

What Does the Post-secondary Mandarin Foreign Language Inclusive Classroom Look Like? The State of the Art and Some Practical Suggestions¹

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Abstract

There are innumerable surveys of research on inclusive education in higher education (see Hockings, 2010); however, none of these focuses specifically on inclusive pedagogical practices in the Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) classroom. This study takes an approach based on the Universal Design for Learning (CAST, 2018) understanding of inclusivity, which considers the affective, recognitional, and strategic aspects of learning as areas in which multimodal approaches may increase engagement, understanding, and opportunities for expression and assessment. Based on this approach, the existing literature in one of the top North American journals in the CFL field from the past twenty years is surveyed. Subsequently, this study offers suggestions based on the existing literature on inclusion and its applications in CFL, taking into account the unique aspects of the CFL content, classroom, and greater environments.

Keywords: inclusion, UDL, pedagogy, multimodal education, CFL

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¹ While there are many varieties of Chinese (variously called dialects, topolects, and languages), Mandarin is the variety taught in most institutions of higher education, as it is the designated national language of the People's Republic of China. In the literature reviewed, "Chinese" almost exclusively refers to Mandarin, despite arguments by scholars of Cantonese and other varieties that their languages are also Chinese. Less exclusionary terms for these varieties include "Chineses" or "Sinophone languages" (Shih 2004, p. 29; Tee 2010, p. 85). However, for the most part, all varieties of Chinese use the same character set and written form (though grammar and word choice varies), and so this paper refers to Chinese characters instead of Mandarin or Cantonese characters when discussing orthography and the written form. Where other scholars have discussed Chinese and mean Mandarin, I preserve their original wording.

1 INTRODUCTION

What would an inclusive Mandarin Chinese foreign language (hereafter CFL) classroom look like at the university level? Historically, there is less research on inclusion at the post-secondary level and very little at all in CFL pedagogy (Tobin & Behling, 2018, pp. 26, 30). The teaching of Mandarin as a foreign language is unique from the teaching of other subjects both in terms of the subject matter and the landscape of the field. Any study of what inclusion would look like for the CFL classroom must consider these differences as well as the existent research on inclusive education to explore how progress might be made in making CFL learning more accessible to all students. This study encompasses a review of theoretical research and empirical findings related to inclusive education, CFL research related to inclusive education and an analysis of how inclusion might differ for the CFL classroom.

In the field of education studies, inclusive learning and teaching has been the subject of much research over the past several decades. Growing out of civil rights movements and legislation aimed at protecting vulnerable populations, this field of research has looked at many aspects of education through the lens of inclusion. Studies have shown that the creation of a classroom accessible to all, including students with disabilities, benefits not only those students but the student body as a whole (McGregor & Vogelsberg, 1998; Waldron, Cole, & Majd, 2001).

Just what inclusion means, however, is a question that researchers must grapple with; as is true for all words, its definition can only ever be provisional. Various studies have assumed focuses on students' disabilities, race/ethnicity, socio-economic class, geographic origin, cultural background, linguistic background, sexual orientation, gender, religious beliefs, life experience, educational preparedness, ways of life, and approaches to learning (Hockings, 2010, p. 2). For the purposes of this study, the inclusive classroom is conceived of not in relation to any one specific group; instead, in line with Hockings (2010), I define inclusion as being underpinned "by the values of equity and fairness.....

taking account of and valuing students' differences within mainstream curriculum, pedagogy and assessment" (p. 3).

Such an understanding of inclusion is compatible with the principles of universal design for learning (UDL), which grew out of the movement for architectural accessibility in the 20th century (Tobin & Behling, 2018, pp. 2-3). Where inclusion is the aim, UDL is a framework for understanding its various aspects and how they may be fostered. According to Tobin and Behling (2018), UDL seeks to answer the question, "How do colleges and universities adopt a set of design principles for learners' interactions with materials, each other, their instructors, and the wider world that positively affects the greatest number of students from the start?" (p. 30). Hockings' definition of the inclusive classroom and UDL principles both emphasize the importance of inclusion being a premeditated, guiding force rather than a series of post-hoc reactions to student requests.

A UDL framework breaks down the ways in which learning can be accessible into three categories: learner engagement, means of representation, and ways of action and expression. These aspects of learning – the affective, recognitional, and strategic in other words – represent the why, what, and how of learning respectively (CAST, 2018). Improving the affective aspect of learning requires enhancing student motivation and the subjective experience of the learning process. Improving the recognitional aspect involves presenting knowledge in a variety of formats, modes, and ways. Improving the strategic aspect means ensuring students have multiple modes of engagement with the instructor, material, and each other, so they can express themselves, be assessed, and self-assess in a variety of ways. The Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST) developed guidelines targeting the ways in which each aspect of the learning process can be designed to be accessible to as wide an array of learners as possible:

Figure 1: Universal Design for Learning Guidelines (CAST, 2018)



Determining what this means for the CFL classroom is a multi-pronged endeavor. It first necessitates a survey of what research has been done in CFL as a field, both that explicitly addressing inclusion and that which analyzes multiple means of learner engagement, information access, and expression. It will also require analysis of how the study of Mandarin Chinese might have special implications: for example, as a logographic language, the process of acquiring reading and writing skills differs tremendously from phonetic languages like English. Finally, what defines an inclusive CFL classroom cannot be discovered without empirical research to determine what works and what doesn't.

2 DATA AND METHODS

While a full review of the history and major findings in inclusive education is beyond the scope of this or any paper, below I review findings on inclusion

that have appeared in the *Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association / Chinese as a Second Language* (hereafter *JCLTA/CSL*)² over a period of twenty years, 2000 to 2019, Vol. 35 Issue 1 to Vol. 54 Issue 1, covering 58 issues and 401 articles. This journal is the most influential and longstanding academic periodical on CFL in the United States, publishing articles in both Chinese (simplified and traditional) and English.

Initially, a corpus was constructed from these issues to facilitate keyword searches in order to identify articles related to inclusion in the CFL classroom. However, results were limited. “Universal Design for Learning” or “UDL” was not mentioned in any article, and while “inclusive” occurred 66 times, a review of these instances showed that only two articles used the term to refer to inclusive education practices as defined by this study. Therefore, a more thorough, manual search was conducted to review articles in the corpus for their relevance to inclusive education and UDL.

First, all articles were categorized based on their titles and abstracts. Book reviews and letters to the editor were excluded, as well as articles that focused exclusively on language (such as the grammatical properties of a particular construction or origins of a character), rather than the teaching of it. This resulted in a subcorpus of 224 articles related to Chinese pedagogy. These articles were then reviewed based on their relevance to the three aspects of the UDL framework, engagement, representation, and expression, by asking the following questions respectively: Does this study focus on the mental or emotional states of students – how motivating and demotivating factors can affect student engagement in the CFL classroom? Does this study focus on multiple modes of material presentation – how understanding can be promoted through variation and contextualization of input? Does this study focus on multiple modes of learning and assessment – how teachers might provide students with a variety of channels for communication,

2 The name of the *Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association (JCLTA)* was changed to *Chinese as a Second Language (CSL)* in 2016.

