relative to literacy learning at home and the autonomous model of literacy, the literature documents some parents as helping their children learn literacy skills at home, such as listening, speaking, reading, and/or writing at home in ways that are technical and decontextualized (e.g., Brooks, 1996; Rowsell, 2006a). Alternatively, the literature also documents some parents' literacy practices with their children's literacy learning are constructed and negotiated within given contexts, and through a variety of semiotic resources that include different modes (Kress, 2003). They can participate in their children's literacy practices (e.g., Marsh et al., 2017) and help develop their children's literacy knowledge through socially situated and culturally embedded playing activities and/or casual conversations (e.g., Ren & Hu, 2013). Parents have been seen incorporating a variety of literacy learning practices that reach into different areas of their children's lives, such as their distinct learning needs, interests, or cultural backgrounds (e.g., Cuban, 2003; Relan & Gillani, 1997; Richards, 2009; Street, 1984, 2004). The literature reports that through considering their children's learning interests and culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, some parents provide literacy resources in different languages for their children to acquire literacy knowledge (e.g., Ren & Hu, 2013). Additionally, concurrent with the ideological model of literacy, the literature finds home literacy learning practices that are culturally embedded (Street, 1984). Some researchers (e.g., Weinberger, 1996b) pointed out that parents teach their children literacy knowledge based on their own

cultural backgrounds and educational experiences. Their attitudes towards dominant and home languages and their own literacy experiences influence their children's literacy development (e.g., Lao, 2004; Shi, 2013). Researchers also (e.g., Tsai et al., 2012) report that parents who think their heritage languages (HLs) and cultures are important to their children's lives prefer to make more efforts to support their children's HLs learning. Additionally, "family capital" (Ren & Hu, 2011, p. 100) includes financial capital (e.g., family income), human capital (e.g., family members' educational levels), and social capital (e.g., the social relationships between a particular family and other people) (e.g., Coleman, 1988; Ren & Hu, 2011). These socially situated and culturally embedded factors can influence parents' practices and roles in their children's literacy development (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Leichter, 1984). In summary, my data analysis was informed by the autonomous and ideological models of literacy, which helped me conduct my thematic data analysis regarding Chinese parents' practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home.

3.1.2 Pedagogy of Multiliteracies

I analyzed CHL teachers' practices and roles recorded in the reviewed articles based on Kalantzis and Cope's (2012, 2015) and Cope and Kalantzis's (2009) research that updates the four multiliteracies pedagogical components. These components, from the inception of a pedagogy of multiliteracies have, included situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice (New London Group, 1996). Kalantzis and Cope (e.g., 2012, 2015) refined the four components of a pedagogy of

multiliteracies to a new model of learning of the knowledge processes, including experiencing, conceptualising, analysing, and applying. Next, I describe each component in turn.

3.1.2.1 Situated Practice

According to a pedagogy of multiliteracies, situated practice is "immersion in experience and utilization of available designs" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). For example, learners can learn actively in real-life situations or "simulations of relationships to be found in workplaces and public spaces" (p. 88). Accordingly, teachers encourage learners to learn actively and collaboratively through rich clues in real-life or simulated situations (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). Based on situated practice, teachers connect the school learning with children's out-of-school experiences (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). Teachers provide learning opportunities for students to make sense of meaning in unfamiliar environments with the aid of rich literacy resources. Teachers, for example, implement classroom collaborative activities, multimodal projects or help students explore the real world on field trips (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015) for students to experience the known and the new, and search and learn actively. For example, with teachers' help, children can be encouraged to make meaning through a variety of socially shaped and culturally based modes (e.g., Cagliari et al., 2016; Gillen & Hall, 2003; Kress, 2009). Under teachers' instructions, students shift their meaning-making modes from one to the other depending on their needs and interests (Pahl, 1999), such as multimedia stories and visual games (e.g., Stooke, 2009). These multimodal literacy practices help students think, communicate,

and comprehend texts in multiple ways (e.g., Binder & Kotsopoulos, 2011; Mackey, 2006). The notion of situated practice helped me analyze situated practice within CHL classes.

3.1.2.2 Overt Instruction

According to a pedagogy of multiliteracies, overt instruction relates to "systematic, analytic, and conscious understanding" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). Overt instruction practice is to make implicit patterns of meaning explicit (Zhang et al., 2019). Teachers use a variety of methods to make students conceptualize knowledge (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012) and achieve "systematic, analytic, and conscious understanding" (Zhang et al., 2019, p. 35). For example, in the literacy learning process, teachers help students to group, classify, and define academic terms (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). Teachers may also help students connect concepts and develop theories (e.g., Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). Teachers encourage students to learn literacy knowledge by means of talking about linguistic knowledge, pictures, and texts and/or organizing meaning-making interactions. Teachers ask students questions and organize discussions and/or help students expand on what they have learned. The notion of overt instruction helped me analyze overt instruction in Chinese children's literacy learning in the CHL classrooms.

3.1.2.3 Critical Framing

Under the theory of a pedagogy of multiliteracies, critical framing helps learners "interpret the social and cultural context of particular designs of meaning" functionally and critically (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). Teachers help students

think about knowledge and have a deeper understanding of the facts. For example, teachers encourage students to question what they have learned and obtain an in-depth understanding of facts. In the knowledge teaching and learning process, teachers help students analyze what they have learned and facilitate students in examining "cause and effect, structure and function, elements and their relationships" (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015, p. 20). Teachers provide learning opportunities for students to make connections to the functions of texts and/or images. Teachers encourage students to think critically of the texts and the authors' perspectives, interests, and/or motives (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015). The notion of critical framing helped me analyze elements of critical framing in CHL classrooms.

3.1.2.4 Transformed Practice

According to a pedagogy of multiliteracies, transformed practice refers to learners putting their new knowledge "to work in other contexts or cultural sites" (New London Group,1996, p. 88). Learners transform the theories into practices and transfer what they have learned to the real world. Accordingly, teachers help students put their new knowledge "to work in other contexts or cultural sites" (p. 88). Teachers provide learning opportunities for students to transform knowledge into practices or apply what they have learned (knowledge and understanding) to their real-life situations (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). The notion of transformed practice helped me analyze elements of transformed practice in CHL classrooms.

Some scholars (e.g., Cope et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019) indicate that these four components of multiliteracies pedagogy are complementary to each other. This is

because these four components of multiliteracies practice do not form a linear or rigid learning sequence (Zhang et al., 2019). Additionally, these four components do not show "a clear-cut demarcation of different paradigms" (Zhang et al., 2019, p. 35). The New London Group (1996) suggested that the four pedagogical components help literacy learners achieve twin goals for literacy learning. First, they can create access to symbolic capital, namely, "in access to employment, political power, and cultural recognition" (New London Group, 1996, pp. 71-72). Second, they can cultivate the critical engagement of literacy learners and help literacy learners become transformed "designers of social futures" (p. 65).

In summary, a pedagogy of multiliteracies and its accompanying socio-cultural understanding of literacy guided my thematic data analysis of Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in CHL classrooms. In the following section, I report my findings for practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in the reviewed studies regarding Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms respectively.

3.2 Findings of Chinese Parents' and CHL Teachers' Practices and Roles in Chinese Children's Literacy Learning

In response to the research questions

1. In the reviewed studies, what are the recorded literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home?

2. In the reviewed studies, what are the recorded practices and roles of the Chinese heritage language teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the

Chinese heritage language classrooms?

I present my data that were generated from the 41 reviewed studies. First, I report my findings of the deductive themes regarding Chinese parents' practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home (See § 3.2.1 and Appendix C). Then, I present my findings of the deductive themes regarding CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning in the CHL classrooms (See § 3.2.2 and Appendix D).

3.2.1 Findings: Themes Related to Chinese Parents' Practices and Roles in Their Chinese Children's Literacy Learning at Home

In my selected journal articles, 30 studies relate to Chinese parents' literacy practices and roles in regard to their Chinese children's literacy learning at home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Francis et al., 2010; Hancock, 2006; Kenner, 2005; Kenner et al., 2004; Lie & Lick, 2007; Li, 2006; Li, 2001; Li, 2003; Li, 2004; Li, 2007; Li, 2005; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Ma, 2008; Markose & Hellstén, 2009; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Markose et al., 2011; Mau, 2009; Ma, 2009; Moore, 2010; Qian & Pan, 2006; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Sun, 2016; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Bano, 2010; Zhang & Guo, 2017). These studies help educators understand Chinese children's literacy learning in the home context.

3.2.1.1 Findings for Home Reading and/or Writing

There are 19 studies that reported that Chinese parents were engaged in home reading and/or writing practices with their children (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Hancock, 2006;

Kenner, 2005; Kenner et al., 2004; Lie & Lick, 2007; Li, 2006; Li, 2004; Li, 2007; Ma, 2008; Markose & Hellstén, 2009; Markose et al., 2011; Ma, 2009; Moore, 2010; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Bano, 2010).

Some Chinese parents read or shared books with their children to help their children acquire literacy knowledge at home. Specifically, Ma (2009) pointed out that, in the United States, a Chinese immigrant mother read books with her child in different ways. In Ma's study, the mother first read to her child, then this mother and her child "alternated to read different pages" (p. 57). Xu (1999) recorded that, in an immigrant Chinese family in Montreal, Canada, the home reading practice was "part of the fabric of daily life" (p. 544), and a Chinese parent shared books and read stories with her children since the children were three-months old.

Some Chinese parents helped with their Chinese children's homework and guided their children's school-related reading and/or writing practices. Xu (1999), for example, recorded that, in the United States, some Chinese parents supervised their children's homework. Li's (2004) study indicated that, in an immigrant Chinese family in Canada, a boy's parents paid much attention to his literacy learning. His mother coached his reading assignments for storybooks, and this Chinese mother helped her son "prepare for his spelling quizzes" (p. 49). In addition, Kenner's (2005) study reported that, in the south of London in England, a Chinese mother organized literacy-learning events at home. This mother instructed her two children's Saturday school homework. This mother taught them Chinese characters. When Chinese

children were writing Chinese characters, their mother kept "a close eye on accuracy" (p. 284). This mother also pointed out that in Chinese writing exercises, "a small error in stroke pattern" (p. 284) can make a Chinese character look like another character. This will completely change the meaning of the character.

Some Chinese parents used both Mandarin and English to teach their children's reading and writing like a home tutor. Hancock's (2006) study argued that, in some immigrant Chinese households in Britain, parents taught their children to write Chinese characters by means of (Chinese and English) oral explanations. For example, when a Chinese mother taught her daughter the Chinese character 'Snow 雪' at home, she first "broke down this character into its component parts 'like a jigsaw'" (p. 365). The mother explained the structure of this Chinese character through defining the semantic relationship between each component part. She identified the character's radical, which is one of the component parts of a Chinese character. The radical can help children understand "a clue to meaning or pronunciation" of a Chinese character (p. 365). The mother taught her child that the radical of this character (Snow 雪) is its top part (rain 雨) which relates to the meaning of this character (Snow 雪). This mother further explained that, in this Chinese character, " 'snow 雪' is described as 'rain 雨 picked up by the hand' " (p. 365). She also taught her child some rain-related compound words, such as 'raincoat 雨衣' and 'umbrella 雨伞', and these compound words all share the character 'rain 雨'. This Chinese mother used such a method to teach her children Chinese characters' reading and writing. Additionally, in Markose et al.'s (2011) study, in Canada, one Chinese mother taught her children to read and write

at home by emphasizing "graph-phonic cues" (p. 258), "syntax" (p. 258), and "accurate decoding" (p. 258). This mother helped her children understand that people should learn literacy knowledge through personal endeavor and perseverance. For example, in Markose et al's study, this mother asked her children to do many reading exercises and required her children to read their letters carefully. She taught her children to read, write, and pronounce each word "many times" (p. 258) and emphasized accurate spelling and decoding. Her children quickly learned and acquired some simple vocabulary "which enabled them to read well" (p. 258). In addition, Moore (2010) reported that some Chinese parents in Canada encouraged their children to write English diaries, copying words mostly from "monolingual or bilingual dictionaries available at home" (p. 330). Similarly, Zhang and Slaughter-Defoe (2009) indicated that, in the USA, some immigrant Chinese parents asked their Chinese children "to write a little journal in Chinese" to develop their children's Chinese writing skills. Chinese parents used these methods to help their Chinese children learn Chinese and English reading and writing skills.

In sum, the reviewed studies documented how some immigrant Chinese parents helped their Chinese children learn (Chinese/English) literacy through reading and writing at home. Some Chinese parents supervised their children's school-related assignments at home. Chinese parents used different methods to teach or guide their Chinese children's Chinese and/or English reading/writing.

3.2.1.2 Findings for Parents' Culturally Embedded Conversations with Their Children

Sixteen papers reported that Chinese parents created opportunities for their children's literacy acquisition by culturally embedded conversations with their children in the home context (Kenner et al., 2004; Lie & Lick, 2007; Li, 2006; Li, 2004; Li, 2007; Ma, 2008; Markose & Hellstén, 2009; Moore, 2010; Qian & Pan, 2006; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2017; Zhang & Bano, 2010). Parents conversed with their children through Chinese and/or English when they played together.

