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BILINGUAL (ZHUANG AND HAN) EDUCATION IN URBAN GUANGXI

by

Yawen Li

A Major Research Paper
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the Faculty of Education
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Education at the
University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

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Bilingual (Zhuang and Han) Education in Urban Guangxi

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24 April, 2020

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ABSTRACT

Though many people see China as an ethnically and culturally homogenous country, it is actually host to a wide variety of ethnicities. For example, though Mandarin is China's official language, and Cantonese is commonly used in Hong Kong, the Zhuang language is spoken by an ethnic group of the same name whose population is equal to 90% of Guangxi Zhuangzu Autonomous Region (GZAR), one of China's five autonomous regions (Zhou, 2000). Nanning, the capital city of GZAR, has a population of approximately 7.55 million, and the Zhuang accounts for 4.21 million citizens, equal to 55.78% of the city's population. However, their language is not represented in schools. As a result, the younger generation is increasingly unfamiliar with their linguistic and cultural heritage, which has created integrational communication barriers in their homes and a loss of their cultural identity and heritage. To address these concerns, it is critical to create new education policies that mandate bilingual education in GZAR. The current study seeks to identify potential barriers to implementing bilingual education, develop strategies that could be used to support bilingual education, and determine the benefits of implementing Zhuang-Han education.

Keywords: Zhuang language, bilingual education, linguistic and cultural heritage

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Chapter One: Background

In this chapter, the outline of background will be organized into seven sections: 1) language policy and situation in China; 2) Han nationality and language; 3) writing system in minority languages; 4) the linguistic policy of Zhuang; 5) the education and revitalization in Zhuang language; 6) problem statement; 7) the definitions of key words, and 8) research questions.

Language Policy in China

China is a large country with 56 ethnic groups. Based on the data of the Fifth National Population Census of 2000, Han, as the dominant group, accounts for 91.59% of the overall Chinese population, and the remaining 55 minority groups make up to 8.41%. In this light, the population of minorities is much smaller than that of the Han in China (National Bureau of Statistics, 2008). In such the period since the founding of the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, some of those minority groups have lived separately in their own individual communities. Meanwhile, some of the ethnic minorities have lived with the Han due to the development strategies, which are allocated by the central government (Minority Rights Group International, 2017). Those groups of minorities have the same habitats and lifestyles with as the Han. Also, they have also been subjected to the command of the Central Government since 1949 and this relationship has continued for a long time until now. This study focuses on one particular minority group, the Zhuang people who speak Zhuang, including groups who live in their own communities and the dominant habitat amongst the Han. Han Chinese—the largest ethnic group in China, as well as the world itself—started forming in the middle and lower reaches of the Yellow River, Yangtze River, the Pearl River and the Northeast Plain Region of China. Han Chinese are widely found in most regions of China with a population of 1.159 billion, and they have a characteristic lifestyle compared with other groups of people (Dede,

n.d.). In contrast, the ethnic minority groups are concentrated mostly in Southwest, Northwest and Northeast China such as Inner Mongolia, Xinjiang, Ningxia, Liaoning, Guangxi, Tibet, Yunnan, Guizhou, Qinghai, Sichuan, Gansu, Hubei or Hunan. Among these regions, Yunnan has the largest number of minorities with 25 ethnic groups (including the Zhuang). Furthermore, Zhuang significantly dominate the minority population as ranking the top one with over 16 million among minority ethnic people (Dede, n.d.). There are five autonomous regions: Inner Mongolia, Xinjiang, Guangxi, Ningxia and Tibet. They have rights to regulate their political preference with the guidance of the Central Government. The minorities in those areas are entitled to deal with their own affairs (Travel China Guide, 2019). Chinese is derived from the Sino-Tibetan family of languages (Travel China Guide, 2019). This language is divided into seven dialects: Mandarin, Wu Dialect, Xiang Dialect, Gan Dialect, Min Dialect, Cantonese and Hakka. The regional language varies from geographical differences.