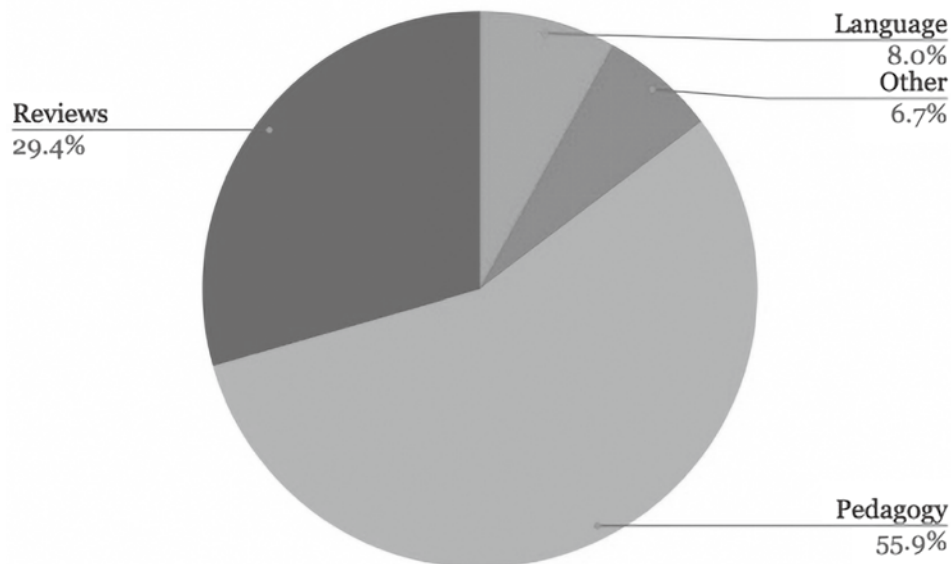
tools for expression, and agency in the learning process? Articles that met these criteria are introduced below to provide an outline of existing research on inclusive CFL education in *JCLTA/CSL* and identify avenues for future research.

While the articles are primarily organized based on the three categories identified above – engagement, representation, and action/expression – an additional review is subsequently offered of research related to inclusion above the classroom level. As a framework for practitioners, UDL guides course design, assessment, and day-to-day teaching. Institutional policies, research agendas, and social, cultural, and political environments, however, are also essential factors affecting the inclusiveness of any classroom. Though a full survey of inclusion at this level in CFL is beyond the scope of this study, a brief one is conducted to identify issues that may require institutional rather than individual responses.

3 LITERATURE REVIEW

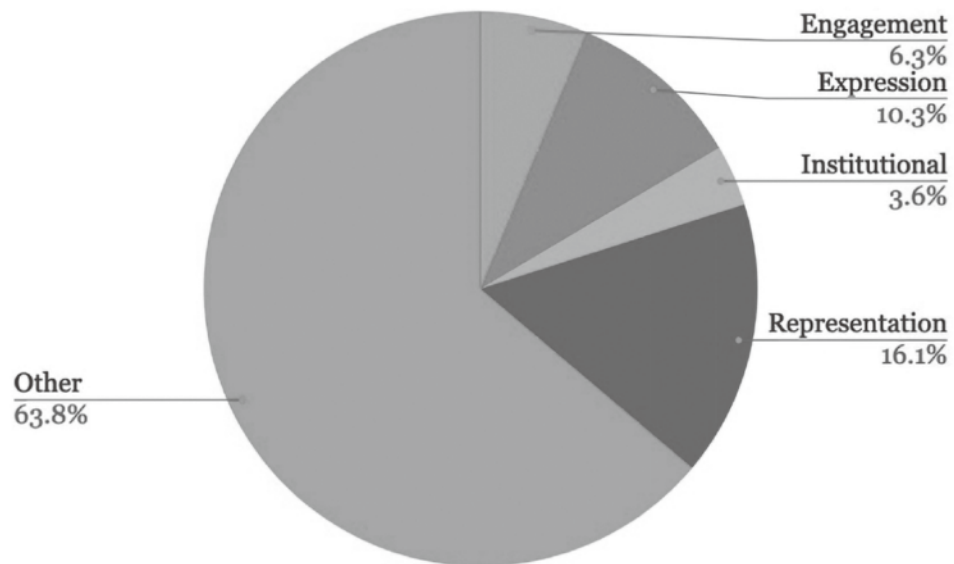
Of the 401 articles from *JCLTA/CSL* published from the beginning of 2000 to the end of 2019, 224, or 56%, were determined to relate directly to pedagogy. The second largest category at 29% (118) was made up of reviews of other books or teaching materials, while 8% (32) of the articles were on aspects of Chinese language and linguistics. The remaining 7% (27) were other types of articles such as letters to the editor. Articles that dealt with Chinese language/linguistics and also teaching, even briefly (for example, a study of the *ba* construction and how it might be taught) were categorized as pedagogy related. The breakdown of article type is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Types of articles published in *JCLTA/CSL* from 2000-2019



These 224 pedagogy articles were subsequently reviewed based on the criteria mentioned in the Data and Methods section to determine their relevance to inclusive teaching and UDL as well as related institutional factors. Where a study might address more than one aspect of the UDL framework, as frequently occurred in studies related to both the representation of content and learners' active engagement with it, it was categorized based on the aspect it dealt with most substantially. The breakdown of pedagogy articles by subject is presented in Figure 3. In total, 14 articles were found to be related to inclusion and students' engagement and affective states, 36 articles were related to inclusive representation of course material, 23 articles were related to inclusive learner action and expression, and 8 were related to institutional factors. The remaining 143 articles did not deal with inclusion substantially.

Figure 3: Subjects of pedagogy-related articles published in *JCLTA/CSL* from 2000-2019



Ultimately, 20% of all articles published in *JCLTA/CSL* during the twenty year period surveyed dealt substantially with an aspect of inclusive education as defined by the UDL framework, though these articles rarely explicitly presented the subject matter as such. Rather, these studies were often framed as being aimed at improving teaching effectiveness. This comes as no surprise given that many studies show more inclusive teaching is also more effective teaching, not just for students with special needs but for all learners (McGregor & Vogelsberg, 1998; Waldron, Cole, & Majd, 2001). In the remainder of this section, representative articles are surveyed, focusing first on classroom-internal factors and next on the larger institutional environment.

3.1 Classroom-internal factors

Articles related to classroom-internal factors are organized based on the three aspects of the learning process identified by UDL – engagement, representation, and expression (CAST, 2018). The literature related to engagement

was found to focus on students' mental and affective states, including anxiety and motivation. Articles related to representation, or the recognitional aspect of learning, were found to focus largely on the use of the internet and multimedia materials in teaching, though these were not explicitly identified in studies as methods of promoting inclusion. Studies identified as relating to the strategic aspect of learning focus on diversified modes of classroom participation and communication. This organizational structure, however, should not be understood as an exclusive grouping: as these three aspects of learning are all interconnected and affect each other, studies on any one aspect of the learning process will invariably touch on the others.

3.1.1 Engagement

Studies identified in the literature related to students' affective experiences focus primarily on two topics that may be considered two sides of the same coin: anxiety and motivation. Studies on anxiety identify factors that might discourage learners and potential remedies, while studies on motivation identify factors that could encourage students to participate more actively and how to foster these.