According to their children's cultural and linguistical backgrounds, some Chinese parents conversed with their children in different languages (Chinese/English) at home. These parents created opportunities for their children to acquire different kinds of literacy knowledge (Chinese/English). Wang et al. (2009), for example, recorded that, in New Zealand, some immigrant Chinese parents "communicate with their children in Chinese" (p. 41) to help their children keep their first language and develop their children's knowledge of Chinese heritage languages. In Li's (2007) study, a Chinese child in Canada conversed with her parents in Chinese to develop CHL skills. According to Moore's (2010) study, in an immigrant Chinese family in Vancouver, Canada, parents used Chinese to communicate with their children when they were engaged in dinner-table conversations, watching television, and other family routines. Moore argued that these parents sometimes conversed with some of their family members in Mandarin, while sometimes they conversed with other family members in Cantonese. These Chinese children "rarely specify whether the language spoken was Cantonese or Mandarin" (p. 328). Moore further indicated that Chinese parents talked

with their children in Chinese to help their children develop speaking skills. Cantonese and Mandarin brought together many immigrant Chinese families in Vancouver and helped them establish "a strong sense of group identity" (p. 328). By contrast, some Chinese parents conversed with their children in English at home and helped their children acquire knowledge of English. For instance, in Li's (2006) study, in Canada, a Chinese mother and father decided to communicate with their child "in English at home" (p. 365) and hoped that their child could learn English well. Additionally, some Chinese parents conversed with their children when they played together at home. For example, Zhang and Bano's (2010) study indicated that in Canada, some immigrant Chinese parents played "various kinds of games" (p. 92) with their children. Wan's (2000) study reported that in an immigrant family in the USA, a Chinese girl "loved to role-play *Jack and Jill* with her parents" (p. 400). Parents and their children played and conversed with each other. Studies show that these socially situated and culturally embedded practices helped Chinese children acquire Chinese/English literacy knowledge happily in the home contexts.

In sum, these reviewed studies reported how Chinese parents conversed with their children in Chinese/English, played with their children, and created culturally embedded learning opportunities for their children's literacy development.

3.2.1.3 Findings for Providing Home Literacy Materials

In the reviewed literature, 16 studies record that Chinese parents provided literacy materials to their Chinese children at home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Lie & Lick, 2007; Li, 2006; Li, 2004; Li, 2007; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Markose et al., 2011;

Ma, 2009; Moore, 2010; Qian, & Pan, 2006; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Bano, 2010).

According to the reviewed studies, in some immigrant Chinese families, Chinese parents provided a variety of literacy resources for their children to learn English/CHL. For example, Zhang and Slaughter-Defoe (2009) reported that, in an immigrant family in a Chinese community in Philadelphia, USA, a Chinese mother brought storybooks from China for her child to read in Chinese. Zhang and Slaughter-Defoe also indicated that study parents brought Chinese textbooks or other teaching materials from China for use with their children. Similarly, Li's (2006) study recorded that, in Canada, study parents provided reading materials to their children to acquire Chinese reading skills. One child enjoyed "reading Chinese story books that her parents brought for her from China and was very proud of her Chinese reading ability" (p. 369). Additionally, in Li's study, participating parents provided storybooks to their child. These books were "borrowed for him from the public library and bought for him from bookstores" (p. 372).

Similarly, some immigrant Chinese parents helped create a rich literacy home environment in other ways. For instance, Wan's (2000) study reported that, in an immigrant family in the USA, there were several Chinese calligraphy decorations, such as ink paintings, displayed in a home. These decorative pictures included children's poems and "Chinese character for *Luck* written 100 different ways" (p. 400). The parents provided many reading materials at home, such as English or Chinese

newspapers and magazines. According to Wan's study, on the child-sized desk, there were "paper, a magna doodle board, crayons, pencils, stickers, and markers" (p. 400). Chinese parents provided these materials for their child to write and play with. In the child's bedroom, there were "about 150 children's books" (p. 400). Some of the books were in Chinese and others were in English. The child could choose a book among them and read independently. Additionally, Curdt-Christiansen's (2013) study indicated that, in an immigrant Chinese family in Montreal, Canada, Chinese parents provided many books for their children to read. These books include "*Journey to the West*, *Animal Encyclopedia*, *Little Friend, Children's Magazine, Children's 300 Poems, Fun Riddles,* and classical Western fairy tales translated into Chinese" (p. 355). These parents also provided other books to their children, such as "the works of the Brothers Grimm, fairy tales from Hans Christian Andersen, storybooks by Robert Munch, and Tintin's adventure comics in both English and French" (p. 355). In addition to the paper-based books, some parents provided digital literacy materials for their children. They provided "many children's films and cartoons on DVD" (p. 356) as well as "audio books" (p. 356) in both Chinese and English. These parents helped their children learn literacy through a variety of literacy resources. Similarly, Lie and Lick (2007) reported that, some immigrant Chinese parents in Malaysia helped their children acquire reading skills by means of providing rich literacy materials. For example, in the study, parents provided their children with "a great variety of materials" (p. 78) such as books, magazines, and newspapers at home. These parents provided reading resources in both Chinese and English to their children to increase their

children's exposure to rich literacy materials for Chinese *and* English learning.

In sum, these reviewed studies reported how Chinese parents provided a variety of literacy materials for their children. The parents used these literacy materials to create a rich literacy environment for their children to acquire Chinese and English literacy practices.

3.2.1.4 Findings for Parents Helping Their Children Learn Literacy with Other Family Members

In the reviewed studies, fourteen journal articles report that Chinese parents helped their children engage in literacy-learning practices with other family members at home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Kenner, 2005; Kenner et al., 2004; Li, 2006; Li, 2003; Li, 2004; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Moore, 2010; Qian & Pan, 2006; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Guo, 2017; Zhang & Bano, 2010). These parents provided learning opportunities and helped their children acquire literacy knowledge with other family members, such as siblings.

According to the reviewed studies, encouraged by the Chinese parents, the children learned literacy with their siblings' help. For instance, Markose and Simpson (2016) reported that, in an immigrant Chinese family in Australia, a boy played the role as a tutor and taught his brother what he was going to learn at school. Kenner's (2005) study pointed out that, in the participating immigrant Chinese families in London, UK, the mothers "played a key part in their children's learning" (p. 285) at home, and siblings played "a complementary role to that of their mothers" (p. 285). In Kenner's study, Sonia (pseudonym) was a Chinese girl in an immigrant family.

Sonia's sister Susan (pseudonym) supported her mother's teaching and helped Sonia to "practice the characters" (p. 285) that Sonia would learn next week at her Chinese school. Susan also helped her sister "with informal writing activities in English" (p. 285). Kenner also illustrated that Min (pseudonym) was a Chinese boy, and his older siblings played the role of "his adviser for his Chinese school homework" (p. 285). When Min was writing his homework, his sister watched his Chinese character writing process and pointed out "details that he needed to change" (p. 285). As "Min's mother spoke little English" (p. 285), Min's brother helped his mother support Min's English learning at home. Kenner pointed out that Min's brother read books to Min at home, for example, he read the whole story and then asked Min to read it himself. If Min did not know a word, his brother would help Min understand the meaning of the word. Additionally, Li (2005) indicated that, in an immigrant Chinese family in Canada, a Chinese boy's mother lacked confidence to use English to support him with his homework; however, this mother asked her eldest daughter in high school to supervise her son's homework. In Li's study, sometimes, the mother did not know whether her son read books correctly or not, so she asked her daughter to "read with him" (p. 56). This mother required her daughter to supervise her son to finish his homework. This mother also asked her daughter not to correct the errors for her son because this would help his teacher in school know what literacy knowledge he should improve. Similarly, some Chinese parents demonstrated their positive attitude towards collaborative literacy learning between their Chinese children and the children's siblings. For example, According to Wang et al.'s (2009) study, Chinese parents

indicated that their children always followed what their elder sisters did. In Wang et al.'s study, the Chinese parents pointed out that their children and their siblings "learn from each other, and they care about each other" (p. 42). The children learn from their siblings and their siblings are the role model of them.

In sum, these reviewed studies reported how Chinese parents encouraged their children to participate in literacy learning activities with other family members. These practices created English and Chinese literacy learning opportunities for children in the home.

3.2.1.5 Findings for Parents Creating Literacy Learning Opportunities outside the Home

Twenty one studies report that Chinese parents created opportunities for their children to learn literacy outside the home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Francis et al., 2010; Hancock, 2006; Kenner, 2005; Kenner et al., 2004; Lie & Lick, 2007; Li, 2006; Li, 2001; Li, 2003; Li, 2004; Li, 2007; Markose & Hellstén, 2009; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Ma, 2009; Moore, 2010; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2017; Zhang & Bano, 2010). According to these studies, Chinese parents sent their children to extra-curricular classes, supported their children in visiting libraries, or created literacy-learning environments for their children outside the home.

According to the reviewed studies, many Chinese parents helped their children learn literacy outside the home. For example, Li's (2006) study reported that some Chinese parents in Canada sent their children to a variety of after-school classes to

develop their children's literacy abilities. Li indicated that, in one immigrant Chinese family in Canada, the child was very busy even after school. This is because his parents enrolled him in many different extra-curricular classes. Every Saturday, this child needed to learn "Chinese lessons for two hours" (p. 364). In addition, in Li's study, this child participated in soccer games and activities once a week on Saturday, attended piano lessons once a week on Sunday and practiced almost every day. Li indicated that this child joined kickboxing lessons to learn self-defense and self-discipline once a week on Tuesday and took part in swimming lessons and math lessons several times a week. Additionally, in the reviewed studies, some immigrant Chinese parents sent their children to heritage language school to learn Chinese. For example, Zhang and Guo (2017) recorded that some immigrant Chinese parents in Canada sent their Chinese children to the CHL schools to acquire Chinese literacy. Zhang and Guo's study included an immigrant Chinese mother raising her daughter in Canada. Zhang and Guo pointed out that this child's home languages included Mandarin, English, and Cantonese. According to the study, the child used simplified Chinese characters when she wrote Chinese sentences. However, the mother believed that her daughter should learn traditional Chinese scripts and oral Chinese skills. Therefore, she sent her daughter to a CHL school. The mother created an outside of home learning opportunity for her Chinese child to study Cantonese and traditional Chinese scripts. Similarly, Li (2006) claimed that, in Canada, with his Chinese parents' guidance, a child attended "a weekend Chinese school" (p. 365) to learn CHL skills as well as completing a lot of Chinese reading and writing homework. Some Chinese

parents created literacy-learning opportunities for their children in the nearby neighborhoods. For example, Moore (2010) illustrated that some Chinese parents lived in Canada and kept in touch with their relatives who were usually in a close location, such as in the same geographic location. These Chinese parents went to their relatives' homes with their children. Their children would "often meet their cousins" (p. 327), and they could talk and play together. Additionally, in Moore's study, some children attended a church in their neighborhoods on Sundays with their family members. These children could "pray and read in Chinese and speak in Chinese and English" (p. 327) with other children together to develop their communication skills. Additionally, some Chinese parents created learning opportunities in public libraries to help their children acquire reading skills. For instance, Wang et al. (2009) reported that participating immigrant Chinese parents in New Zealand believed that book reading was important to their children's literacy development. In Wang et al's study, these Chinese parents guided their children to visit libraries and helped their children choose books. These learning opportunities outside of home expand "the range of books the children were exposed to" (p. 41) and help Chinese parents cultivate their children's reading interests and reading skills in English and Chinese.

In sum, the reviewed studies reported that, in the immigrant Chinese families, parents created opportunities for their children to learn English and Chinese outside the home. These learning opportunities created opportunities for their children's Chinese and English literacy acquisition.

3.2.1.6 Findings for Parents Asking/Getting Advice from Institutions

or Others about Their Children's Literacy Learning

According to the reviewed literature, four papers indicate that Chinese parents asked or expressed their desire for advice from other people or institutions about their children's literacy learning (Kenner, 2005; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Markose et al., 2011; Zhang & Bano, 2010).

The studies report the phenomenon of immigrant parents asked friends, relatives, teachers or educational institutions to provide them with some suggestions for their children's literacy studies. For example, Kenner (2005) reported that, in the UK, some parents kept in touch with their friends and relatives and asked them "advice on how to help their children at school" (p. 287). Some parents consulted with their friends and relatives in Chinese languages and "call[ed] on the support of relatives and friends" (p. 287) to help their children learn Chinese and English literacy. Additionally, Markose et al.'s (2011) study reported that, in Australia, in order to help her children learn English literacy, a mother asked for suggestions from the children's teachers and her friends. Markose et al. illustrated that the mother asked her children's teacher to provide her with the "textbook" (p. 258) to help her guide her children's Chinese reading at home. The teacher suggested that her children focus on "the process of learning" (p. 258) and make joint efforts "at meaning-making from texts" (p. 258). In order to enhance her daughter's reading skills, this mother "consulted her Chinese friend" (p. 259) and her friends went to the bookstore with her together to buy books for their children. Additionally, in Australia, Markose and Simpson (2016) illustrated how a parent's friends advised her to invite a tutor to teach her child Chinese. The

tutor also provided some school learning suggestions to this mother. This mother was "recommended by the owners of a bookshop in Chinatown (Sydney)" (p. 670) to assess the children's current study levels, then provide the books that their children needed. These suggestions from different people guided the parents' provision of literacy learning opportunities for their children in the home contexts. Additionally, some immigrant Chinese parents hope to get advice from education institutions to guide their children's literacy learning. For example, according to Zhang and Bano's (2010) study, in Canada, some immigrant parents expressed that they wanted to get more advice and communication opportunities from Canadian schools. In this study, these Chinese parents hope to talk to schools and participate in school practices. Zhang and Bano further indicated that some immigrant parents wanted to learn how to "better engage their children in their L1 and L2 literacy learning" (p. 94). Some immigrant parents wanted to get advice about the "basic communicative skills and culturally appropriate ways to interact with Canadian teachers" (p. 94). Similarly, Markose et al. (2011) reported that in an immigrant family in Australia, the parents wanted to get English learning advice from the public school. This is because these Chinese parents wanted to help their Chinese children's literacy learning at home according to such advice from schools.