The 56 ethnic groups form a multi-cultural country, which has generated diverse languages spoken in history. According to Sawe (2018), linguists believe that there are 297 living languages spoken in China. The living languages can be divided into different characteristics, all of which have played a critical role in the development of the various languages spoken in China. Thus, there are distinctive spoken languages in Chinese, namely, official language, national languages, regional languages and sign languages can be defined as languages utilizing in China (Sawe, 2018). On October 31th, 1955, the Law of the People's Republic of China on the Spoken and Written Languages established Putonghua (Mandarin) as the *lingua franca* of China (Ministry of Education, 2017). In addition, Cantonese, is defined as the national language which originates from Guangdong province, is defined as the national language. It is a variant of the Chinese language or as a prestige variant of Yue, a subdivision of

Chinese. Regional languages, such as Wu dialect that exists in the Eastern region of China in the lower reaches of the Yangtze River, are spoken in specific geographically defined areas such as Wu dialect that exists in Eastern region of China in the lower reaches of Yangtze River, which are geographically defined; The sign languages were formulated from 2001 to 2004 as the standardized languages for disabled people such as deaf minority people as the standardized languages (Sawe, 2018).

Han Nationality and Language

The Han group, which has a population of approximately 1.16 billion or so and makes up for 19% of the world's population, is the largest group in China as well as the world (Travel China Guide, 2019). Han Chinese people have spoken the Han language for centuries. They live together with other ethnic minorities, and the Han language is dominated by the central government in terms of policy, natural science, and education.

Writing System in Chinese Language (including the Zhuang Language)

In the Han language, there are two written forms: the traditional and the simplified Chinese. The latter one is basically generated from the former one and is more widely and frequently used.

According to Norman (2019), Chinese writing forms originated as from pictographic characters initially. Over the centuries, the written script has undergone a dynamic way of change. However, by the Han Dynasty (206 BCE-220 CE), the quality of the pictography in the script had faded away. During the third and fourth centuries, the standardized script (*Kaishu* in Chinese) was formulated, and then this script still remains at the modern times. In the 1920s and 1930s, many Chinese experts tried efforts to improve the script into a more convenient and updated one which that is compatible with the modern world due to overcome the internal and

external linguistic challenges. The May Fourth Movement was the trigger that started a script simplification movement. That evolution aimed to raise the literacy rate of the general public as well as hope to promote the level of education. Likewise, a simplified writing system was created for more ordinary Chinese people to understand reading material as the articles as professionally clearly as possible. In light of this advocacy, many Chinese intellectuals and elites voluntarily pushed forward the movement of reforming Chinese language and grammars and as a milestone for further research (Bao, 2019). Consequently, the general public preferred an alphabetical system instead of the pictographic characters. It was contradictory that Chinese characters could not be written alphabetically. As a matter of fact, the Chinese writing system was difficult to become make practical, so that a unity more complete form of writing characters should needed to be invented (Norman, 2019). Until the 1950s, the plan to raise literacy rates had been functioned and was been promoted. In 1956 and again in 1964, the simplified characters were officially accepted in the PRC (Bauer, 2000). As a result, there are both writing forms and spoken language forms utilizing in Inner Mongolia, Xinjiang and Tibet. Commonly, apart from the Han as the official language in those five biggest minority groups, the other official language in Inner Mongolia is the Mongolian, in Xinjiang is the Uyghur, and in Tibet is Tibetan. Specifically, for Ningxia (Hui) autonomous region, their official language is Mandarin and use the Han writing form. The Zhuang language did not have a writing system until in 1955, the Central Government supported Zhuang people to create their own writing system, based with on Latin alphabets. Additionally, a number of experts in Zhuang language were encouraged to enhance literacy education and its promotion in a positive way (Bauer, 2000).

The Linguistic Policy of Zhuang

There are three stages in how the Central Government has processed the Zhuang language throughout history: I. After the establishment of PRC (1949); II. After the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976); and III. Since the 1980s.

Stage I. In the 1950s, the Chinese government tried to regulate minority language as a medium in the social life. The Central Government held conferences to set up guidance to facilitate minority languages in education and society. Since 1951, a part of the fiscal capital had been offered to subsidize the minority education, and it still exists now (Xia & Wang, 2007). Those movements demonstrate that the government tended to support the freedom of minority language use financially and politically; however, the promotion of official language teaching as the mainstream has also been required since the founding of PRC in 1949. This linguistic and cultural assimilation suggests a controversy regarding considering minority languages as a marginalized social medium.