The perception that Mandarin is a difficult language, as well as students' perceptions of their skill levels as inadequate (sometimes in comparison to classmates with stronger language levels), are often cited as causes of anxiety in the CFL classroom (Zhao & Whitchurch, 2011; Zhou, 2014; Luo, 2013). Self-perception of low proficiency and perception of class difficulty are identified as factors correlated with higher anxiety by Zhao and Whitchurch (2011). Zhou (2014) also writes that different skill levels in the same classroom, especially along the heritage/non-heritage divide, can provoke feelings of anxiety or inadequacy. She further identifies the perception of Mandarin's difficulty and the prevalence of a more teacher-centered, "drill instructor" style pedagogy as CFL specific sources of anxiety (p. 53).

Student identity and related expectations are also shown to be related to

student anxiety. Luo (2013) shows statistical differences in anxiety along the heritage/non-heritage divide. Although she shows that students with a heritage language background experience less anxiety on a statistically significant level, she notes that Chinese-American students without a language background experience a level of anxiety slightly higher than non-Chinese-American students and well above that of Chinese-Americans with a language background. This suggests that expectations about language ability based on ethnicity, whether internalized, assumed, or perceived in the classroom, can negatively affect student engagement.

Situationally, sources of anxiety include tasks that are over-challenging, while suggested remedies focus on encouragement, scaffolding, and setting aside time for review in course design (Wang, Crooks, & Borst, 2017; Mou, 2013; Hayden, 2003). Wang, Crooks, and Borst (2017) examines the differences in foreign language anxiety between students who are paired with native speakers vs. non-native speakers in a computer-mediated communication activity. The study finds that students experience more anxiety when partnered with native-speaking partners, and the authors conclude that teaching incorporating such interactions should take additional measures to reduce this anxiety, such as warm-up activities and explicitly mentioning the benefits of conversing with native speakers to students (p. 141). Mou (2003) identifies Chinese orthography as a daunting aspect of language learning, especially among beginners, and recommends incorporating regular, low-stakes writing assignments, such as a weekly journal assignment graded on completion rather than accuracy and regular in-class writing, with the explicit goal of building learner confidence (p. 112, 127). In terms of course design, Hayden (2003) notes that Chinese course progressions in higher education typically do not account for knowledge or proficiency drops due to summer or winter breaks, which can lead students to feel discouraged at the outset of a new academic term. In addition to suggesting that programs build in a certain amount of review at the beginning of a new term, he encourages explicit encouragement of

students and the fostering of a growth mindset.

In addition to situational factors, more long-lasting factors such as personality and comfort with risk are linked to anxiety in some of the research on CFL classrooms. Sun (2017) notes that introversion and extraversion can affect students' preferred methods of feedback and advises instructors to consider students' personalities when providing it (pp. 182-183). Lin (2017) writes that most students are risk averse, or conservative, in their approach to language production and recommends that instructors foster a friendly, encouraging environment so that anxiety would not prevent them from participating (p. 167). While these characteristics are difficult to quantify, initial empirical research still identifies them as important factors related to students' affective experiences.

Articles on motivation also explore students' preexisting reasons for pursuing CFL studies as well as their motivation in the classroom. Two articles since 2000 in *JCLTA/CSL* focus primarily on student motivation and engagement. Ji, Duffield, Wageman and Welch (2017) focuses on the environment of the CFL classroom in the United States; their survey finds that students' perceptions of equitable treatment and active involvement are correlated with student motivation. Their conclusion that "students are more likely to be actively involved in classroom learning activities when teachers facilitate learning, rather than directing it" supports the establishment of a communicative approach in language teaching (p. 121). Xie (2018) surveys students' goals and their relationship to motivation in the higher education CFL context. She finds that while extrinsic motivation, such as a language requirement, may encourage students to begin CFL studies, intrinsic motivation related to global competence and an ideal L2 self are strong factors helping them persist in their course of study. In research on study abroad experiences, He (2008) finds that even brief experiences and exposure to the use of language in real-world contexts can significantly boost motivation and confidence. These studies point to the importance of how students see themselves and their relationship with their instructors as a factor impacting their motivation.

In addition to the classroom environment and students' goals related to language learning, course materials and design can be factors that increase motivation. Studies on authentic, relevant materials show that these better prepare students for real-world interaction and are often more attractive to students due to their relevance, especially when incorporated into communicative task-based activities (Zhang, 2012). Zhang (2005) also demonstrate how paired conversation with a native speaker can motivate learners, given that the exercises are scaffolded and the native speakers receive some instruction from the teacher as well. Existing studies point out that natural conversation, especially when it appears "messy" or contrary to textbook-driven expectations, can be intimidating to students and instructors alike, therefore additional contextualization may be needed when they are incorporated (Tao, 2005 pp. 15-16). The benefits of exposure to native speakers and authentic texts and contexts are well attested, while potential pitfalls related to insufficient contextualization are also highlighted.

Overall, the subjects of anxiety and motivation are well studied in *JCLTA*. Some studies document factors affecting students' affective experiences of the learning process, while others offer specific pedagogical interventions to reduce anxiety and increase motivation and confidence. However, most of these interventions are activity-specific or limited to a single aspect of language proficiency, and no studies in the data set deal with explicitly with psychological conditions such as clinical anxiety, depression, or ADHD, all common conditions which can affect students' affective experiences in the CFL classroom.

3.1.2 Representation

Representation in the UDL framework refers to providing content or information in multiple modes so that students have multiple options for perception, multiple ways to decode and contextualize language, and different kinds of support for comprehension (CAST, 2018). The articles found to address these issues largely dealt with ways that reading and listening could be supported

in the CFL classroom, whether through a particular teaching philosophy and structure, specific pedagogical techniques, or the use of multimedia technology to enhance learners' experiences.

A number of studies in the literature specifically propose new teaching philosophies, frameworks, or course structures to better guide students. Offered as alternatives to more traditional, teacher-centered instructional approaches, these approaches emphasized contextualization of language in its cultural and pragmatic contexts to help students make connections and increase their comprehension. Among the approaches is a Pedagogical Grammar of Chinese (PGC), which emphasizes a communicative teaching style and a research-based organization of content tailored to language learners' needs (Xing, 2003). Other proposed approaches include overt instruction of discourse contexts (Li, 2004), as well as thematic structuring of lessons to facilitate learning of new linguistic forms and functions (Jin & Liang, 2004). Li (2010) and Xing (2011) both discuss evidence-based ways to structure vocabulary instruction in the CFL classroom. Largely based on empirical studies of language acquisition, these approaches are put forward as frameworks for course design as well as instruction that introduce content in more effective and more accessible ways.

Pedagogical techniques and interventions are also proposed to enhance learner contextualization and comprehension of course content. Bai (2001) describes the application of the spiraling principle, in which previously covered course material is recycled in different forms, to enhance learner retention and comprehension. A number of articles analyze different scaffolding techniques, in teacher questioning (Zhang, Zhao & Goh, 2009), contextualized presentation of video texts (Mu & Zhang, 2005), and structured lexis acquisition (Huang, 2002). These techniques are all aimed at enhancing learning by providing additional context and support in the development of L2 comprehension.

Perhaps one of the most robust areas of research into inclusive representation in CFL literature is on the teaching of orthography: numerous studies address how

Chinese characters may best be taught so that learners can recognize and decode them. As one of the most time-consuming and labor intensive aspects of Chinese language learning, it is no surprise that mastering Chinese orthography requires unique approaches to course design and instruction. Studies relevant to inclusive orthography instruction primarily deal with the questions of course design and methods of contextualizing characters during instruction.