In sum, the reviewed studies reported how immigrant Chinese parents sought the advice of different individuals (such as family members, friends, and teachers) for their children's literacy learning at home. Some parents also anticipated more suggestions and communication opportunities from teachers or educational institutions

to help their Chinese children's literacy learning.

3.2.1.7 Findings for Parental Expectations of Their Children's Literacy Achievement

In the reviewed studies, 26 studies recorded Chinese parents' expectations of their Chinese children's literacy achievement (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Francis et al., 2010; Hancock, 2006; Kenner, 2005; Kenner et al., 2004; Lie & Lick, 2007; Li, 2006; Li, 2003; Li, 2004; Li, 2007; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Markose & Hellstén, 2009; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Markose et al., 2011; Mau et al., 2009; Ma, 2009; Moore, 2010; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Sun, 2016; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2017; Zhang & Bano, 2010). According to Chinese parents' practices and attitudes recorded in these reviewed studies, Chinese parents expected their Chinese children to learn both Chinese and English well and/or maintain links to the Chinese heritage languages and Chinese culture.

Some immigrant Chinese parents expected their Chinese children to communicate fluently in both Chinese and English and maintain ties to Chinese culture. For instance, in Kenner's (2005) study, in the UK, some Chinese parents were keen for their children to become literate in Chinese and English. These Chinese parents used different methods to approach this expectation. One Chinese mother was able to speak and had been educated in Chinese, so she "was keen to pass this knowledge on to her children" (p. 285). This mother expected her children to learn both Chinese and English, therefore, she helped her children learn Chinese at home to supplement her

children's learning in the Saturday school. Similarly, in Kenner's study, another immigrant Chinese mother in the UK expected her children to maintain the CHL, thus supporting her children's CHL learning at Saturday school. This mother instructed her son's Chinese and English learning at home because she expected her son to become an independent learner in both Chinese and English. Hancock (2006) reported that, in the UK, many immigrant parents in the study "recognized the importance of developing their children's bilingual skill" (p. 369). Hancock pointed out that, in some Scottish Chinese families, parents believed that it was important to acquire literacy in Chinese and knowledge of traditional Chinese culture. These Chinese parents expressed that they expected to pass Chinese heritage on to the next generation. In sum, these parents held the attitude that parents need to teach their children Chinese language and culture, including helping their children to acquire oral fluency in Chinese.

In sum, these reviewed studies recorded how immigrant parents expected their children learn both English and Chinese well and maintain links to traditional Chinese culture. These parental expectations may help educators understand parents' literacy practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home.

3.2.1.8 Findings for Parents Helping Their Children Learn Literacy based on Parents' Own Prior Literacy Experiences

Eight papers reported that immigrant Chinese parents' own literacy experiences influenced their practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009; Hancock, 2006; Lie & Lick, 2007; Markose &

Hellstén, 2009; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Markose et al., 2011; Ma, 2009; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010). In these studies, Chinese parents' own school and/or family literacy experiences related to their roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning.

Immigrant Chinese parents' own educational experiences in China can influence their literacy practices at home. In a study in Canada, participating Chinese parents' literacy experiences embraced traditional Confucian values, such as "effort rather than ability is the key to academic success" (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009, p. 360). These Chinese parents indicated that they have been "taught by their own parents" (p. 360) to work diligently and acquire knowledge through education when they were very young in China. They also indicated that some traditional values of literacy learning "were never entirely forgotten or abandoned" (p. 360) in their literacy interactions with their own children. These Chinese parents have carried these traditional Chinese educational values with them "throughout their lives together with their immigrant experiences" (p. 360). In Curdt-Christiansen's study, it is upon these educational values and experiences, that these immigrant Chinese parents have based their beliefs and expectations for their children's literacy learning. Additionally, Markose and Hellstén (2009) reported that, in Australia, some immigrant Chinese parents' own literacy experiences with their own father or mother influence their literacy practices with their Chinese children. For example, in the study by, Ling (pseudonym) was an immigrant Chinese mother. Ling's parents emphasized that education is "very important" (p. 67), because it can provide more possibilities in life. This belief passed on by Ling's parents to Ling years ago is now passed on by Ling to her children.

Markose and Hellstén pointed out that this Chinese mother believes the value of persistence was passed on by her parents help her own children study well. This Chinese mother helped her children to work hard and "persist in study" (p. 69). For example, this mother sat with her children and worked with her children "each day" (p. 69). She provided "one-to-one tutoring and direct instruction" (p. 69) for her children's assignments set by school or herself. This Chinese mother also gave her Chinese children "feedback and explanations in Mandarin for problems encountered" (p. 69). Additionally, Markose et al (2011) indicated that, in Australia, a Chinese mother taught her child to read by using "the strategies she employed in learning to read Chinese" (p. 258). Hancock (2006) pointed out that, in the UK, some approaches adopted by Chinese parents were influenced by the process of reading and writing Chinese that "they had experienced within their own formal education" (p. 355). In Ma's (2009) study, for example, in the United States, some immigrant Chinese parents pointed out that they had relied on their prior educational experiences to guide their Chinese children's literacy learning and development. These studies indicated that prior literacy learning experiences of some Chinese parents influenced their family literacy practices with their own Chinese children in their immigrant families.

In sum, the reviewed studies reported, in participating immigrant Chinese families, how Chinese parents' own experiences helped them guide their Chinese children's literacy learning at home. These Chinese parents helped their Chinese children's literacy learning at home based on parents' own prior experiences.

3.2.1.9 Findings for Family Capital

In the reviewed literature, nine journal articles reported that family capital influenced Chinese parents' practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009; Hancock, 2006; Li, 2006; Li, 2001; Li, 2003; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Moore, 2010; Qian & Pan, 2006). According to these studies, family capital, such as social capital, human capital (parents' educational level), and/or financial capital, influenced Chinese parents' practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning.

Family capital helped educators understand parents' practices with their children's literacy learning in the home contexts (e.g., Coleman, 1988; Ren & Hu, 2011). According to Coleman's (1988) research, family capital has multiple dimensions, and family capital is "analytically separable" (p. 109) into three distinct forms: financial capital, human capital (e.g., family members' educational levels), and social capital. For example, social capital is not restricted to one family but also resides in the social relationships between a particular family and other people (e.g., Coleman, 1988; Ren & Hu, 2011). For instance, some Chinese parents know other parents living in the same community. These parents have social relationships with each other (e.g., they are friends) and have opportunities to communicate with each other about their children's literacy learning practices. Specifically, Markose and Simpson's (2016) study reported that, in Australia, some immigrant middle-class Chinese parents learned tips for their children's study through other parents that they knew in the community. They, therefore, had opportunities to communicate with each other. Through communication with other parents (i.e., their friends) in the community, they

learned literacy learning practices from other parents and families. They then created extra literacy learning opportunities (e.g., tutors, extra-curricular classes) for their own children based on the literacy tips that they learned from other parents. Additionally, some Chinese parents' educational levels and language proficiency levels in English/Chinese helped parents guide their children's literacy learning at home. For example, Li's (2006) study explored some Chinese children's bilingual (Chinese and English) and trilingual (Mandarin, Cantonese, and English) practices in the household context in Canada. This study argued that in Canada, some Chinese parents' own "proficiencies in the dominant language" (p. 355) played an important role in shaping their children's language development at home. Moore's (2010) study reported that, in some immigrant Chinese families in Canada, if parents were well educated in English, their children would have more opportunities to speak and read in English at home. Additionally, family financial status can influence Chinese children's literacy learning at home. Qian and Pan's (2006) study focused on a low-income immigrant Chinese family. Qian and Pan reported that, in a low-income immigrant Chinese family in the United States, some Chinese parents cannot speak English very well. Qian and Pan also pointed out that children in the low-income family experienced few English literacy-learning interactions at home with their parents. The child "will experience difficulties in becoming literate" (p. 92) in English.

In sum, the reviewed studies reported how Chinese parents' education levels, social networks, or financial situations can influence their practices with their children's literacy learning in the home context.

3.2.2 Findings: Themes Related to CHL Teachers' Practices and Roles in Chinese Children's Literacy Learning in CHL Classrooms

In total, 16 studies record CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning in the CHL classrooms (Creese et al., 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Du, 2017; Francis et al., 2009; Francis et al., 2010; Ganassin, 2019; Hancock, 2016; He, 2001; Kenner et al., 2004; Li, 2005; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Mau et al., 2009; Pu, 2010; Wei, 2014; Wu et al., 2011; Wu, 2013).

3.2.2.1 Findings for Situated Practice

Based on my review, 12 papers recorded that, in the CHL classrooms, the CHL teacher implemented situated practice in Chinese children's literacy learning (Creese et al., 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Du, 2017; Francis et al., 2010; Ganassin, 2019; Hancock, 2016; He, 2001; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Pu, 2010; Wei, 2014; Wu et al., 2011; Wu, 2013). CHL teachers provided their students with rich literacy resources in real-life or simulated situations in their teaching processes. They helped students understand the school knowledge through their students' out-of-school experiences. They also created collaborative learning opportunities and/or multimodal literacy learning practices to help students to experience the known, explore the new, and learn literacy knowledge actively.

Some CHL teachers designed situated learning environments for Chinese children to experience knowledge through multimodal practices. For example, Wu (2013) reported that in a classroom at a CHL school in the USA, CHL teachers provided Chinese students with learning materials, such as paper, pencils, and crayons. In Wu's

study, teachers allowed students to interact and ask questions freely. Additionally, Wu pointed out that, in order to help Chinese children express themselves actively, the CHL teacher did not participate in students' drawing activities and let these students explore knowledge by themselves. In Wu's study, the CHL teacher provided literacy materials and allowed these Chinese children to take "adequate time as needed in doing their drawings" (p. 269). The CHL teacher designed self-exploring and multimodal practice opportunities for Chinese children to learn literacy skills. Additionally, Curdt-Christiansen (2006) reported that in a CHL classroom in Quebec, Canada, a CHL teacher helped her students review the Chinese characters that they had learned in previous lessons by means of different methods. Curdt-Christiansen pointed out that this teacher used flash cards with both pictures and characters to assist students in learning the characters for different animals. Students had opportunity to learn new literacy knowledge according to what they have known before. When this teacher helped students review the Chinese character, *Lion,* the teacher introduced another character*, Tiger,* and then the changed her voice and teacher talking style. This teacher made a role-play and acted as a person in the forest seeing a tiger coming. In Curdt-Christiansen's study, the teacher told her students "let's hurry up to put the tiger back to the forest as well, otherwise it might bite us. Run, go back" (p. 196). Curdt-Christiansen also pointed out that the CHL teacher used this method to draw her students' attention and made the animals appear alive and playful. The teacher made her students feel that they were also in the forest with their teacher. These students could understand the meaning of the characters based on the group activities designed

by the CHL teacher. Curdt-Christiansen further reported that in the CHL teacher's class, "play" (p. 197) was an important part of children's literacy learning process. This CHL teacher's teacher talk "consolidates the knowledge" (p. 197) that the Chinese children "have just acquired and engages the children in further learning" (p. 197). Similarly, some CHL teachers at CHL schools designed multimodal literacy interactions for Chinese students to explore their literacy knowledge. For example, some CHL teachers taught different lessons, such as "Mandarin language arts" (Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007, p. 56) and "Chinese chess, drawing/painting, national dance, and music" (p. 56). They guided students to "draw on the blackboard, engaging in activities in the classroom and having games" (p. 62) to celebrate Chinese learning events. These CHL teachers helped Chinese children experience what they knew through multiple modes, such as drawing, dancing, or playing. In Wei's (2014) study, in the UK, the CHL teacher used pictures for Chinese students to experience the known in their lives and helped these students to learn the new. Wei reported that, in a CHL school in Newcastle, Britain, a CHL teacher taught Mandarin "through a series of pictures of fruit and vegetables and ask[ed] the pupils to name them in Mandarin" (p. 168). This CHL teacher talked about Chinese words by using pictures. For example, this teacher showed the picture of potatoes and helped students recognize the Chinese words of potatoes. Additionally, in Wei's study, in response to students' answers, the teacher explained that we could name some vegetables in different ways as people from different places of China have their own linguistic expression conventions. The CHL teacher talked about the pictures with the students together and helped students

learn Chinese characters and Chinese pronunciation. Ganassin's (2019) study reported that, at a Chinese community school in the UK, CHL teachers used stories, presentations, PowerPoints, and other teaching materials to help Chinese children's CHL learning. For example, in Ganassin's study, in the CHL classroom, "fables, stories, and legends were widely used by teachers to expose their pupils to Chinese culture" (p. 173). Ganassin pointed out that these CHL teachers helped their Chinese students learn Chinese literacy through collaborative classroom activities related to their real-life situations. Additionally, with CHL teachers' help, some Chinese children's literacy learning "involved multimodal communication at school" (Du, 2017, p. 4). At a CHL school in Canada, the teacher adopted "certain multimodal elements, such as gesture, sound effect, and oral presentation" (p. 9). Du pointed out that when a CHL teacher taught the Chinese character, *family*, she asked students to use different ways to show their own understandings of *family* based on their own out-of-school experiences. For example, in Du's study, after this CHL teacher explained the sound and meaning of a Chinese character, this teacher asked students to "use their body movement to demonstrate their understanding" (p. 9) of the Chinese character. According to one group's *family* show, these children decided that the tallest boy in their group stretched "his arms straight to make the roof of a house, and the other group members were family members" (p. 9). These Chinese children used their body language to express their understanding of family: family members "happily live together" (p. 9).