Stage II. During the Cultural Revolution, bilingual education was prohibited (Rong, 2007). Zhuang, as one of ten minorities with official writing systems has since been marginalized in the mainstreams. The improvement of Zhuang language, which is distinctive from other ethnic minority languages, has been prohibited. During the same period, devastation erupted in terms of culture, education and society including Autonomous Regions. Specifically, children, no matter which group they belonged to, were not allowed to study non-dominant languages and cultures. Generally speaking, if a group lacks political attention in the outcomes of learning performance, this group must be marginalized by the mainstream.

Stage III.: Since the 1980s, the completion of the *Scheme of Zhuang Language* has enhanced the utilization of Zhuang language. At the same time, Chinese has started as the main instructional language in schools as well as in Zhuang communities (Zhou, 2000). Nevertheless,

the Central Government advocates that the equity of all groups' languages is worth promoting. The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) Central Committee permits each Autonomous Region to have regulated special policy regarding to bilingual education (Rong, 2007). There was another complicated issue regarding to minority' policies which were in 1984 and 2000, during which the central authorities enforced the cross-cultural education policy to send ethnic minority students from Xinjiang and Tibet to study in schools located in the inner regions (Qing & Suizhou, 2010). However, there is was no such a similar implementation in Guangxi. Moreover, the government ideally considers the minority group regions are to be underdeveloped in economy and education which would in need of more support. Rather, the result of those practices is not positive due to the objective reasons such as the small range of students and the cultural disparities. As a result, the revised language policy about Chinese promotes its use in all areas of public life while the minority languages are limited to the private scenario has been focused in this stage.

The Education and Revitalization in Zhuang Language

The Zhuang language is one of the branches of Zhuang-Tai, deriving from the Zhuang-Don group, which belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language (Hai & Li, 2012). There are two main dialects separated into northern and southern, which have subdialects in each dialect. The Zhuang language is more frequently spoken in the Guangxi Zhuangzu Autonomous Region (GZAR) other than southwestern China, for instance the Lianshan Zhuang-Yao Autonomous County of Guangdong Province; moreover, outside China, it is spoken by the Tay and Nung ethnic groups in northern Vietnam (Bodomo, 2010).

In the 1950s, there were ten minority writing systems invented by linguistic professionals and experts. More specifically, the Zhuang language had created its own writing system by the

end of 1955. In addition, the first national conference was held to support the transformative process in minority languages in December of the same year (Rong, 2007; Zhou, 2000). Those efforts indicate that the Central Government has tried to facilitate the promotion of linguistic development of minority languages including Zhuang. A systematic regulation in linguistic form is supportive to the unity of diverse linguistic backgrounds, especially for policy planners. In Guangxi, there are currently road signs in Zhuang as well as Han on the same board.

Problem Statement

Due to the urbanization and nationalization, the increased number of registered urban residents in the urban environments has placed new pressures on the Zhuang education in the past few decades. Hence, Putonghua, as the official language is widely spoken in normal communications in the educational and political environment. Greg (2019) considers that Han, the dominant language, has promoted its capital values in economy, policy and education because of the migration and urbanization.

Minority groups are not only different from the dominant group in geography, culture and religion, but also in regard to policy planners' needs and attitudes towards to the educational assimilation. Therefore, policy-planners are responsible to figure out a relatively compatible solution to preserving intangible languages in China. If there is no group using its own language, the culture will approach extinction. Furthermore, there is not a perfect BE model considered as a strong model in China (Feng & Adamson, 2017)

In my working experience, I used to be as an English teacher in China who was always required to plan a teaching process with the high demands. Meanwhile, I had a great deal of opportunities to participate in diverse conferences, focus group studies and training programs. However, educational policy-makers barely facilitate resources and materials for teachers to

instruct in minority languages. Rather, English is a core subject in China for K-12 students throughout all of the regions and prefectures as one of the standardized evaluations before graduation. As a matter of fact, the educational policy in Guangxi for teaching Zhuang and Han has gone through a muted and marginalized process.