In terms of course design, some studies advocate that characters be taught as part of a separate course, if resources allow (Xiao, 2002, p.81; Yin, 2007), while others argue that particular attention to proper handwriting of characters is essential in elementary Chinese courses (Li & Li, 2006). Still others propose a “penless” or computer typing-based approach to instruction (Xu, 2005), which is discussed in more detail in the following section. As one of the more controversial aspects of CFL, there is no broad consensus on course design.

In terms of pedagogical techniques, however, there is widespread consensus on the most effective ways to facilitate greater recognition of characters, which also happens to be a more inclusive approach to teaching: presenting them via multiple modes and facilitating learner understanding of overall patterns. Yin (2002) emphasizes the importance of teaching proper stroke order in helping students to develop an understanding of the logic of Chinese orthography, while multiple studies urge that the smaller components of characters, primarily radicals but also phonetic components, be taught early and overtly (Jin, 2006; Lin, 2000; Zhang, 2001; Phyllis Zhang, 2009). Both Zhu and Hong (2005) and Wu (2012), which look at the incorporation of multimedia technology into character teaching, find that the presentation of characters simultaneously with audio of their pronunciation enhances learner retention. All proposed techniques focus on helping learners build a solid understanding of the logic of characters from an early stage so as to enhance their ability to decode and remember new and unfamiliar characters.

The remaining studies focus on how instructors may present material in multiple modes with multimedia technologies and help students use new

technologies and digital resources to enhance their comprehension abilities. Computer assisted language learning (CALL) has long been an active subject of research in CFL (see Yao, 2009; Peng, 2008; and Bourgerie, 2003), and many studies in this field have applications in inclusive education, primarily by enabling students to access course content in a variety of ways. Multiple studies find positive benefits for learners in the incorporation of multimedia video content into instruction (Zhang, 2009; Wu, 2014; Huang & Lammers, 2018), with Huang and Lammers (2018) cautioning that scaffolding may be necessary to ensure all learners get the most out of context-rich video content (p. 274). Other research explores how speech recognition technologies such as Praat can help learners visualize audio input and output to improve their pronunciation, while acknowledging that research on its applications and effectiveness is still at an early stage (Chan, 2003; Tao, Beutner, & Bond, 2006). The use of technology to help students decode and better process course content is overall quite widely addressed in the literature, often via experimental and empirical pilot studies.

3.1.3 Action/Expression

The aspect of UDL dealing with action/expression addresses how teachers facilitate student access, interaction, and strategizing. Whereas representation is more associated with how teachers present content, action/expression focuses on how learners engage with it, such as by completing an activity or giving a report. Most of the research related to the strategic, or action/expression aspect of UDL in the literature reviewed deals with either technical or pedagogical changes in how students express themselves in the classroom. Technical research largely focuses on the introduction of tools such as electronic dictionaries and platforms such as online forums, while pedagogical research focuses on different forms of classroom interaction, such as student-centered, jigsaw-structured group work.

Research on the recognitional aspect of CFL learning focuses on how characters may best be taught, but literature on the action/expression aspect of

CFL learning focuses on how they may be produced, and even whether they must be. Gil (2014) notes that the difficulty of character acquisition can deter potential students and lead others to quit, recommending that, “[t]eachers and program coordinators should consider whether, and to what degree, learners need to learn to [write] characters and consider the use of technological aids for character writing” (p. 82). Xu (2005) advocates a “penless” approach to characters, citing research that shows replacing handwriting with typing leads to faster improvement not only in writing, but in other aspects of Chinese proficiency as well. Zheng-sheng Zhang (2009) also points out the usefulness of typing Chinese for enhancing associations between characters based on their phonetic components (pp. 82-83). However, the appropriate way to incorporate this relatively new method for students to express themselves via writing is still debated in the literature (Dew, 2005, i-iii).

CFL research also explores the use of new technologies, such as dictionaries and glossing tools, to enhance reading. One study on student utilization of a pop-up dictionary finds that it results in enhanced reading comprehension (Wang & Upton, 2013). Xie (2010) surveys the benefits and drawbacks of having students use online dictionaries in reading and writing activities, noting that if used properly, they can facilitate extensive reading and faster, more convenient searching of information. According to Poole and Sung (2016), whether or how to utilize such tools – an e-gloss in their study – should not be a unilateral decision by the instructor, noting that “because some learners demonstrate higher learning gains in one format or the other, learners should have a voice in determining whether or not the tool is used. This is to say that a teacher should not force one tool on all learners, as it may prove inefficient for some students” (p. 280).

The use of multimedia technology to help students develop their speaking skills is also addressed in the literature. Chen (2008) and Yu (2012) both discuss the use of video in activities designed to help students practice speaking, with the former describing the assignment of filmed skits to students and the latter showing how directing students to record narration for video footage can be a novel use

of the medium. These studies both describe how the use of the video medium can allow students an additional way to express themselves beyond traditional in-class recitation or dialogue-based activities.

While online and multimedia technologies may enhance student engagement in reading and writing, they can also provide platforms for new formats of interaction and language learning in CFL. Xie (2007) describes how wikis, blogs, and podcasting can facilitate more collaborative learning formats, such as collaborative writing, and provide learners with an outlet for authentic expression and interaction. The benefits of having students use Zhihu, a Quora-like Chinese-language question-and-answer forum, as part of class are also discussed by Zeng (2018), who finds that the new, flexible format fosters student autonomy. Another study on online discussion boards, blogs, and Skype highlights the importance of different communicative modes to contextualize and reinforce course content (Jin, 2009). These studies of pedagogical forays into digital spaces all offer insight into how to structure and scaffold learning that interfaces with the world outside the classroom.

Studies on online-only or partially online study of Chinese are also relevant to the fostering of student communication and composition across multiple media. Multiple studies cite the flexibility of online modules or blended learning as a key advantage for students at different proficiency levels and different schedules (Lin & Huang, 2011; Zhang, 2004). Shen and Tsai (2010) conduct an empirical study of the implementation of an online extensive reading program. They find that students who used the system as a supplement to their in-class studies reported they benefitted both from learning via multiple modes – the system included visual aids – as well as the online formative assessment process. However, the difference between Chinese and English orthography (as well as the requirement of downloading or installing a separate input method) can be a barrier for students (Idhe & Jian, 2003). Instructor scaffolding and support was suggested as a way to facilitate this form of student interaction (Idhe & Jian, 2003), including explicitly

teaching students how to access and use online resources (Bai, 2003).

Research on scaffolding and other measures of supporting learners of different levels is another major area in which CFL literature can help create an inclusive environment for student expression. The UDL framework for inclusion advises that instructors provide scaffolding and differentiated feedback to help students build their skills. Several studies (Magee & Jacobs, 2001; Shih, 2006; Li & Hede bouw, 2009) described the employment of the jigsaw method, in which students take turns performing different tasks in a shared activity, in the CFL classroom. This method was found to help support students of different levels by fostering collaboration among students instead of competition as well as by equalizing opportunities for participation.