In sum, these reviewed studies reported how CHL teachers implemented situated

practice in their CHL classroom teaching practices regarding Chinese children's literacy learning. They created learning opportunities for students to participate in classroom activities to experience the known, explore the new, and learn literacy knowledge actively. They helped students learn literacy skills through collaborative activities and multimodal practices.

3.2.2.2 Findings for Overt Instruction

Based on my review, 13 papers reported that, in CHL classrooms, CHL teachers implemented overt instructions in Chinese children's literacy learning (Creese et al., 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Du, 2017; Francis et al., 2010; Ganassin, 2019; Hancock, 2016; He, 2001; Kenner et al., 2004; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Mau et al., 2009; Pu, 2010; Wei, 2014; Wu et al., 2011). According to the reviewed studies, in the CHL classrooms, CHL teachers helped Chinese children acquire systematic literacy knowledge. They asked Chinese children questions to help children more deeply understand what they learned.

Some CHL teachers supported Chinese children's CHL learning through systematically teaching linguistic knowledge and meaning-making interactions. For instance, Pu (2010) addressed that, in the USA, the CHL teachers taught Chinese students CHL knowledge in their classes, including "Chinese characters, the stroke orders, and Chinese syntax rules" (p. 158). In Pu's study, some CHL teachers also explained word meanings and reading comprehension strategies to their Chinese students. For instance, Pu pointed out that one CHL teacher talked about narrative knowledge and addressed that "a narrative must include components of 'who, when,

where, what, and why' " (p. 158). This teacher then asked students questions, for example, "what things do we need to include in a story? " (p. 158) to help them conceptualize literacy knowledge. Similarly, some CHL teachers helped students conceptualize the meaning of a Chinese character through explaining the character's shape. For example, at a CHL school in the UK, when the CHL teacher taught the Chinese character *mountain* 山, the teacher told students that this character "looks as though it has three 'peaks'" (Kenner et al., 2004, p. 137) of a mountain. Based on the teacher's explanations, these Chinese children in the CHL classrooms conceptualized the Chinese character as a hieroglyph. In addition, Kenner et al indicated that the CHL teacher organized a "peer teaching session" (p. 137) to instruct students to learn Chinese characters from each other. Additionally, some CHL teachers adopted Chinese dialects and phonetic system (Pinyin) to systematically instruct Chinese children's simplified or classical Chinese characters learning. For example, at a CHL school in Canada, some students could understand Cantonese (a Chinese dialect), so CHL teachers explained and analyzed literacy knowledge in Cantonese to help these children better understand Chinese knowledge (Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007). Additionally, based on Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen's study, CHL teachers instructed students' pronunciations of Chinese characters through the Pinyin system and helped students learn Chinese phonetic knowledge systematically. Additionally, in Du's (2017) study, at a CHL school in Canada, when a CHL teacher taught a new Chinese text, the teacher first picked out new words from the text, and then the teacher wrote them on the whiteboard with Chinese Pinyin. Du pointed out that this teacher

then asked students to find these new Chinese characters in the word list at the corner of the whiteboard and asked them to read new words after the teacher explained the meanings of these Chinese characters. Du also indicated that, after the students understood the new words, the teacher asked them to read the complete sentences and explained the meaning of each sentence. When the teacher finished the text teaching, this teacher "provided an opportunity for children to perform the text in groups" (p. 10). This literacy practice in the CHL classroom helped children learn Chinese and understand literacy knowledge systematically. Similarly, some CHL teachers help Chinese children conceptualize CHL knowledge by asking questions and organizing discussions. Curdt-Christiansen (2006) addressed that, at a CHL school in Quebec, Canada, teachers managed classroom interactions and the "lessons are organized around a basic question/answer format" (p. 193). Based on the CHL classroom observation, Mandarin as a "mediational tool employed by the teachers" (p. 193) to control the learning process in the CHL classroom through a question-answer interaction. In Curdt-Christiansen's study, the CHL teacher first initiated a question, next, got the student's response, then, evaluated the response and provided feedback. Curdt-Christiansen further pointed out that a CHL teacher organized classroom discourses "in a playful way to engage her students in learning" (p. 193) through this initiation-response-feedback pattern.

In sum, these reviewed studies reported how CHL teachers practiced overt instructions in CHL classrooms. In their teaching practices, CHL teachers help Chinese children conceptualize literacy knowledge related to the Chinese heritage

languages.

3.2.2.3 Findings for Critical Framing

Seven papers reported that the CHL teacher practiced critical framing in the CHL classroom in regard to Chinese children's literacy learning (Creese et al., 2009; Hancock, 2016; He, 2001; Kenner et al., 2004; Pu, 2010; Wei, 2014; Wu et al., 2011). According to these studies, CHL teachers interpreted literacy knowledge functionally or critically. They encouraged students to question what they had learned and develop an in-depth understanding. They supported students' examinations of "the social and cultural context of particular designs of meaning" (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). With teachers' help, students can explore social and cultural perspectives of different learning contents and get a deeper understanding of facts around them.

Some CHL teacher helped students question what they have learned in the CHL classrooms and helped Chinese children understand literacy knowledge in their own ways. For example, Creese et al (2009) reported that, at a Chinese school in the UK, a CHL teacher taught Chinese children Chinese literacy through traditional Chinese folk stories. In Creese et al.'s study, the CHL teacher told students some ancient Chinese legends such as *Houyi shot the suns,* and *Chang'er flew to the moon*. The teacher explained stories and taught related literacy knowledge. After students learned new Chinese characters in the text and understood the plots of the legends, the CHL teacher supported students in questioning and challenging the validity of the story and encouraged them to introduce their own ideas. For example, Creese et al pointed out that when the CHL teacher told the legend of *Houyi shot the suns* and asked students

"what is there in each of the suns?" (p. 359), some students answered that gas and dust were inside the sun. Then, the teacher told students that there were some birds in the sun. However, Creese et al indicated that the students laughed and challenged the plot and indicated that it was ridiculous and unconvincing if the bird was in the sun. Creese et al also pointed out that these students subverted the make-believe required of the genre of legend and myth and introduced a more "rationalist and scientific interpretation" (p. 360). The CHL teacher acknowledged Chinese children's interpretation of the story but insisted on legend "as a non-rationalist text which allows anything to happen" (p. 360) In this study, in the CHL classroom, the CHL teacher not only talked about the folk stories with the Chinese students, but also created literacy learning opportunities for Chinese students to question and challenge the content of the folk stories. Through introducing their own ideas, the Chinese students thought about what they had learned in their own ways. Similarly, He (2001) reported that, in a CHL class in the United States, the CHL teacher encouraged Chinese American children to evaluate and challenge other classmates' Chinese writing. For example, in He's study, when a student wrote a Chinese character on the whiteboard, the teacher asked other students "is this character written correctly or not?" (p. 87). He pointed out that, after a student said "not correct" and wrote the character that he thought was right on the whiteboard, the teacher once again asked the class "is his writing correct?" (p. 87). The CHL teacher used this method to encourage Chinese children to evaluate this Chinese character's written form. He argued that although the two students wrote the same Chinese character, the first wrote in the simplified script,

and the second wrote in the traditional (non-simplified) script. According to He's report, both students wrote mistakenly (wrote the wrong form). In He's study, the CHL teacher summarized that the simplified script and traditional script are both fine, but students should write them correctly. In He's study, the CHL teacher used this teaching method to help Chinese children challenge others' work and critically understand what they had learned. Some CHL teachers practiced critical framing and helped Chinese children create new ideas from different angles and think about knowledge in their own ways. Wu et al. (2011) also illustrated that, in a CHL class in the United States, the teacher helped students to question previous ideas that have been talked about in the class and encouraged Chinese students to think about new ideas during classroom discussion. Wu et al. indicated that the CHL teacher "always challenged students to create new ideas and scaffold them to express themselves in Chinese in more complex ways than they could have on their own" (p. 56).

In summary, these reviewed studies indicate that, in order to help Chinese children acquire CHL literacy, CHL teachers implemented critical framing in the CHL classroom teaching practices. CHL teachers help Chinese children question what they have learned and think about literacy knowledge critically

3.2.2.4 Findings for Transformed Practice

Nine studies reported that the CHL teacher implemented transformed practices in the CHL classrooms in Chinese children's literacy learning (Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Creese et al., 2009; Du, 2017; Francis et al., 2010; Ganassin, 2019; Hancock, 2016; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Pu, 2010; Wu et al., 2011). According to these

studies, the CHL teacher helped Chinese children take knowledge and understanding into new domains. They helped Chinese children transform literacy knowledge into practices or real-life situations.

Some CHL teachers helped children transform knowledge into practice. For example, in a CHL class in Canada, the CHL teacher introduced children to knowledge pertaining to communication skills and traditional Chinese customs (Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007). In order to transform what they had learned into practice, the CHL teacher taught the students how to make an envelope and write messages to make a New Year's greeting card (p. 58). The CHL teacher used this method to help students practice Chinese writing skills and understand Chinese culture. Additionally, Du (2017) reported that, in a CHL school in Canada, after a CHL teacher taught the students the Chinese texts, she asked the Chinese children to make their own book about this text according to what they had learned in the class. In Du's study, the CHL teacher created an opportunity for students to "make their own textbook about Sunrise, a mini book with a book cover and five pages describing five sentences from the text" (p. 10). The CHL teacher used this method to help Chinese children transfer what they had learned in the classroom into practices. Similarly, some CHL teachers helped children transfer the knowledge learned from textbooks into their real lives. For example, at a Chinese community school in the UK, CHL teachers indicated that sometimes the Chinese culture learned in the textbooks was not relevant for the Chinese students' daily lives (Ganassin, 2019, p. 173). CHL teachers also realized that "the teaching of culture needs meaningful representations that pupils

could connect with" (p. 173). For example, in Ganassin's study, one CHL teacher pointed out that it is important for Chinese children to understand the connection between the Chinese culture and the child's daily life. In order to transform knowledge into students' real lives, some CHL teachers in the UK arranged for students to "celebrate festivals" (p. 173) to help them study "the language and the culture together" (p. 173). Ganassin pointed out that they guided students to "prepare to perform for Chinese New Year" (p. 177). In Ganassin's study, a CHL teacher helped students prepare a Chinese song to celebrate Chinese New Year. Ganassin pointed out that the students were happy to perform and dress up like a traditional Chinese and do something different. CHL teachers used these methods to help Chinese children learn Chinese and bring "culture to life" (p. 173). Additionally, some CHL teachers helped students transfer traditional Chinese culture into real school lives and help children understand Chinese culture. For example, at a Chinese school in England, when the CHL teacher taught traditional Chinese virtues such as filial piety (respect for one's parents, elders, and ancestors), they taught children to respect teachers at school (Francis et al., 2010). Francis et al pointed out that Chinese teaching was not just teaching the Chinese language. It was for every aspect of the learners' "daily life" (p. 109), including nurturing manners, behaviors, thoughts, and speech.

In sum, these reviewed studies reported how CHL teachers implemented transformed practices in their CHL teaching practices. Teachers created opportunities for Chinese children to apply what they have learned in the CHL classes to practices and real-life situations.

In sum, findings on the reviewed studies show diverse practices that Chinese parents and CHL teachers were involved in to support Chinese children's literacy learning. Some immigrant Chinese parents helped their Chinese children learn Chinese/English through a variety of home reading and writing practices. Parents provided home literacy materials for their children or asked advice from others for their children's literacy learning at home. They hoped that their children could learn both Chinese and English knowledge well. Additionally, according to the reviewed studies, in the CHL classroom contexts, CHL teachers implemented situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and/or transformed practice to help Chinese children learn Chinese heritage languages.

Chapter 4

4 Discussion, Implication, Significance, Limitations, and Conclusion

The purpose of the SLR is to contribute to the existing literature by providing researchers and educators with a systematic summary of the up-to-date findings on Chinese parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in Chinese children's literacy learning. In the 21st century, children require a variety of diverse literacy knoweldges to participate in a "globally interlinked economy" (Suárez-Orozco, 2009, p. 62). Children have also long been understood to be actively engaged in rich-literacy events within the out-of-(public) school contexts (Taylor, 1983); hence studies like this one that look at opportunities for multilingual literacy learning outside of school are of import. More specific to the study, Chinese parents and CHL teachers are crucial to Chinese children's acquisition of Chinese and English literacies.

To recap, my study asked two questions:

1) In the reviewed studies, what are the recorded literacy practices and roles of Chinese parents in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home?