On the one hand, the Regime Formulation, according to China's ethnic policies, especially for the ethnic language policies and regulations included in the Law on the Autonomy of the Ethnic Regions and the Compulsory Education, indicates that bilingual education is more likely a regime in the educational environment (Xing, 2001). It is valuable for school leaders to understand building capacity around how students and families are treated and supported by schools even though implementation of bilingual education is not solely relying on outside-of-school factors. Notwithstanding, this study is more likely to identify the potential barriers for our next generation such as the disappearance of mother tongue and culture or ignorance of the identification. Thus, hopefully this study is considered as a starting point for school leaders and shareholders, respectful of ethnic groups' education as well as a mandate for change, a reflection tool, and an initial first step toward creating more just classrooms and schools.

On the other hand, China is not the only country with multilinguistic and multinational backgrounds. Promoting China's bilingual education represents to the subjection of commonalities relating to the common laws of bilingual education in the world (Xing, 2001). This research is an advocacy for interrogating the past and reclaiming the future and -examining the mismatch containing educational policy-making process for acculturation of the dominant language and culture.

The study calls for the revitalization of the Zhuang language education in urban areas. According to Creswell (2018), Creswell also states that the advocacy/participatory worldview

should be interchanged with politics. It is worth noticing that the aliened group and culture have lower social status. Then the policies strongly improve the reforming process of reducing misconception of social class. In addition, the goal of the related research on this worldview is to be interacted is for researchers to interact with political process. This study makes efforts to provide political strategies about the bilingual education implementation. Then those regulations such as the European one in history have led to articulate the challenges to overcome in the field of education. Moreover, the results of this research intend to impact future research on protecting the Zhuang language education in school settings.

Definitions of Key Words

Within the context of discourses on bilingual education in China, there are several keywords that are important to define. These terms are as follows:

Bilingualism. According to Xing (2001), there is no theoretical difference in the utilization of the terms ‘bilingual education’ and ‘bilingual teaching’ in China. Fishman (1977) believes that bilingual education refers to using two instructional languages as teaching media other instead than of one language. Furthermore, he concludes that there are four broad modes of bilingualism: transitional bilingualism, mono-literate bilingualism, partial biliterate bilingualism, and full biliterate bilingualism.

Transitional bilingualism. Transitional bilingualism refers to a dynamic process of adjusting to provide students a flexible space until they have developed the dominant language to a certain extent. When they have achieved the language proficiency to a certain point, it does mean that schools will assess their language performance but only to shape the values of community or educational environment.

Mono-literate bilingualism. Mono-literate bilingualism means that the aural and oral

skills of a second language would be supported but not measured through the literacy competency. The program of this type indicates the preference of the current research study holds a preference for this type of program.

Partial biliterate bilingualism. Partial biliterate bilingualism requires students to take the courses such as arts, social sciences and literature instead of math and science in a second language.

Full biliterate bilingualism. In this distinction of type, students have to be the master of both languages as the dominant medium in school (Fishman, 1977).

Moreover, this form of education refers to schooling in which minority and majority languages which are used as a teaching media, or taught to any extent, and is a rather loose term (Richards, Platt, & Webber, 1985). Therefore, bilingualism in this research means the use of two languages, such as Zhuang and Han, in teaching and learning in ethnic schools or in minority group regions. In this light, China's pilot program does not satisfy every requirement of bilingualism, nor does it imply with a development-directed approach to a great extent (Zhu, 2014). Therefore, the importance of referring to models of bilingualism from other countries is necessary to be referred on a global scale. More specifically, it is feasible to understand why the instructional material in Zhuang language is so favourable for teachers and students themselves. In this research, I define the minority community where the students live in as an occasional bilingualism. The definition means that people live in Guangxi Autonomous Region but have limited frequency of using the Zhuang language historically controlled by the policymakers (Zhou, 2000).