Ultimately, the transition to a more student-centered or student-driven learning process in CFL has the goal of encouraging students to approach learning strategically, so that they will continue to make progress even after formal instruction. As Ross (2001) notes in an article on intermediate CFL course materials, “our goal as instructors is not merely to teach the language to our students. It is also to teach students how to become self-managed learners who know how to assume responsibility in the learning process” (p. 20). Research on different ways CFL learners can access course material, interact and express themselves in the course, and manage their own learning process can support the creation of a more inclusive learning environment.

3.2 Institutional: Classroom-external factors

Studies in *JCLTA/CSL* that deal with inclusion at the institutional level generally report gaps in research rather than the results of efforts to increase inclusion. These gaps include a lack of knowledge about how CFL can attract and include learners with different abilities, identities, backgrounds, and needs. According to Chuanren Ke (2012):

If one of our primary goals is to attract a larger and more diverse group of students to the study of Chinese language, more basic research needs to examine the types of learners who study Chinese so that we understand more about learners who are attracted to our discipline...research tends to deal more with the learning process used when encountering Chinese, and less with the background of the learners themselves. (p. 86)

Scholarship on students with disabilities in higher education contexts has not yet been published in *JCLTA/CSL*. In the only study in the corpus to focus on inclusion of students with disabilities, Wang and Kuo's (2016) survey of K-12 CFL teachers reports on their lack of confidence in this area and recommends preparing teachers to create and maintain inclusive classrooms during their certification programs and professional development. However, similar research is needed in the higher education context. Though a student's disabilities, for example, are unlikely to disappear simply by virtue of that student's enrollment at an institution of higher education, they are often rendered invisible by the lack of acknowledgement and relevant scholarship. There is no research specifically on students with disabilities, including learning disabilities, mental illnesses, and physical impairments, or neurodiverse students in post-secondary institutions.

Additionally, no study in the surveyed literature focuses on challenges that are or might be faced by postsecondary students due to socioeconomic status, identity, or ethnicity, unless it is along the heritage/non-heritage divide. Sexual orientation is never explicitly mentioned. Studies that do take into account ethnicity as a variable rarely include African American students – Wang, Crooks, and Borst (2017), for example, includes none in an observed group of 12, and the Luo (2013) study of 428 participants includes only one. The Li, Wen and Xie (2014) survey of 154 higher education institutions teaching Mandarin finds that African American students made up 5.6% of the CFL student body as of 2012, yet they continue to be

underrepresented in CFL research.

Furthermore, studies are conducted on the existing CFL student body, which does not take into account its differences from the average higher education student body - if the Li, Wen and Xie (2014) survey results are taken to represent the population studying CFL in the United States, the Mandarin language classroom is in some ways less diverse than the college classroom generally, where students identifying as African-American or Black made up 11.5% as of 2012 and 13% of the student body as of 2016 (Pryor et al., 2012; Eagan et al., 2017). Of course, it is important to consider that the higher representation of students with a heritage background, who are usually Asian, would account for the relatively lower percentage of students of other ethnicities. However, the percentages of Caucasian students and Latinx students were not as diminished as the percentage of African American students - the former made up approximately 70% and 15% of all college students respectively and 50% and 10% of college CFL learners, while African Americans made up 11.5% of the student body but only 5.6% of CFL learners (Li, Wen and Xie, 2014; Pryor et al., 2012). It is worth asking why this might be and what can be done to change this.

Finally, in terms of the global socio-cultural and political environment, little is said regarding how the diversity of Chinese or Sinophone languages might be approached in the classroom. Swihart (2003) is one of the few exceptions in *JCLTA/CSL*; in a study noting the differences between PRC Mandarin and Taiwan *Guóyǔ*, which literally translated means “national language.” After cataloging some of the differences of usage, pronunciation, orthography and vocabulary between the two, she concludes that students should be made aware of the regional differences so that they can use language appropriate to their environments (p. 116). However, the article stops short of proposing a way classrooms might incorporate both, or decide between them. This is a pressing issue for many Chinese programs, which must decide at regular intervals what educational materials to buy or assign, how to prepare lessons, and to what standard to assess students. At present, many institutes

of higher education teach simplified Mandarin Chinese exclusively (Li, Wen, and Xie, 2014), which can exclude and penalize students of other backgrounds, including (non-exhaustively) those with connections to Taiwan, Hong Kong, parts of the People’s Republic of China in which a non-standard variety is spoken, and diaspora communities.

In sum, while CFL research on inclusivity exists and there is a broad consensus that an increasingly diversified student body will require changes in curriculum and institutional support, very little research exists on how this might practically be accomplished in a systematic way. To fill this important gap in the literature, this study synthesizes suggestions from the existing literature and offers additional suggestions for how inclusive CFL classrooms and programs might be constructed. However, I do not anticipate that such a paper by this author would be final or authoritative, rather, in the sense of the Chinese saying 抛砖引玉 “throwing a brick to attract jade,” I hope to spur additional interest and research on the subject, improving on and adding to my own findings and suggestions.

4 PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS REGARDING INCLUSIVE CFL PEDAGOGY

4.1 Inclusive CFL: Classroom-internal factors

This section of the study examines these aspects of the CFL classroom as they relate to inclusion and answers the main research question of this paper – what does the inclusive CFL classroom look like? And how might it be created? Below, this study offers suggestions about how the CFL classroom can become more inclusive across the affective (engagement), recognitional (representation) and strategic (action/expression) aspects of the learning process. Following this, areas of future research and action at the institutional level are discussed, as are potential challenges practitioners may face when working to make their classrooms more inclusive.

4.1.1 Engagement: Teaching philosophies and student goals

Student motivation to study Mandarin Chinese is affected by students' own perceptions about their ability to succeed and external factors that might make the CFL classroom more or less attractive given those internal perceptions. These two aspects are not a separate binary, but interact and influence each other. Students' reasons for studying Mandarin Chinese, perceptions of the difficulty of the language, and their subjective experiences of the learning process all shape their experiences in the CFL classroom and require consideration when designing an inclusive classroom. The creation of an inclusive CFL classroom at the affective level must address these factors head on. A more inclusive classroom requires that teachers communicate with students clearly to manage expectations, foster a growth mindset in the face of challenges, and nurture a classroom environment based in equality (Xie, 2018).

Perhaps one of the easiest ways CFL instructors can make the classroom more inclusive is by providing a clear idea of what students may expect to achieve over the course of a term, year, and program of study. In the absence of such communication, English-speaking students may wrongly assume benchmarks based on previous experiences with languages such as French or Spanish, which are much easier for English speakers to master. Students benefit from clear communication about what they can expect to master in a given amount of time (Luo, 2015; Zhao & Whitchurch, 2011). When providing this information, instructors may draw from a number of sources, including their own experience, curricular goals, and research findings. They may also wish to consider the particular situations of their own students and institutions as well as solicit feedback from past students, asking them what they might tell incoming CFL learners.

Many teachers view discussion of motivation and reasons to study the language as beside the point: after all, if students are enrolled in the class, shouldn't they already believe that it is worthwhile? However, in the case of Mandarin Chinese, I argue that explicit discussion is warranted and necessary. Managing expectations

can help students anticipate and prepare for the challenges they face, while additional affective work may help them reach their full potential. Making the learning process relevant, engaging, and rewarding can help students stay on task and committed despite the amount of time required to make progress in CFL learning.