2) In the reviewed studies, what are the recorded literacy practices and roles of the Chinese heritage language teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the Chinese heritage language classrooms?

Discussion of findings in this chapter is followed by implications and significance for the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the out-of-school (public) contexts. I also discuss the limitations of my SLR at the end of this chapter.

4.1 Discussion of the Practices and Roles of Chinese Parents and CHL Teachers

The following section includes the discussion of my findings of the themes related to the practices and roles of Chinese parents and the CHL teachers in terms of Chinese children's literacy learning in the home and the CHL classroom contexts.

4.1.1 Discussion of Chinese Parents' Practices and Roles

The themes I identified in the reviewed studies related to the parents' practices and roles were evident in some Chinese parents' homes in regard to their children's literacy learning (i.e., home reading and writing; culturally embedded conversations; providing home literacy materials; parents helping children learn literacy with other family members; parents creating literacy learning opportunities outside the home; asking/getting advice from other people or institutions; parental expectations of their children's literacy achievement; parents' own prior literacy experiences; and family capital). Findings show that some Chinese parents helped their children learn decontextualized skills, such as autonomous skills related to reading and writing. They taught their Chinese children (Chinese and English) reading and writing skills at home (e.g., Li, 2004; Xu, 1999). By contrast, some Chinese parents' practices and roles in their children's literacy learning reflect the ideological model of literacy. These Chinese parents' practices and roles in their children's literacy learning were culturally embedded. Chinese parents in some immigrant families support their children's literacy learning through culturally embedded conversations (e.g., Kenner et al., 2004; Lie & Lick, 2007). For example, some Chinese parents have carried traditional

Chinese educational values with them when they conversed with their children at home (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009). Also, their literacy practices with their children at home are based on their own prior literacy learning experiences (e.g., Markose et al., 2011; Ma, 2009). For instance, some Chinese parents helped their children's literacy learning according to their knowledge that had been "taught by their own parents" (Curdt-Christiansen, 2009, p. 360) when they were very young in China.

Based on my findings, digital devices are used in many immigrant Chinese families. For example, 11 papers indicated that based on their children's learning needs and interests, some Chinese parents created digital literacy environments (e.g., through media or digital devices) for their children to acquire literacy knowledge at home. Few studies I could find through the study provided explicit guidance for Chinese parents to support their Chinese children's learning literacy in the home digital environment. For example, very few studies address how Chinese parents could explicitly guide their Chinese children's literacy learning through digital devices in the home digital literacy environments. Given the ubiquity and importance of digital literacies in contemporary times (Unsworth, 2006) and even as remarked on at the advent of multiliteracies (New London Group, 1996), explicit parental guiding strategies (e.g., how to help Chinese children use digital devices to acquire Chinese/English literacy knowledge in home literacy-learning environments) need to receive more scholarly attention. Therefore, I foresee the need for future research that focuses on how to engage with Chinese parents to guide their Chinese children's literacy learning through digital devices in the home contexts.

Based on my review, only a few studies explicitly focus on helping Chinese parents and their Chinese children's literacy practices in low-income immigrant Chinese families. Some Chinese parents in working-class families have been found to lack solid socio-cultural networks and have limited English language skills (e.g., Qian & Pan, 2006). Their lack of cultural and financial capital have been found to put their children at a disadvantage in English language medium schools. I identified in my review, that a deficit view of low-income families was conveyed in the papers that included them. Thus, I recommend more studies of how schools and other community and public institutions and organizations can engage children from low-income Chinese families to acquire multilingual literacies in asset-oriented (Heydon & Iannacci, 2008) ways, that is, in ways that recognize and build on their funds of knowledge (Rios-Aguilar & Kiyama, 2018).

According to my findings of the reviewed studies, many Chinese parents played the role of connecting their Chinese children with a kind of literacy network (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Francis et al., 2010; Hancock, 2006; Kenner, 2005; Kenner et al., 2004; Li, 2006; Li, 2001; Li, 2003; Li, 2007; Li, 2004; Li, 2005; Lie & Lick, 2007; Ma, 2008; Markose & Hellstén, 2009; Markose & Simpson, 2016; Markose et al., 2011; Mau et al., 2009; Ma, 2009; Moore, 2010; Qian & Pan, 2006; Riches & Curdt-Christiansen, 2010; Sun, 2016; Wan, 2000; Wang et al., 2009; Xu, 1999; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Zhang & Guo, 2017; Zhang & Bano, 2010). In my study, I view a series of literacy-learning practices formed by different people, places, or media (such as digital devices) as a form of network. Chinese parents connected their

Chinese children with literacy networks to help them acquire literacy knowledge. They created outside home literacy learning opportunities such as joining in family-school cultural events, singing up, out-of-school tutoring for their children, or helped their children learn literacy through new media (radio or video) (e.g., Curdt-Christiansen, 2013). In sum, my findings show that many immigrant Chinese parents in the reviewed studies played the role as literacy networks connectors in their children's literacy learning. These networks were formed by intertwining different people, places, and/or or media to help their children acquire literacy knowledge.

Additionally, based on my review, I can posit that Chinese parents are important for a kind of literacy learning network between family and school because parents are often the lynchpin of the family-school partnership. However, very few papers explicitly point out the specific literacy needs of Chinese parents in immigrant families and the methods for building networks of any sort among Chinese families, schools, and communities. It is important for Chinese parents and teachers to learn with each other and coordinate culturally and linguistically diverse children's literacy learning across the domains of home, public school, and community (e.g., CHL schools). Some Chinese parents "were keen on the idea of setting up family literacy programs that are specifically tailored to include and celebrate multiple literacies and multiple cultures in immigrant families" (Zhang & Bano, 2010, p. 93). Therefore, I concur with Zhang and Bano that educators need to focus on parents' specific needs and "fathom the depth of immigrant families' literacy practices" (p. 93). This may help connect families, public schools, and communities (e.g., the CHL schools) and

organize literacy learning activities that meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse families.

4.1.2 Discussion of CHL Teachers' Practices and Roles

As just detailed, study themes related to the CHL teacher's practices and roles, that is, situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice, were apparent in the findings. For example, some CHL teachers in the reviewed studies included components of situated practice or overt instruction to help Chinese children learn the Chinese heritage languages (e.g., Creese et al., 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Wei, 2014; Wu et al., 2011). Other CHL teachers' practices in the CHL classrooms reflect critical framing or transformed practice (e.g., Hancock, 2016; He, 2001; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007). According to my findings, CHL teachers' teaching practices provided opportunities for children to acquire Chinese literacies and related culture and created opportunities for these same children to communicate with people from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Further, I found evidence in eight papers of CHL teachers helping young students maintain their ties to traditional Chinese culture and traditional Chinese virtues. However, few studies explicitly pointed out how the CHL teachers' own cultural backgrounds and experiences influenced their teaching practices and their students' literacy learning. Teachers' backgrounds and experiences may influence their design of the situated practice that encourages active and collaborative learning through rich clues in real-life or simulated situations (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012). Based on their own backgrounds and experiences, teachers may help students question or challenge their understandings of

knowledge or "interpret the social and cultural context of particular designs of meaning" functionally and critically (New London Group, 1996, p. 88). The findings raise the question of how teachers' own cultural backgrounds, life, and educational experiences may help them to construct their instructional approaches through a variety of modes and collaborative interactions between teachers and students. Additionally, based on my review, I noticed that differences exist between CHL teachers' and the students' cultural experiences (e.g., Wei, 2014). Some CHL teachers had been in the CHL schools for a short period of time, but their students were mostly born in the immigrant countries. These CHL teachers' and their students' cultural backgrounds and life experiences have little in common. More research seems to be needed regarding the relationship between CHL teachers and children's funds of knowledge, and how they may be co-creating new understandings of language and culture in the diaspora. Such knowledge could be helpful to promoting the transformative elements of a pedagogy of multiliteracies.

Based on my review, CHL teachers played the role of Chinese-English biliteracy mediators in children's literacy learning in the CHL classrooms (Creese et al., 2009; Curdt-Christiansen, 2006; Du, 2017; Francis et al., 2009; Francis et al., 2010; Ganassin, 2019; Hancock, 2016; He, 2001; Kenner et al., 2004; Li, 2005; Maguire & Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Mau et al., 2009; Pu, 2010; Wei, 2014; Wu, 2011). Specifically, I read through the findings how teachers mediated CHL learning in Chinese and English languages and cultural contexts. CHL teachers used both Chinese and English languages in their teacher talk when they taught the Chinese stories (e.g.,

Creese et al, 2009). When some CHL teachers were sharing legends with their students, they explained the literacy terms through bilingual and biliterate interactions. This type of mediating practice created opportunities for children to make sense of what they could not fully understand in only one language. Additionally, my findings show that some CHL teachers mediated Chinese and English literacies in the classroom and the home contexts. They asked, for instance, for students to translate English nursery rhymes into Chinese at home and then invited students to present and discuss their Chinese translations in class (Du, 2017). The CHL teachers drew upon what they knew about English versions of the nursery rhymes and "incorporated these rhymes into their Chinese learning to make learning engaging and meaningful" (p. 13). Also, my findings show that some CHL teachers taught students Chinese songs and to make thank-you cards. CHL teachers used these methods to help students understand both Chinese and English literacy and culture, such as the value of school, the role of teachers, and about being thankful as children/learners.

Based on my review, a few papers marginally addressed CHL teachers' training experiences that support their CHL classroom teaching practices when they played the role of Chinese-English biliteracy mediators. Some CHL teachers' teaching lacked "functionality and connectivity" (Curdt-Christiansen, 2007, p. 71) and the CHL teachers needed "professional training" (Wu, et al., 2011, p. 51). However, limited research explicitly addresses what kind of CHL teacher training curriculum can meet and promote multiliteracies pedagogies (e.g., Wu, et al, 2011). For example, researchers might focus on the questions like how to help CHL teachers incorporate

elements of situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice according to their Chinese students' funds of knowledge and interests. Therefore, I foresee the necessity of conducting research on the CHL teacher's training and related curriculum development. I think that this may help more CHL teachers design literacy pedagogies that address Chinese students' knowledge and practices and help them better engage children in their CHL classes.

In Chapter 4, I discussed findings of the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in the reviewed studies in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms. Therein I summarized the existing understandings of the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms. I further offered insights into specific needs of immigrant Chinese parents and CHL teachers regarding Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms.

To conclude the systematic literature review, my overall finding is that in the Chinese children's literacy learning practices, their parents played the role of connecting their children with of a kind of literacy-learning network in the home contexts; and the CHL teachers played the role of Chinese-English biliteracy mediators in the CHL classroom contexts. Systematic literature reviews often provide more "substantive" conceptualization than individual investigations (Timulak, 2014, p. 482). My SLR might also provide insights into the culturally and linguistically diverse children's literacy-learning needs and interests in the 21st century. This systematic review also has the potential to contribute to the current understanding of Chinese

parents' and CHL teachers' practices and roles in the Chinese children's (Chinese/English) literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms. The knowledge synthesis on Chinese children's literacy learning practices with their parents and CHL teachers assist educators and researchers to build family-school-community literacy learning links and conducting professional CHL teacher training to support Chinese children's literacy learning in the out-of-school (public) contexts.

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Appendix A: 41 selected article references

Article No.	41 Selected Article References
1.	Creese, A., Wu, C., & Blackledge, A. (2009). Folk stories and social identification in multilingual classrooms. *Linguistics and Education: An International Research Journal, 20*(4), 350-365.
2.	Curdt-Christiansen, X. (2009). Invisible and visible language planning: Ideological factors in the family language policy of Chinese immigrant families in Quebec. *Language Policy, 8*(4), 351-375.
3.	Curdt-Christiansen, X. (2006). Teaching and learning Chinese: Heritage language classroom discourse in Montreal. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 19*(2), 189-207.
4.	Curdt-Christiansen, X. (2013). Implicit learning and imperceptible influence: Syncretic literacy of multilingual Chinese children. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 13*(3), 348-370.
5.	Du, X. (2017). Rethink about heritage language learning: A case study of Children's mandarin Chinese learning at a community language school in Ontario, Canada. *Language and Literacy, 19*(1), 4-20.
6.	Francis, B., Archer, L., & Mau, A. (2009). Language as capital or language as identity? Chinese complementary school pupils' perspectives on the purposes and benefits of complementary schools. *British Educational Research Journal, 35*(4), 519-538.
7.	Francis, B., Archer, L., & Mau, A. (2010). Parents' and teachers'

	constructions of the purposes of Chinese complementary schooling: 'culture', identity and power. *Race, Ethnicity and Education, 13*(1), 101-117.
8.	Ganassin, S. (2019). Teaching and learning about Chinese culture: Pupils' and teachers' experiences of Chinese community schooling in the UK. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 19*(2), 167-183.
9.	Hancock, A. (2006). Attitudes and approaches to literacy in Scottish Chinese families. *Language and Education, 20*(5), 355-373.
10.	Hancock, A. (2016). Creating a dialogic space for research: A reading conference in a Chinese complementary school. *Language and Education, 30*(2), 126-142.
11.	He, A. W. (2001). The language of ambiguity: Practices in Chinese heritage language classes. *Discourse Studies, 3*(1), 75-96.
12.	Kenner, C. (2005). Bilingual families as literacy eco-systems. *Early Years: An International Journal of Research and Development, 25*(3), 283-298.
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14.	Lie, K. Y., & Lick, S. H. P. (2007). The social construction of literacy by Malaysian Chinese parents: Perceptions of parents toward the language and literacy practices of two teenage children. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 7*(3), 72-87.