Language attitudes. L1 is the most reasonable way to indicate one's identity; for instance, Cantonese is the national language easily recognized by someone who comes from

Guangdong. To be specific, L1 is a language for people who are born into the same linguistic environment as their communities. There is a survey in Vietnam in which some students were ashamed of being barely able to speak their minority language (Nguyen & Hamid, 2016). As a result, Nguyen and Hamid (2016) conclude that the attitudes towards to the Vietnamese government pushes reforms of reconsidering the instrumental/integrative orientation in terms of supportive maintenance in L1. However, communicating, travelling and social interactions are considered as the top reasons for which Vietnamese was considered the official language and important by the students (Nguyen & Hamid, 2016). In other words, the attitudes towards dominant language are crucial to tie to the future career path for students who are taught the dominant language as the teaching language in school settings. Social trends promote the frequency of students taking exams and experiencing social contact in the official language. By comparison, the perspectives from students, educators and policy-makers are important as key factors to process if the Zhuang language teaching program is implemented in Guangxi, and students have a key role in transmitting the linguistic heritage in the long-term future. The investigation in Vietnam articulates a triangulation for conducting a balanced linguistic environment in terms of education by focusing on the instruction of L1, English and Mandarin in China.

Leadership in bilingual education. Since there is limited literature talking about leadership in bilingual education, I referred to an article by Carter and Chatfield (1986) who discuss the implications of the effective bilingual practice in a school in California. There are several key themes, which provide the curriculum setting, school climate, organizational processes and the institutional effort to demonstrate how the bilingual education effectively function as a model. There are is a great deal of researches which that employs multilevel

explanations to describe the importance of managerial principals. A successful school leader must be a well-designed bridge between supporting a positive school structure as well as funds sufficiently from the institutional organizations. The integration of teaching resources and materials is crucial to implement the bilingual education. In Carter and Chatfield's article (1986), they imply political continuum is the catalyst to meet school leaders' expectations and goals in bilingual education. Meanwhile, the principal should articulate as an instructional leader as well as making supplementary contributions. Because when they make any kind of decision about how to practice a well-prepared and specific bilingual teaching process, teacher-centered proposals are more likely to focus on the cooperation and mutual respect during the decision-making process (Carter & Chatfield, 1986). The article illustrates how bilingual teachers in that model school feel belonging and important. Thus, they clearly understand what, how and when to teach bilinguals.

Research Questions

The research questions that the article will explore are as follows: how has the practice of bilingual education been articulated in the policy and implementation within the public-school system in Guangxi? What is the significance of implementing the Zhuang-Han education within public schools? What solutions are available to the Chinese government informed by other parts of the world?

Chapter Two: Research Design

To organize this chapter, there are five sections, which include the following: data search, research strategies, selection criteria, data coding and analysis and results. It illustrates how to conduct the designs, search for the resources, make decisions and analyze the materials. The sequence of research methods clarifies a logical process for identifying issues and leading to a quantitative study. In addition, it recommends that subsequent qualitative research is carried out through focus group interviews.

Data Search

The university library provides a wealth of academic sources. For example, Omni was introduced this year as an academic search tool containing databases from fourteen universities in Ontario. This new tool needs to be narrowed down the topic by students with much effort at the beginning, but they can find some success without too much effort if they know what type of research sources they need to find. Based on the academic requirement at the graduate level in the Masters of Education program, the goal is to use authoritative sources as much as possible. For the topic of bilingual education programs, the advanced searching method was needed. Generally speaking, the closer a resource is to the topic, the better. Additionally, Creswell (2018) states that the computerized database offers an easier access to a number of sources, materials and articles in different kinds of academic fields. In light of the utilization of websites, it is feasible to attain up-to-date resources. There are a variety of search engines on online databases such as ERIC, ProQuest, EBSCO, which relate to the area in terms of education. Furthermore, it is wise to get help from research advisors on campus as they are professionals who can support students to target their research topic, focus group and intention. Also, if students need help to find out sources specifically, it is easy to consult them for tips. The components I identified in this study were searched out on those websites through the following keywords: “bilingualism,”

“bilingual “multi-bilingual education,” “minority language,” “language dominance,” “language maintenance,” “multicultural learning,” “multi-language learning,” “Zhuang language,” “minority language management”.

Research Strategies

It is arguable that minority students living in the frontier regions such as southwestern have faced economic and educational disparities. In such areas, those groups of students are biased that they have lower social status. The economic and educational resources are distributed unequally which means sufficient teaching materials are more likely to support to the privileged class. As a matter of fact, students in minority groups are considered to achieve lower levels of education driven by the geological and political characteristics differently (Huang, 2019).