Relevance can be enhanced by updating lesson plans, using authentic materials, and facilitating real-world interactions. Post office interaction, for example, is far less relevant to today's students than email formatting or text messaging etiquette. Using maps of students' own campus or city will make a lesson on directions more meaningful. Students may be more inclined to remember the change-of-state functions of 了 *le* if they use it to describe changes of states they have experienced or observed, rather than those of textbook characters. Because Mandarin Chinese may not be used much in CFL learners' daily environments, authentic materials can help them see how knowing the language might be used in the future. It also has the additional benefit of exposing them to a greater variety of Chinese than standardized educational materials, better preparing them for communicative tasks. If possible, real-world interactions such as service learning opportunities and language exchange can enhance relevance by reminding students what the language is for – connection and communication.

Equality in the classroom is also necessary for ensuring all students are included. Based on the findings of their study, Ji, Duffield, Wageman and Welch (2017) recommend using educational materials welcoming of students of all genders as well as paying equal attention to all students and the fostering of an environment of equal interaction. This can be difficult in the CFL classroom when proficiency levels vary greatly in a single classroom, as is often the case (Ren 2012, p. 90; Li, Wen & Xie, 2014, p. 14). Pedagogical measures to address this issue will be discussed below, but it is also important to speak about inclusion and equality explicitly with students. Diversity and inclusion syllabus statements are an easy addition to existing materials, and research shows that they may set a more welcoming tone for incoming students, as long as these statements are aspirational

rather than descriptive, emphasize student autonomy, are not colorblind, and broadly define diversity (Carnes, Fine & Sheridan, 2019, p. 23). In the classroom itself, instructors may choose to communicate these values verbally.

Equality is not just something instructors communicate, but something they foster in their relationships with students. Requesting student feedback and providing channels through which they can provide that feedback anonymously and at any time helps build a more equal, cooperative classroom. Fostering student autonomy, as Carnes, Fine, and Sheridan (2019) finds, empowers and motivates students. In traditional pedagogical models, the teacher is the source of knowledge and the students are passive receivers, but the promotion of active learning allows students to develop intrinsic motivation while they learn (Benware & Deci, 1984, p. 764), enhancing their affective experience.

The affective side of CFL learning is an often overlooked aspect of the learning process, perhaps due to its subjective nature. The adoption of practices to enhance students' affective experiences may take into account the aforementioned measures, but should also take classroom conditions into account. Trial and error may be necessary to find what works and what doesn't for each classroom, and regular reevaluation of policies and practices is also needed to ensure that they remain appropriate for a changing student body and culture.

4.1.2 Representation: Modes of material presentation and their integration

The UDL model recommends that instructors present content in multiple modes (CAST, 2018). Although one rationale for this is that it makes course content accessible to students with visual or auditory disabilities, empirical studies have found that such a course design benefits all students, increasing student satisfaction, participation, interest, engagement, and autonomy (Higbee, 2009, p. 72; Roberts, Satlykgylyjova, & Park, 2015, p. 69-70). For the CFL classroom, an application of UDL would require at a minimum the use of multiple, accessible

formats for all course materials, captioning of video clips and provision of transcripts for audio content (Thomson et al., 2015, pp. 279-281), but a broader understanding of modes has the potential to enhance inclusion further. Varied ways to present material used in CFL classrooms, including Chinese characters, pinyin, and auditory input, are discussed below.

Chinese characters are one of the most difficult aspects of CFL learning. As Zahradníková (2016) puts it, “While tones can be mastered within a few weeks and grammar within a few months, characters remain an effort-consuming task forever” (p. 117). There is not broad consensus about how characters should be taught; however, there is a wealth of empirical research about the effectiveness of various teaching strategies, most involving the contextualization of characters and multiple modes of presentation. Many scholars find that contextualizing characters and presenting them in a variety of modes enhances students’ ability to learn them and their motivation to do so. Knell and West (2015) recommends a multisensory approach to teaching characters, and while the study does not cite dyslexia specifically, it cites articles that deal with the subject (Henry 1998; Stoner, 1991). Practitioners may benefit by taking into account the numerous studies on how other instructors contextualize characters through multimedia and multisensory activities. As character learning is often left outside the classroom, an analysis of CFL students’ own techniques for it may uncover metacognitive strategies that might be taught or adopted in the classroom. In a survey of CFL students’ character learning strategies, Zahradníková (2016) finds that story-creation, radical-based memorization, and a combination of the two strategies are the most common ways students remember characters. She calls for CFL instructors to incorporate metacognitive strategy development into their practice:

Teachers should be aware that most beginners have no experience learning logographic script and do not know how to approach the learning task. Strategy instruction should therefore be included in character

instruction and students should be encouraged to explore different strategies (p. 135).

In addition to different modes of learning, new modes of transmission and recognition can also make the character learning process more inclusive. Technological innovations have also provided a wealth of new modes by which students may learn characters. The app-based dictionary Pleco, for example, makes it possible for students to listen to voice-recordings of characters while watching videos of their stroke order. Tablets may allow instructors to project their own writing on a large screen to demonstrate how characters are composed in real time, making the process more accessible to large lecture classes. OCR text recognition software can even allow students to scan characters they do not recognize to quickly pull up their definition, pronunciation, and stroke order. These tools, when seen as scaffolding and support rather than ways that students may avoid work or cheat, can make the learning process faster and less intimidating.

Listening comprehension can also become more inclusive through the incorporation of multiple modes of transmission and contextualization. Studies show that putting lectures and other audio resources online can enhance student engagement (Smith, 2012, p. 51). Instructors often fear that doing so will encourage students to skip lecture classes, which would impact their learning progress, but providing these resources does not obligate instructors to excuse a lack of participation. These resources are useful to students who are absent, but also to those who wish to review a particular concept or prepare for an exam.

The provision of auditory input in the CFL classroom can be a very difficult area in which to include everyone, as listening abilities may vary greatly depending on language background. Luo (2013) argues that instructors should temper expectations for Chinese-American learners without a linguistic background, and that “appropriate expectations from instructors would probably help alleviate this group of learners’ anxiety in Chinese class” (p. 22). These findings have

implications for the interaction of identity and language studies more broadly, and hint at the challenges faced by students who are expected, based on their appearance, to have a different linguistic background or capacity. Even in schools which teach separate heritage and non-heritage tracks, heritage students are an incredibly diverse group that varies greatly in terms of proficiency (Ren, 2012, p. 90), and more research is called for on measures to make speakers of different proficiency levels comfortable learning together. Explicitly addressing issues such as this with students may be a good first step toward making them feel more comfortable with their own proficiency levels and differences in proficiency among classmates.

Immersion is shown to have benefits for L2 learners, but is demanding and may also leave novice-level students feelings discouraged. Frequent in-class assessment of comprehension may be necessary to ensure that everyone understands what is being said in the L2, but on the other hand, such assessment may be anxiety-inducing in students who experience difficulty in this aspect of their studies. Effective pedagogical strategies can alleviate the anxiety such students may feel and help maintaining an inclusive language environment. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) recommends keeping use of the target language at 90% or above, and recommends using “body language, gestures, and visual support” (“Use of the Target Language in the Classroom” 2010). PowerPoint presentations, pictures, and props can cue students in to meaning and help them associate it with the auditory input. Teachers can make a “cheat sheet” or audio recording of instructional language available online via a content management system (CMS), or they can teach this terminology to students inductively with repetition and gestures.