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16.	Li, G. (2001). Literacy as situated practice. *Canadian Journal of Education / Revue Canadienne De l'Éducation, 26*(1), 57-75.
17.	Li, G. (2003). Literacy, culture, and politics of schooling: Counternarratives of a Chinese Canadian family. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 34*(2), 182-204.
18.	Li, G. (2004). Perspectives on struggling English language learners: Case studies of two Chinese-Canadian children. *Journal of Literacy Research, 36*(1), 31-72.
19.	Li, G. (2007). Second language and literacy learning in school and at home: An ethnographic study of Chinese Canadian first graders' experiences. *Literacy Teaching and Learning, 11*(2), 1-31.
20.	Li, M. (2005). The role of parents in Chinese heritage-language schools. *Bilingual Research Journal, 29* (1), 197-207.
21.	Maguire, M. H., & Curdt-Christiansen, X. (2007). Multiple schools, languages, experiences and affiliations: Ideological becomings and positionings. *Heritage Language Journal, 5*(1), 50-78.
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23.	Markose, S., & Hellstén, M. (2009). Explaining success and failure in mainstream schooling through the lens of cultural continuities and discontinuities: Two case studies. *Language and Education: An*

	International Journal, 23(1), 59-77.
24.	Markose, S. J., & Simpson, A. (2016). 'I want them better than me': Pedagogical strategies employed by four immigrant parents in the face of perceived forms of exclusion by school authorities. *Race, Ethnicity and Education, 19*(3), 659-682.
25.	Markose, S., Symes, C., & Hellsten, M. (2011). 'In this country education happen at the home': Two families in search of the 'instruments of appropriation' for school success. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 11*(3), 248-269.
26.	Mau, A., Francis, B., & Archer, L. (2009). Mapping politics and pedagogy: Understanding the population and practices of Chinese complementary schools in England. *Ethnography and Education, 4*(1), 17-36.
27.	Ma, W. (2009). Beyond learning Literacy at school: One Chinese adolescent's educational journey. *American Secondary Education, 37*(3), 52-69
28.	Moore, D. (2010). Multilingual literacies and third script acquisition: Young Chinese children in French immersion in Vancouver, Canada. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 7*(4), 322-342.
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36.	Wu, H., Palmer, D., & Field, S. (2011). Understanding teachers' professional identity and beliefs in the Chinese heritage language school in the USA. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 24*(1), 47–60.
37.	Wu, L. (2013). Understanding children's concept formation and writing emergence from the perspective of graphical multi-signification: Evidence and pedagogical implications. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 26*(3), 266-283.
38.	Xu, H. (1999). Young Chinese ESL children's home literacy experiences. *Reading Horizons, 40*(1), 47-64.

39.	Zhang, D., & Slaughter-Defoe, D. (2009). Language attitudes and heritage language maintenance among Chinese immigrant families in the USA. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 22*(2), 77-93.
40.	Zhang, Y., & Guo, Y. (2017). Exceeding boundaries: Chinese children's playful use of languages in their literacy practices in a Mandarin-English bilingual program. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 20*(1), 52-68.
41.	Zhang, Z., & Bano, N. (2010). Multiple cultures, multiple literacies, and collective agencies: Chinese and Pakistani immigrants' perceptions of family literacy support. *Canadian and International Education, 39*(3), 81-102.

Appendix B: Justification for exclusion of 171 articles

Article No.	References	Justification for Exclusion
1.	Anderson, J., Chung, Y., & Macleroy, V. (2018). Creative and critical approaches to language learning and digital technology: Findings from a multilingual digital storytelling project. *Language and Education, 32*(3), 195-211.	**Irrelevant**
2.	Baker, S., & Scott, J. (2016). Sociocultural and academic considerations for school-aged/deaf and hard of hearing multilingual learners: A case study of a deaf Latina. *American Annals of the Deaf, 161*(1), 43-55.	**Irrelevant**
3.	Beneville, M. A., & Li, C. (2018). Evidence-based literacy interventions for East/Southeast Asian English language learners. *Journal for Multicultural Education, 12*(1), 50-66.	**Irrelevant**
4.	Bodovski, K., & Durham, R. E. (2010). Parental practices and achievement of Mexican and Chinese immigrant children in the USA: Assimilation patterns? *Research in Comparative and International Education, 5*(2), 156-175.	**Mixed Methods**
5.	Budiyana, Y. E. (2017). Students' parents' attitudes toward Chinese heritage language maintenance. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 7*(3), 195-200.	**Quantitative**

6.	Chang, S., & Martínez-Roldán, C. M. (2018). Multicultural lessons learned from a Chinese bilingual after-school program: Using technology to support ethnolinguistic children's cultural production. *Multicultural Education, 25*(2), 36-41.	**Irrelevant**
7.	Chan, K., & McNeal, J. U. (2004). Children's understanding of television advertising: A revisit in the Chinese context. *Journal of Genetic Psychology, 165*(1), 28-36.	**Quantitative**
8.	Chan, L. L. S., & Sylva, K. (2015). Exploring emergent literacy development in a second language: A selective literature review and conceptual framework for research. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 15*(1), 3-36.	**Irrelevant**
9.	Chen, J. J., & Ren, Y. (2019). Relationships between home-related factors and bilingual abilities: A study of Chinese–English dual language learners from immigrant, low-income backgrounds. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 47*(4), 381-393.	**Quantitative**
10.	Chen, P. (2016). Politics, economics, society, and overseas Chinese teaching: A case study of Australia. *Chinese Education and Society, 49*(6), 351-368.	**Irrelevant**
11.	Chen, R. H. (2006). Still remember the moments: When I learned to read and write in Chinese and English. *International Journal of Whole Schooling, 2*(2), 1-7.	**Irrelevant**

12.	Chen, S. H., Hua, M., Zhou, Q., Tao, A., Lee, E. H., Ly, J., & Main, A. (2014). Parent-child cultural orientations and child adjustment in Chinese American immigrant families. *Developmental Psychology, 50*(1), 189-201.	**Quantitative**
13.	Cheung, W. M., Lam, J. W. I., Au, D. W. H., So, W. W. Y., Huang, Y., & Tsang, H. W. H. (2017). Explaining student and home variance of Chinese reading achievement of the PIRLS 2011 Hong Kong. *Psychology in the Schools, 54*(9), 889-904.	**Quantitative**
14.	Chiang, R. A. (1997). Diversifying educational and career opportunities for bilingual students. *Bilingual Review/Revista Bilingue, 22*(1), 49-64.	**Quantitative**
15.	Chow, B. W., Chui, B. H., Lai, M. W., & Kwok, S. Y. C. L. (2017). Differential influences of parental home literacy practices and anxiety in English as a foreign language on Chinese children's English development. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 20*(6), 625-637.	**Mixed Methods**
16.	Chow, B. W., McBride-Chang, C., Cheung, H., & Chow, C. S. (2008). Dialogic reading and morphology training in Chinese children: Effects on language and literacy. *Developmental Psychology, 44*(1), 233-244.	**Mixed Methods**
17.	Chow, B. W., & McBride-Chang, C. (2003). Promoting language and literacy development through parent-child reading in Hong Kong preschoolers. *Early Education*	**Mixed Methods**

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18.	Chow, H. P. (2001). Learning the Chinese language in a multicultural milieu: Factors affecting Chinese-Canadian adolescents' ethnic language school experience. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 47*(4), 369-374.	**Quantitative**
19.	Chow, H. P. (2004). The effects of ethnic capital and family background on school performance: A case study of Chinese-Canadian adolescents in Calgary. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 50*(3), 321-326.	**Quantitative**
20.	Chu, Z., Wang, Z., Xiao, J. J., & Zhang, W. (2017). Financial literacy, portfolio choice, and financial well-being. *Social Indicators Research, 132*(2), 799-820.	**Quantitative**
21.	Chung, K. K. H., Lam, C. B., & Cheung, K. C. (2018). Visuomotor integration and executive functioning are uniquely linked to Chinese word reading and writing in kindergarten children. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 31*(1), 155-171.	**Mixed Methods**
22.	Chung, K. K. H., Lo, J. C. M., & McBride, C. (2018). Cognitive-linguistic profiles of Chinese typical-functioning adolescent dyslexics and high-functioning dyslexics. *Annals of Dyslexia, 68*(3), 229-250.	**Irrelevant**
23.	Chung, S., Zhou, Q., Catherine, A., Rivera, C., & Yuuko, U. (2019). Language proficiency, parenting styles, and socioemotional adjustment of young dual language learners. *Journal of Cross - Cultural Psychology, 50*(7),	**Mixed Methods**

	896-914.	
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25.	Clyne, M., Fernandez, S., & Grey, F. (2004). Languages taken at school and languages spoken in the community: A comparative perspective. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 27*(2), 1-17.	**Irrelevant**
26.	Curdt-Christiansen, X. L., & Francesca, L. M. (2018). Managing heritage language development: Opportunities and challenges for Chinese, Italian, and Pakistani Urdu-speaking families in the UK. *Multilingual: Journal of Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Communication, 37* (2), 177-200.	**Mixed Methods**
27.	Curdt-Christiansen, X. (2008). Reading the world through words: Cultural themes in heritage Chinese language textbooks. *Language and Education, 22* (2), 95-113.	**Irrelevant**
28.	Curdt-Christiansen, X., & Wang, W. (2018). Parents as agents of multilingual education: Family language planning in China. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 31*(3), 235-254.	**Irrelevant**
29.	Cutshall, S. (2005). Why we need 'the year of languages'. *Educational Leadership, 62*(4), 20-23.	**Irrelevant**
30.	Davis, K. S. (2013). Bilingualism in schools and society: Language, identity, and policy. *Bilingual Research*	**Irrelevant**

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32.	Elder, C. (2005). Evaluating the effectiveness of heritage language education: What role for testing? *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism, 8*(2-3), 196-212.	**Mixed Methods**
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34.	Fang, J. Y. (2015). To cultivate our children to be of East and West: Contesting ethnic heritage language in suburban Chinese schools. *Journal of American Ethnic History, 34*(2), 54–82.	**Irrelevant**
35.	Frank, O. L., & Fu, W. (2017). Practices and challenges of internationalization of higher education in China: International students' perspective. *International Journal of Comparative Education and Development, 19*(2), 78-96.	**Irrelevant**
36.	Fuligni, A. J., Kiang, L., Witkow, M. R., & Baldelomar, O. (2008). Stability and change in ethnic labeling among adolescents from Asian and Latin American immigrant	**Quantitative**

	families. *Child Development, 79*(4), 944-956.	
37.	Fulkerson, G. (2009). Big programs from a small state: Less commonly taught languages find their home in Delaware elementary schools. *Learning Languages, 15*(1), 13-15.	**Irrelevant**
38.	Fung, W., & Chung, K. K. H. (2019). The role of socioeconomic status in Chinese word reading and writing among Chinese kindergarten children. *Reading and Writing*, 1-21.	**Mixed Methods**
39.	Garces-Bacsal, R. M. (2013). Perceived family influences in talent development among artistically talented teenagers in Singapore. *Roeper Review, 35*(1), 7-17.	**Irrelevant**
40.	Ghiso, M. P. (2013). Every language is special: Promoting dual language learning in multicultural primary schools. *YC Young Children, 68*(1), 22-26.	**Irrelevant**
41.	Gu, M. M., Mak, B., & Qu, X. (2017). Ethnic minority students from south Asia in Hong Kong: Language ideologies and discursive identity construction. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 37*(3), 360-374.	**Irrelevant**
42.	Gunderson, L. (2008). The state of the art of secondary ESL teaching and learning. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 52*(3), 184-188.	**Irrelevant**
43.	Graham, S., Liu, X., Aitken, A., Ng, C., Bartlett, B., Harris, K. R., & Holzapfel, J. (2018). Effectiveness of literacy programs balancing reading and writing instruction: A Meta-Analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly, 53*(3), 279-	**Mixed Methods**

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44.	He, L., & Wilkins, S. (2019). The return of China's soft power in south east Asia: An analysis of the international branch campuses established by three Chinese universities. *Higher Education Policy, 32*(3), 321-337.	**Irrelevant**
45.	Ho, C. S. (2014). Preschool predictors of dyslexia status in Chinese first graders with high or low familial risk. *Reading and Writing, 27*(9), 1673-1701.	**Irrelevant**
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47.	Hong, J. (2016). What do you use mobile phones for: A creative method of thematic drawing with adolescents in rural China? *Journal of Media Literacy Education, 8*(2), 54-76.	**Irrelevant**
48.	Huang, J. (2016). The effects of animation on the socialization of 5-6 years old Chinese children - finding dory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 6*(10), 1945-1950.	**Mixed Methods**
49.	Hu, B., Zelenko, O., Pinxit, V., & Buys, L. (2019). A social semiotic approach and a visual analysis approach for Chinese traditional visual language: A case of tea packaging design. *Theory and Practice in Language*	**Irrelevant**

	Studies, 9(2), 168-177.	
50.	Hwang, W., Wood, J. J., & Fujimoto, K. (2010). Acculturative family distancing (AFD) and depression in Chinese American families. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 78*(5), 655-667.	**Irrelevant**
51.	James, M. (2014). The honey ant readers: An innovative and bold approach to engaging rural indigenous students in print literacy through accessible, culturally and linguistically appropriate resources. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education, 24*(1), 79-89.	**Irrelevant**
52.	Janjic-Watrich, V. (2009). The Cambridge handbook of literacy. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 55*(4), 559-563.	**Irrelevant**
53.	Jia, G., Chen, J., Kim, H., Chan, P., & Jeung, C. (2014). Bilingual lexical skills of school-age children with Chinese and Korean heritage languages in the united states. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 38*(4), 350-358.	**Mixed Methods**
54.	Jin, L., & Cortazzi, M. (2006). Changing practices in Chinese cultures of learning. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 19*(1), 5-20.	**Irrelevant**
55.	Joe, Z. W. (2005). Bilingual education in western Canada and Chinese language minority students' self-perceptions of their citizenship and ethnicity. *Canadian and International Education, 34*(1), 23-30.	**Irrelevant**

56.	Kam Tse, S., Zhu, Y., Yan Hui, S., & Ng, H. W. (2017). The effects of home reading activities during preschool and grade 4 on children's reading performance in Chinese and English in Hong Kong. *Australian Journal of Education, 61*(1), 5-23.	**Quantitative**
57.	Kemp, S. (2017). Language planning and policy in a school site: A diachronic analysis. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 11*(3), 253-266.	**Irrelevant**
58.	Ko, H. W., & Chan, Y. L. (2009). Family factors and primary students' reading attainment: A Chinese community perspective. *Chinese Education & Society, 42*(3), 33-48.	**Quantitative**
59.	Kuang, X., & Kennedy, K. J. (2018). Alienated and disaffected students: Exploring the civic capacity of 'outsiders' in Asian societies. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 19*(1), 111-135.	**Irrelevant**
60.	Kubler, C. C. (1999). A view from within: A case study of Chinese heritage community language schools in the united states. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(4), 604-605.	**Irrelevant**
61.	Kunyuan, X., & Rudi, Z. (2006). Inheritance and development of the tradition of Chinese piety education. *International Journal of Progressive Education, 2*(1), 24-31.	**Irrelevant**
62.	Lai, W. (2010). 'Talking like a book?' Socioeconomic differences of maternal conversational styles in co-	**Mixed Methods**

	constructing personal narratives with young Taiwanese children. *Early Child Development and Care, 180*(10), 1361-1377.	
63.	Lam, J. W. I., Cheung, W. M., & Lam, R. Y. H. (2009). Learning to read: The reading performance of Hong Kong primary students compared with that in developed countries around the world in PIRLS 2001 and 2006. *Chinese Education and Society, 42*(3), 6-32.	**Irrelevant**
64.	Lan, Y. (2014). Does second life improve mandarin learning by overseas Chinese students? *Language Learning and Technology, 18*(2), 36-56.	**Irrelevant**
65.	Lau, E. Y. H., Li, H., & Rao, N. (2011). Parental involvement and children's readiness for school in China. *Educational Research, 53*(1), 95-113.	**Mixed Methods**
66.	Lao, C. (2004). Parents' attitudes toward Chinese-English bilingual education and Chinese-language use. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(1), 99-121.	**Quantitative**
67.	Lau, J. Y., & McBride-Chang, C. (2005). Home literacy and Chinese reading in Hong Kong children. *Early Education and Development, 16*(1), 5-22.	**Quantitative**
68.	Lawton, B. L., & Logio, K. A. (2009). Teaching the Chinese language to heritage versus non-heritage learners: Parents' perceptions of a community weekend school in the united states. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 22*(2), 137-155.	**Mixed Methods**

69.	Law, Y. (2008). The relationship between extrinsic motivation, home literacy, classroom instructional practices, and reading proficiency in second-grade Chinese children. *Research in Education, 80*(1), 37-51.	**Quantitative**
70.	Law, Y. (2009). The role of attribution beliefs, motivation and strategy use in Chinese fifth-graders' reading comprehension. *Educational Research, 51*(1), 77-95.	**Quantitative**
71.	Lee, S. K. (2002). The significance of language and cultural education on secondary achievement: A survey of Chinese-American and Korean-American students. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(2), 327-338.	**Quantitative**
72.	Leyva, D., Tamis-LeMonda, C., & Yoshikawa, H. (2019). What parents bring to the table: Maternal behaviors in a grocery game and first graders' literacy and math skills in a low-income sample? *The Elementary School Journal, 119*(4), 629-650.	**Mixed Methods**
73.	Li, G., & Wen, K. (2015). East Asian heritage language education for a plurilingual reality in the united states: Practices, potholes, and possibilities. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 9*(4), 274-290.	**Irrelevant**
74.	Li, G. (2006). 'What do parents think?' Middle-class Chinese immigrant parents' perspectives on literacy learning, homework, and school-home communication. *School Community Journal, 16*(2), 27-46.	**Quantitative**
75.	Li, H., Corrie, L. F., & Wong, B. K. M. (2008). Early teaching	**Quantitative**

	of Chinese literacy skills and later literacy outcomes. *Early Child Development and Care, 178*(5), 441-459.	
76.	Li, H., Rao, N., & Tse, S. K. (2011). Bridging the gap: A longitudinal study of the relationship between pedagogical continuity and early Chinese literacy acquisition. *Early Years: An International Journal of Research and Development, 31*(1), 57-70.	**Mixed Methods**
77.	Li, J. (2016). Play or learn: European-American and Chinese kindergartners' perceptions about the conflict. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 86*(1), 57-74.	**Mixed Methods**
78.	Li, J. (2005). Women's status in a rural Chinese setting. *Rural Sociology, 70*(2), 229-252.	**Irrelevant**
79.	Li, L., & Tan, C. L. (2016). Home literacy environment and its influence on Singaporean children's Chinese oral and written language abilities. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 44*(4), 381-387.	**Quantitative**
80.	Ling, A. (1995). Recent Asian American fiction, drama, and film. *Transformations, 6*(2), 1-16.	**Irrelevant**
81.	Liu, N., Lin, C., & Wiley, T. G. (2016). Learner views on English and English language teaching in China. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 10*(2), 137-157.	**Quantitative**
82.	Liu, P. (2006). Community-based Chinese schools in southern California: A survey of teachers. *Language, Culture, and*	**Mixed Methods**

	Curriculum, 19(2), 237-247.	
83.	Liu, W. (2016). The changing pedagogical discourses in China. *English Teaching, 15*(1), 74-90.	**Irrelevant**
84.	Liu, Y., Xue, L., Xue, H., & Hou, P. (2018). Health literacy, self-care agency, health status, and social support among elderly Chinese nursing home residents. *Health Education Journal, 77*(3), 303-311.	**Quantitative**
85.	Li, Y., Lv, Y., & Huntsinger, C. S. (2015). Does preschool education exposure predict children's academic and behavioural outcomes in China? *Early Child Development and Care, 185*(1), 121-137.	**Mixed Methods**
86.	Lu, C., & Koda, K. (2011). Impact of home language and literacy support on English-Chinese biliteracy acquisition among Chinese heritage language learners. *Heritage Language Journal, 8*(2), 44-80.	**Mixed Methods**
87.	Lotherington, H., & Dagenais, D. (2008). Editorial Éditorial. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *65*(1), 1–9.	**Irrelevant**
88.	Lytra, V. (2010). Chinese as a heritage language: Fostering rooted world citizenry. *The International Journal of Bilingualism, 14*(1), 147-151.	**Irrelevant**
89.	McDermott, P. (2008). Acquisition, loss or multilingualism: Educational planning for speakers of migrant community languages in northern Ireland. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 9*(4), 483-500.	**Irrelevant**

90.	McGinnis, S. (2005). More than a silver bullet: The role of Chinese as a heritage language in the united states. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*(4), 592-594.	**Irrelevant**
91.	Mcwhirter, J. E., Todd, L. E., & Hoffman-goetz, L. (2011). Beliefs about causes of colon cancer by English-as-a-second-language Chinese immigrant women to Canada. *Journal of Cancer Education, 26*(4), 734-739.	**Irrelevant**
92.	Min, H., & Kangdi, C. (2016). A standalone but not lonely language: Chinese linguistic environment and education in Singapore context. *Journal of Education and Learning, 5*(4), 221-233.	**Irrelevant**
93.	Mohamad, F. S., Cook, C. C., & Gudmunson, C. G. (2012). Financial well-being of Malaysian college students. *Asian Education and Development Studies, 1*(2), 153-170.	**Irrelevant**
94.	Mu, G. M. (2014). Learning Chinese as a heritage language in Australia and beyond: The role of capital. *Language and Education, 28*(5), 477-492.	**Mixed Methods**
95.	Mu, G. M. (2016). Looking Chinese and learning Chinese as a heritage language: The role of habitus. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 15*(5), 293-305.	**Mixed Methods**
96.	Nag, S., Vagh, S. B., Katrina, M. D., & Snowling, M. J. (2019). Home language, school language and children's literacy attainments: A systematic review of evidence from low- and middle-income countries. *Review of*	**Irrelevant**

	Education, 7(1), 91-150.	
97.	Oguro, S., & Moloney, R. (2010). An alien from their own language: The case of Japanese in new south wales. *Babel, 44*(2), 22-31.	**Irrelevant**
98.	O'Meara, G. (2014). The necessity to redefine Chinese second language learners: A Victorian case study. *Babel, 49*(1), 18-25.	**Mixed Methods**
99.	O'Rourke, P., & Zhou, Q. (2018). Heritage and second language learners: Different perspectives on language learning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 21*(8), 994-1003.	**Irrelevant**
100.	Orton, J. (2016). Issues in Chinese language teaching in Australian schools. *Chinese Education and Society, 49*(6), 369-375.	**Irrelevant**
101.	Padilla, A. M., Fan, L., Xu, X., & Silva, D. (2013). A Mandarin/English two-way immersion program: Language proficiency and academic achievement. *Foreign Language Annals, 46*(4), 661-679.	**Mixed Methods**
102.	Park, H., Tsai, K. M., Liu, L. L., & Lau, A. S. (2012). Transactional associations between supportive family climate and young children's heritage language proficiency in immigrant families. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 36*(3), 226-236.	**Mixed Methods**
103.	Pan, J., Kong, Y., Song, S., Mcbride, C., Liu, H., & Shu, H. (2017). Socioeconomic status, parent report of children's	**Mixed Methods**

	early language skills, and late literacy skills: A long-term follow-up study among Chinese children. *Reading and Writing, 30*(2), 401-416.	
104.	Phillipson, S., & Phillipson, S. N. (2012). Children's cognitive ability and their academic achievement: The mediation effects of parental expectations. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 13*(3), 495-508.	**Mixed Methods**
105.	Phillipson, S., Phillipson, S. N., & Kewalramani, S. (2018). Cultural variability in the educational and learning capitals of Australian families and its relationship with Children's numeracy outcomes. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 41*(4), 348-368.	**Mixed Methods**
106.	Postiglione, G. (2009). Dislocated education: The case of Tibet. *Comparative Education Review, 53*(4), 483-512.	**Irrelevant**
107.	Potts, D., & Moran, M. J. (2013). Mediating multilingual children's language resources. *Language and Education, 27*(5), 451-468.	**Irrelevant**
108.	Prescott, C. (2015). 'Powerful knowledge' and the L2 Chinese curriculum in Victoria. *Babel, 50*(2-3), 28-35.	**Irrelevant**
109.	Pu, C. (2012). Community-based heritage language schools: A Chinese example. *Kappa Delta Pi Record, 48*(1), 29-34.	**Irrelevant**
110.	Qian, Y. (2019). Motivation to English academic writing: Chinese students' literacy autobiography. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 9*(5), 530-536.	**Irrelevant**

111.	Qin, X., & Andrews, S. (2010). Language and literature division, faculty of education, Hong Kong university. *Language Teaching, 43*(1), 108-112.	**Irrelevant**
112.	Rajah-Carrim, A. (2003). A discussion of language tables from the 2000 population census of Mauritius. *Edinburgh Working Papers in Applied Linguistics, 14*(12), 64-75.	**Irrelevant**
113.	Rajah-Carrim, A. (2005). Language use and attitudes in Mauritius on the basis of the 2000 population census. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 26*(4), 317-332.	**Irrelevant**
114.	Ren, L., Hu, B. Y., & Wu, Z. (2019). Profiles of literacy skills among Chinese preschoolers: Antecedents and consequences of profile membership. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *69*, 22–32.	**Mixed Methods**
115.	Ren, L., & Hu, G. (2013a). A comparative study of family social capital and literacy practices in Singapore. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 13*(1), 98-130.	**Irrelevant**
116.	Ren, L., & Hu, G. (2013b). Prolepsis, syncretism, and synergy in early language and literacy practices: A case study of family language policy in Singapore. *Language Policy, 12*(1), 63-82.	**Irrelevant**
117.	Rowe, D. W. (2019). Pointing with a pen: The role of gesture in early childhood writing. *Reading Research Quarterly, 54*(1), 13-39.	**Irrelevant**