Effective scaffolding techniques can also provide more support for students learning to listen and understand in the CFL classroom. Scaffolding is a form of instructional assistance in which a concept is presented first with support, in a controlled manner, and then these supports are shed in successive phases as

the learner gains confidence and mastery (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 90). In the CFL classroom, listening comprehension may first progress from teacher modeling to whole-class recitation, to group work, and finally to individual listening practice.

To enhancing listening practice, existing technology can also be utilized in new ways. Many instructors now use a CMS to deliver important information such as schedules and syllabi with students, but these may also be utilized for oral assignment submission and content review. Instructors can also teach students to use open source software such as VLC to adjust playback speed, so that they may practice listening slowly and gradually build up their ability to comprehend it at natural speeds. Visualization software such as Praat can allow them to map audio files visually, which will provide learners with another means by which to self-assess.

Above all, explicit instruction about how to utilize technology will unlock its potential to enhance accessibility, as students will not use it if they do not know how. Therefore, more class time should be devoted to education about various modes of and tools for learning. In the short term, these may be seen as distractions from grammar, pronunciation, or other skills, but enabling students to take charge of their own learning will pay dividends in their ability to learn independently. Showing them how to access and watch a Mandarin Chinese television show, with or without subtitles, for example, could result in many hours of additional L1 input and spark interest to continue studying.

4.1.3 Action/expression: multiple modes of expression and assessment

Allowing students to communicate and practice the language in a variety of ways and take an active role in deciding what they will express is recommended by the UDL guidelines as a way to make requirements for student action and expression more inclusive (CAST, 2018). This can be accomplished by ensuring they have access to multiple channels for expression, support for different kinds of

expression, enhanced ability to work at their own pace, and free choice in certain aspects of their language expression. Instruction should incorporate formative as well as summative assessments and should be flexible with regards to time constraints.

By allowing students to communicate in a variety of ways, and in a variety of modes, instructors signal that they will be responsive to student concerns and welcoming of all kinds of students. Face-to-face interaction during office hours may be supplemented by distance teleconferencing via applications such as Zoom or Skype, which can enable those with physical impairments, difficult commutes, or simply limited time to interact with the instructor. Furthermore, being reachable by email will allow most students to contact their instructor at any time, given the current state of internet penetration and mobile phone usage in the United States. Online discussion forums, such as those hosted via CMS, can also facilitate collaborative student expression.

Different modes of participation and class structuring can also allow students to practice speaking and writing in more welcoming, motivating environments. The application of the jigsaw method in structured group work, in particular, has the potential to increase student autonomy and create a more collaborative environment, which can make students feel more comfortable practicing their spoken Mandarin. Frequent, low-stakes writing assignments like those described by Mou (2003) can also make writing less intimidating while providing instructors with more information about student progress. In both speaking and writing practice, allowing students to be part of the class at the decision-making level – choosing topics, selecting material, and setting goals – can lead to a more inclusive environment.

Traditionally, CFL students are often required to turn in paper copies of homework, take paper tests, be interviewed for oral exams face-to-face, and present orally in front of their classes. By allowing students to submit homework digitally, take tests online, conduct oral exams remotely, and submit video or audio

recordings of presentations, instructors can remove challenges faced by students with physical and psychological impairments, as well as others who simply find these other modes more convenient and engaging. Another mode of expression that may be useful for CFL in particular is the employment of water cloth and wet calligraphy pens – this reusable, environmentally friendly paper can absorb water from the pen for a brief amount of time, allowing learners to practice characters without wasting paper or using costly tablet technology. Allowing students to choose between handwriting and typing characters for some assignments will also make writing more accessible to students with dyslexia. With any assignment, exercise, or exam, the provision of multiple options for expression at the outset will allow students to choose the option that is most accessible to them.

By allowing students to submit at least some written assignments and projects digitally if they choose, instructors would make the classroom more inclusive of those who do not prioritize handwriting ability or have learning disabilities such as dyslexia. Furthermore, this shift would better prepare them for real-world interaction, in which typing and texting is by far a more common mode of communication than handwriting. The predictive-text software that enables users to input pinyin and select characters also enables students to solidify their knowledge of how to pronounce characters and self-assess their own recognition of characters. As most of these pinyin input methods have been trained on real-world use of the language, they will also help learners acquire authentic expressions and learn set phrases and chunks. Finally, such a shift would let learners engage in the classroom anywhere, anytime. Using one's mobile device to type a response on a CMS message board or collaborate on a Google Doc, for example, is much more convenient and accessible than printing out an assignment, filling it out by hand, and walking to a physical location to submit it.

With the advent of online courses, asynchronous instruction and has become an option by which students may set their own pace and fit their learning in their existing schedule. Such affordances are inclusive not only of those with disabilities

who may require more time, but of everyone, as they foster individuals' autonomy and time management. Instructors may fear that without hard deadlines, students may fall behind and become discouraged. However, asynchronous instruction need not be adopted wholesale or in all courses. Offering students the ability to make up some modules they have missed, or set an alternative schedule to accommodate major life events or illnesses can prevent students from feeling discouraged by inflexible schedules.

The incorporation of more formative assessment practices can enhance student learning and provide students with low-stakes opportunities to test their abilities. Black and Wiliam (2010) define formative assessment as, "activities undertaken by teachers – and by their students in assessing themselves – that provide information to be used as feedback to modify teaching and learning activities" (p.82). These assessments may be informal, without letter grades, or comprise a small percentage of a student's final grade. One popular form of formative assessment that may be applied in the CFL classroom is the "exit ticket" practice (Dixson & Worrell, 2016; Cornelius, 2013). In this practice, an instructor may ask students to respond to a question at the end of a class period; this response helps the instructor understand whether and how students have understood the lesson. Formative assessments will also allow instructors to know what kind of scaffolding would be most helpful.

Finally, the inclusive CFL classroom must not constrain students' expression to a single standard of Mandarin. As multiple varieties of Mandarin are spoken throughout the world, students should feel free to speak any of those varieties without censure or punishment. Traditional and simplified scripts should also both be options, a choice that is now made easier by the availability of the same textbook in both forms or a combined form. This flexibility will allow students to feel that the CFL classroom embraces students of multiple language backgrounds and preferences, not just those from a particular geographic region or origin.

4.2 Inclusive CFL: Institutional factors

Some practical suggestions for addressing classroom-external issues have already been made in the literature. Wang (2012) notes that Chinese specialists must be at the table when policy is being written, to ensure that it is suitable for the field. Li, Wen, and Xie (2014) recommends lobbying for more institutional support for changes that could be made to make Chinese more accessible and attractive to a wider range of students and suggests that CFL programs offer more opportunities for professional training and interdisciplinary courses (p. 44). Frerichs (2008) calls for a sociology of CFL, to examine undiscussed biases. Ke (2012) and others repeatedly call for a diversification of CFL to better suit the increasingly diverse CFL student population.