118.	Sabri, M. F., MacDonald, M., Hira, T. K., & Masud, J. (2010). Childhood consumer experience and the financial literacy of college students in Malaysia. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 38*(4), 455-467.	**Irrelevant**
119.	Samuel, E., & Eva Krugly-Smolska, &. W. W. (2001). Academic achievement of adolescents from selected ethnocultural groups in Canada: A study consistent with john ogbu's theory. *McGill Journal of Education, 36*(1), 61-73.	**Mixed Methods**
120.	Scott, K. A., Roberts, J. A., & Krakow, R. (2008). Oral and written language development of children adopted from China. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology, 17*(2), 150-160.	**Mixed Methods**
121.	Scrimgeour, A., Foster, M., & Mao, W. (2013). Dealing with distinctiveness: Development of Chinese in the 'Australian curriculum: Languages'. *Babel, 48*(2-3), 20-29.	**Irrelevant**
122.	Scrimgeour, A. (2014). Responding to the diversity of Chinese language learners in Australian schools. *Babel, 49*(3), 26-36.	**Irrelevant**
123.	Scrimgeour, A. (2012). Understanding the nature of performance: The influence of learner background on school-age learner achievement in Chinese. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 35*(3), 312-338.	**Irrelevant**
124.	Shin, S. J. (2014). Language learning as culture keeping:	**Irrelevant**

	Family language policies of transnational adoptive parents. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 8*(3), 189-207.	
125.	Sims, J., Sims, J., & Coley, R. L. (2016). Independent contributions of mothers' and fathers' language and literacy practices: Associations with children's kindergarten skills across linguistically diverse households. *Early Education and Development, 27*(4), 495-512.	**Quantitative**
126.	Sinclair, J., Jang, E. E., & Vincett, M. (2019). Investigating linguistically diverse adolescents' literacy trajectories using latent transition modeling. *Reading Research Quarterly, 54*(1), 81-107.	**Irrelevant**
127.	Skerrett, A. (2017). The role of language in religious identity making: A case of a Caribbean-Chinese youth. *Literacy Research: Theory, Method, and Practice, 66*(1), 325-340.	**Irrelevant**
128.	Sun, D. (2012). 'Everything goes smoothly': A case study of an immigrant Chinese language teacher's personal practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies, 28*(5), 760-767.	**Irrelevant**
129.	Sun, L. (2016). Babies without borders. *Multicultural Education, 23*(2), 55-59.	**Irrelevant**
130.	Su, M., Peyre, H., Song, S., McBride, C., Tardif, T., Li, H., &	**Mixed**

	Shu, H. (2017). The influence of early linguistic skills and family factors on literacy acquisition in Chinese children: Follow-up from age 3 to age 11. *Learning and Instruction, 49*, 54-63.	**Methods**
131.	Tamis-LeMonda, C., Sze, I. N., Ng, F. F., Kahana-Kalman, R., & Yoshikawa, H. (2013). Maternal teaching during play with four-year-olds: Variation by ethnicity and family resources. *Merrill - Palmer Quarterly, 59*(3), 361-398.	**Mixed Methods**
132.	Thapa, C. B., & Adamson, B. (2018). Ethnicity, language-in-education policy and linguistic discrimination: Perspectives of Nepali students in Hong Kong. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 39*(4), 329-340.	**Irrelevant**
133.	Thurlow, M., Liu, K., Albus, D., & Shyyan, V. (2003). Literature on early literacy instruction in four languages (Chinese, Korean, Navajo, Russian). *National Center on Educational Outcomes, University of Minnesota*, 1-188.	**Irrelevant**
134.	Tian, Y. (2017). 'Sorry, but they do not want Chinese Americans to participate': A case study of tracking in an ivy league Chinese language program. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 14*(4), 437-462.	**Irrelevant**
135.	Todd, L., & Hoffman-goetz, L. (2011). A qualitative study of cancer information seeking among English-as-a-second-language older Chinese immigrant women to Canada: Sources, barriers, and strategies. *Journal of Cancer*	**Irrelevant**

	Education, 26(2), 333-40.	
136.	Wahyudi, R. (2016). Second language literacy practices: A case study of a Chinese student in Australia. *TEFLIN Journal, 27*(1), 101-125.	**Irrelevant**
137.	Wan, G., & Gut, D. M. (2008). Media use by Chinese and U.S. secondary students: Implications for media literacy education. *Theory into Practice, 47*(3), 178-185.	**Irrelevant**
138.	Wang, D. (2011). The new curriculum and the urban-rural literacy gap: The case of one county in western China. *Chinese Education and Society, 44*(6), 87-101.	**Irrelevant**
139.	Wang, J., Li, H., & Wang, D. (2018). Bridging the rural-urban literacy gap in china: A mediation analysis of family effects. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 32*(1), 119-134.	**Quantitative**
140.	Wang, Q., Andrews, J., Liu, H. T., & Liu, C. J. (2016). Case studies of Multilingual/Multicultural Asian deaf adults: Strategies for success. *American Annals of the Deaf, 161*(1), 67-88.	**Irrelevant**
141.	Wang, S., Liu, X., & Zhao, Y. (2012). Opportunities to learn in school and at home: How can they predict students' understanding of basic science concepts and principles? *International Journal of Science Education, 34*(13), 2061-2088.	**Irrelevant**
142	Wang, X., Bernas, R., & Eberhard, P. (2002). Variations of maternal support to children's early literacy development	**Mixed Methods**

	in Chinese and American Indian families: Implications for early childhood educators. *International Journal of Early Childhood, 34*(1), 9-23.	
143.	Wei, M., & Zhou, Y. (2012). Effects of a language-minority family's activities in early second language writing development. *TESOL Journal, 3*(2), 181-209.	**Mixed Methods**
144.	Weinstein-Shr, G., & Lewis, N. E. (1989). Language, literacy, and the older refugee in America: Research agenda for the 90s. *College ESL, 1*(1), 1-29.	**Irrelevant**
145.	Wei, Z. D. (2006). A discussion on development of education resources for college students as family tutors. *International Journal of Progressive Education, 2*(1), 37-52.	**Irrelevant**
146.	Williams, A. I., Uchikoshi, Y., Bunge, S. A., & Zhou, Q. (2019). Relations of English and heritage language proficiency to response inhibition and attention shifting in dual language learners in head start. *Early Education and Development, 30*(3), 357-374.	**Mixed Methods**
147.	Willinsky, J., & Thomas, L. (1997). Students' perceptions of racial and ethnic tensions in pacific region schools. *Canadian Journal of Education, 22*(4), 361-376.	**Irrelevant**
148.	Willoughby, L. (2009). Language choice in multilingual peer groups: Insights from an Australian high school. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 30*(5),	**Irrelevant**

	421-435.	
149.	Wu, C., & Honig, A. S. (2013). Taiwanese preschoolers' emergent reading behaviors with an unfamiliar storybook. *Early Child Development and Care, 183*(10), 1486-1507.	**Quantitative**
150.	Wu, M., Lee, K., & Leung, G. (2014). Heritage language education and investment among Asian American middle schoolers: Insights from a charter school. *Language and Education, 28*(1), 19-33.	**Irrelevant**
151.	Wu, N. H., & Kim, S. Y. (2009). Chinese American adolescents' perceptions of the language brokering experience as a sense of burden and sense of efficacy. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 38*(5), 703-718.	**Mixed Methods**
152.	Xu, H. L., & Moloney, R. (2014). Identifying Chinese heritage learners' motivations learning needs and learning goals: A case study of a cohort of heritage learners in an Australian university. *Language Learning in Higher Education, 4*(2), 365-393.	**Irrelevant**
153.	Xu, L. (2017). Written feedback in intercultural doctoral supervision: A case study. *Teaching in Higher Education, 22*(2), 239-255.	**Irrelevant**
154.	Xu, X., Padilla, A. M., & Silva, D. M. (2015). Learner performance in mandarin immersion and high school world language programs: A comparison. *Foreign Language Annals, 48*(1), 26-38.	**Irrelevant**

155.	Xu, X., & Padilla, A. M. (2013). Using meaningful interpretation and chunking to enhance memory: The case of Chinese character learning. *Foreign Language Annals, 46*(3), 402-422.	**Irrelevant**
156.	Yan, R. L. (2003). Parental perceptions on maintaining heritage languages of CLD students. *The Bilingual Review, 27*(2), 99-113.	**Mixed Methods**
157.	Yang, C. L., Poh, W. K., Deacon, S. H., & Chen, X. (2018). The roles of metalinguistic skills in Chinese–English biliteracy development. *Reading and Writing, 31*(8), 1721-1740.	**Mixed Methods**
158.	Yang, F. (2016). The effect of four different approaches to parent-child reading on young Chinese children's reading. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies, 4*(3), 47-53.	**Mixed Methods**
159.	Ye, H. (2017). On necessity and feasibility of foreignization in the translation of classical Chinese poetry. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 7*(6), 455-460.	**Irrelevant**
160.	Ye, H. (2019). On translation of cultural images in ancient Chinese poems. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 9*(2), 239-244.	**Irrelevant**
161.	Yeh, Y. (2012). Teaching language and culture: The importance of prior knowledge when reading Chinese as a second language. *Journal of Multilingual Education Research, 3*, 91-122.	**Mixed Methods**

162.	Yeung, S. S., & King, R. B. (2016). Home literacy environment and English language and literacy skills among Chinese young children who learn English as a second language. *Reading Psychology, 37*(1), 92-120.	**Quantitative**
163.	You, B., & Liu, N. (2011). Stakeholder views on the roles, challenges, and future prospects of Korean and Chinese heritage language-community language schools in phoenix: A comparative study. *Heritage Language Journal, 8*(3), 67-92,	**Mixed Methods**
164.	Yu, S. (2015). The relationships among heritage language proficiency, ethnic identity, and self-esteem. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education, 2*(2), 57-71.	**Quantitative**
165.	Zhang, C., Ollila, L. O., & Harvey, C. B. (1998). Chinese parents' perceptions of their children's literacy and schooling in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Education / Revue Canadienne De l'Éducation, 23*(2), 182-190.	**Mixed Methods**
166.	Zhang, D., & Koda, K. (2011). Home literacy environment and word knowledge development: A study of young learners of Chinese as a heritage language. *Bilingual Research Journal, 34*(1), 4-18.	**Quantitative**
167.	Zhang, G. X., & Li, L. M. (2010). Chinese language teaching in the UK: Present and future. *Language Learning Journal, 38*(1), 87-97.	**Irrelevant**
168.	Zhang, J., Pelletier, J., & Doyle, A. (2010). Promising effects	**Mixed**

	of an intervention: Young children's literacy gains and changes in their home literacy activities from a bilingual family literacy program in Canada. *Frontiers of Education in China, 5*(3), 409-429.	**Methods**
169.	Zhang, X., Hu, B. Y., Ren, L., Huo, S., & Wang, M. (2019). Young Chinese children's academic skill development: Identifying child, family, and school level factors. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development,* (163), 9-37.	**Irrelevant**
170.	Zhang, Y., Hannum, E., & Wang, M. (2008). Gender-based employment and income differences in urban china: Considering the contributions of marriage and parenthood. *Social Forces, 86*(4), 1529-1560.	**Irrelevant**
171.	Zhang, Y. (2016). International students in transition: Voices of Chinese doctoral students in a U.S. research university. *Journal of International Students, 6*(1), 175-194.	**Irrelevant**

Appendix C: Reported deductive themes related to Chinese parents' literacy practices and roles in their Chinese children's literacy learning at home

Deductive Themes Related to Chinese Parents	Study ID	No. of Studies
Home reading and writing	4, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 22, 23, 25, 27, 28, 31, 33, 34, 38, 39, 41	19
Culturally embedded conversations	13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 22, 23, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 38, 39, 40, 41	16
Providing home literacy materials	4, 14, 15, 18, 19, 24, 25, 27, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 38, 39, 41	16
Parents helping their children learn literacy with other family members	4, 12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 24, 28, 30, 33, 34, 38, 40, 41	14
Parents creating literacy learning opportunities outside the home	4,7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23, 24, 27, 28, 31, 33, 38 39, 40, 41	21
Asking/getting advice from institutions or others about children's literacy learning	12, 24, 25, 41	4
Parental expectations of their children's literacy achievement (becoming biliterate/multiliterate and maintaining CHL and/or culture)	2, 4, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 31, 32, 33, 34, 38, 39, 40, 41	26

Parents' own literacy experiences	**2, 9, 14, 23, 24, 25, 27, 31**	**8**
Family capital (social status, parents' educational level, and/or financial status)	**2, 9, 15, 16, 17, 21, 24, 28, 30**	**9**

Appendix D: Reported deductive themes related to the practices and roles of CHL teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning in the CHL classrooms

Deductive Themes Related to CHL Teachers	Study ID	No. of Studies
Situated practice	1, 3, 5,7,8, 10, 11, 21, 29, 35, 36, 37	12
Overt Instruction	1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 21, 26, 29, 35, 36	13
Critical Framing	1, 10, 11, 13, 29, 35, 36	7
Transformed Practice	1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 21, 29, 36	9

Appendix E: Findings summary of the practices and roles of Chinese parents and CHL

teachers in Chinese children's literacy learning at home and in the CHL classrooms

My Findings Summary	**Study ID**	**No. of Studies**
Chinese parents' role in connecting children with literacy networks	**4, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 38, 38, 40, 41**	**28**
The CHL teachers' role as Chinese-English biliteracy mediators	**1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 20, 21, 26, 29, 35, 36**	**15**

Curriculum Vitae

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