Within individual institutions, CFL program structures have an extremely large impact on the classroom, as they determine their most basic conditions and constraints. In a broad survey of over two hundred post-secondary Chinese programs in North America, over 75% of institutions report that they offered no separate track for heritage students, resulting in a very wide range of skill levels within a single classroom (Li, Wen & Xie, 2014, p. 14). Many of those that do offer heritage tracks do not have an articulated set of curricular goals for that track (Luo 2015, p. 30). At larger universities, class sizes may mean that students have little opportunity to practice their speaking or receive individualized feedback. Course offerings, curricular goals, class sizes, and other parameters vary widely between institutions, making one-size-fits-all policies even more likely to encounter stumbling blocks. Many of the solutions for inclusion, therefore, may need to be developed at the departmental level to best suit the needs of students at a given institution.

Beyond the departmental level, CFL teacher training programs should begin to incorporate inclusive teaching alongside other pedagogical skills. While there has been great progress in the professionalization of the CFL field in recent decades, inclusion is often seen as a niche or supplementary aspect of teaching,

rather than a core skill. However, if inclusion is a necessary aspect of effective teaching, and one that most instructors have not had any formal education in, it should be taught explicitly. Finally, continuing research into which methods of inclusive education are most effective will, in turn, help guide teacher training programs and practitioners' own efforts in the classroom. The literature surveyed above may serve as a starting point for empirical studies on different models and interventions.

4.3 Constraints and how to work within them

Though the benefits of inclusive classrooms are well attested, there are many constraints to their implementation and challenges instructors face when getting started. Most must consider time and resource limitations, as well as limited input on their program's course structure, curriculum, and departmental or institutional policies. However, inclusion is a process rather than a destination, and may be conducted gradually; ultimately, a more inclusive classroom will in some ways save instructors the time and energy spent making individual accommodations on a case-by-case basis.

How can CFL instructors who are already pressed for time implement strategies to make their classrooms more inclusive? There are several methods that make the process less time-consuming. Tobin and Behling (2018) recommends instructors begin by identifying lesson plans that could be adapted based on UDL principles within 20 minutes and altering them with a "plus-one" model: that is, adding one more mode for engagement, recognition, or expression (p. 134). Instructors with previous experience can look for topics, assignments, and test sections that are often difficult for students – bottlenecks for learning – and start there (p. 134). Such changes will yield the highest benefit for the least amount of investment.

Transitioning to the UDL approach can also save time in the long run, as many adaptations require only an initial time investment and subsequently

become time savers. Diversity and inclusion statements need only be written once, though periodic reflection and revision may be necessary. Captions and transcripts for video and audio content, for example, need only be prepared once (and increasingly, this may be done quickly with software), and then can be used in all future classes. Assignment prompts that allow for a variety of modes of expression can be reused from class to class as well. The skills involved in student-centered pedagogical practice may require initial study and practice to master, but the classroom environment that results will take much of the burden off of the instructors while simultaneously empowering students to become more self-evaluative and responsible for their own learning.

Digital technologies also have the potential to make classrooms more inclusive and save time in the process. Internet-based teleconferencing can allow instructors to offer office hours or webinars even when they cannot travel to campus. Instructors who allow students to submit assignments via CMS can then collect all of the submitted files with a single click. Instructors can also share digital resources with each other easily and instantly across great geographical distances. Online resources can be compiled and offered to students so that they may more easily access outside information relevant to their in-class learning. The results of formative assessment activities conducted online can easily be converted into exact data about which words, grammatical points, and ideas are confusing to students, and may thus enhance future instruction.

Classroom availability, course loads, and class size are often not immediately under instructors' control. Certain classroom setups inhibit collaborative learning and early classes may be less conducive to an active, engaged classroom environment. When in-class conditions cannot be controlled, instructors may supplement classroom activities with additional asynchronous opportunities for engagement: for instance, online message board posting that may be done at any time, or video recording that may be done in any kind of space. Ultimately, the issue of institutional constraints can only be effectively addressed by institutional

changes, which require lobbying, awareness raising, and administrators who share a similar vision.

Large classes sizes are another barrier to inclusive education, as the larger the number of students, the more difficult it is to provide differentiated instruction or personal attention. Like classroom availability and class times, this is also an issue that may require institutional lobbying, but there are some short-term measures that have been shown to alleviate the burdens posed by this problem. Peer-supported learning can simultaneously help build community, enhance students' ability to self-assess, and lighten the burden for instructors. Fostering students' metacognitive abilities, such as character learning strategies, will also make them more independent learners and less likely to need individual assistance.

There has been more resistance to digital assignment submission and assessment in CFL than in other fields in part because of the unique nature of Chinese orthography, despite the fact that typing is the main form of written communication today. Lin et al. (2018) identifies this as a “debate on the practical need of teaching handwriting versus using typing as a means to ‘write’ Chinese characters.” (p.59) Instructors may often feel that they cannot assess students' written production abilities well without requiring them to handwrite characters, as typing is much easier and based on phonological input and predictive text software.

The provision of accommodations is often avoided, as many instructors fear that too much freedom will lead to laziness, but greater student autonomy and ownership can enhance student motivation and engagement. Benware and Deci (1984) finds that students who are intrinsically motivated report more interest, enjoyment and participation, and perform better on assessments, than students who are extrinsically motivated. Fostering such intrinsic motivation should be given more weight than sources of extrinsic motivation such as summative assessments or the punishment of errors.

Challenges to implementing UDL do exist, and should not be downplayed, but ultimately, the process will yield benefits that outweigh them. A few students

taking advantage of flexible rules does not erase the benefit of including all students. Even if the implementation of UDL is time-consuming initially, it may still be worthwhile, as many time-consuming practices are. Research shows the benefits of inclusive classrooms for all students, but even a single student is an individual who deserves to be included. Ultimately, instructors must determine for themselves what kind of classrooms they have the time, energy, resources, and desire to create.

CONCLUSIONS

This study first surveys the existing literature in the *Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association/Chinese as a Second Language* from 2000-2019 to synthesize what research has been done in the CFL field on inclusive classrooms and introduces the concept of universal design for learning. Subsequently, it outlines practical suggestions for making CFL classrooms more inclusive in terms of their affective, recognition, and strategic dimensions. Finally, constraints and concerns about the implementation of these measures are discussed.

The above sections aim to answer a single question: How might a more diverse body of students be attracted to and included in CFL learning at the post-secondary level? This has been a common thread running through *JCLTA/CSL* literature over the past eighteen years. This study is merely a provisional roadmap for good points of departure. Experimental applications in the CFL field will be necessary to determine how such measures may be applied, how effective they may be, and what adaptations must be made.

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北美高校中文二语课堂： 包容性教育的现状与未来

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摘要

近年来，关于平等包容（或融合）教育的一般研究已经初步形成规模（Hockings, 2010），然而平等包容教育的教学方法如何在对外汉语的课堂里进行在汉语二语学界仍然缺乏研究。本文基于全方位课程设计（CAST, 2018）的理念回顾汉语二语学界有关包容教育的研究现状。全方位课程设计区分学生的三种学习网络（情感网络、识别网络与策略网络）以及其相应的融合教育的教学方法（提高参与动力、内容理解及表现机会的多模态教学），本文在此基础上回顾了对外汉语领域的著名学术期刊近二十年的文献有关平等包容教育的研究成果，并结合对外汉语的特征，为汉语二语教育的未来提供了一些实践方面的参考意见。

关键词：平等包容 融合教育 全方位课堂设计 教育学 多模态教育

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