According to Hannum (2002), the students in the underdeveloped interior of China have limited access to educational resources. This imbalanced resources and materials in school settings ties to the funding shortage in minority language learning outcomes. However, her study does not include the social status of students themselves; instead, she was aim to determine how to revitalize the importance of minority language in the dominant mainstream. Moreover, the mental health and the emotional perceptions of minority children are not discussed in this article. In carrying out this systematic literature review (SLR), I initially gathered 45 peer-reviewed articles for would-be inclusions in this analysis. Then a step-by-step investigation was conducted to stratify whether or not each article met the selected criteria: 1) subject matter, 2) language, 3) time frame.

Selection Criteria

It is challenging to narrow down the topic at some point early in the writing process. Rather, as a graduate student, it is important to get familiar with writing skills as well as

pay attention to the time availability. Thus, I divided into distinctive aspects to demonstrate the selected criteria for my topic of this paper.

Subject matter. The target groups in Zhuang language education would be oriented in educators such as school leaders and teachers as well as the implementation-receivers—students. It is mainly focused on how the teaching process, how bilingual education impacts on the practitioners themselves and why those groups would face the challenges at times.

Language. Regarding to some of the government documents in China that I found, the language used in the reference includes Chinese, Han specifically. Yet, the most parts of articles that I refer to are English due to the universal language scholars prefer.

Time frame. The setting timeframe is from the foundation of PRC (The People's Republic of China), in 1949. Zhuang-Han schooling has been gone through a dynamic process. As a result, there are comparisons of practice program in the area in the past few decades.

Data Coding and Analysis

There are three strategies to code and analyze the selected articles in the references. It helps to review all the key conceptions that cover in the Zhuang-Han education regarding to implement in China: 1) Indicate the multiple journals published on bilingual education. 2) Identify the origins and dates of those researches that have been conducted. 3) Note the key issues would be discussed in those articles.

First, those articles were published in variable countries, has the number which is significantly dominated in USA which has nineteen of them, UK has ranked the second

accounting for twelve and the remaining countries are Netherlands (2), Canada (1), India (1), Germany (1), and Croatia (1) (see Table 1).

The second factor is related to the geography. This factor should be considered as the key data-coding and analyzing process. At the national level, six articles were developed in China, two articles were developed in USA as well as Canada and the remaining articles were developed in the Lao PDR, South Africa, Croatia, Vietnam, UK, India and European Union. In terms of the research locations, there are ten studies which were preferred to target in southwestern China, Hong Kong exclusively, which nearly accounts for the percentage of 28.5 at the regional level. Likewise, there are 8 studies were published in the US, 5 in the east, 2 in the west and 1 in the south respectively. (Table 2)

Third, the temporal distribution of the studies (including official documents) was as follows: There are twenty-three articles which were published in the 2010s which were highly peaked in 2011 and 2014. The interests seem to be lowered among the 1970s (3) and the 1980s (2) due to prone to the up-dated trends in bilingual education widely spread. It should be noted that it is meaningful to refer to studies in 1990s and 2000s which are compatible with the key issues in bilingual education in the past few years. (Table 3)

Table 1. Journal pool

Journal	Organization	Country	Total Articles
American Journal of Education		USA	1
Annual Review of Applied Linguistics	AAAL	USA	1
Bilingual Research Journal		UK	1
Bilingual Review		USA	1
Cahiers De Linguistique - Asie Orientale		Netherlands	1
Chinese Education & Society		USA	5
Current Issues in Language & Society		UK	1
Demography	PAOA	USA	1

Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education		USA	1
Educational Policy	COPE	USA	1
Harvard Educational Review	HGSOE	USA	1
Human Rights Quarterly		USA	1
International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism		UK	2
International Journal of Intercultural Relations		USA	1
Jezikoslovlje		Croatia	1
Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development		UK	2
Language and Education		UK	1
Reading Improvement		USA	1
RELC Journal	SEAMEO	UK	1
Social Science Journal	WSSA	Netherlands	1
System		UK	1
The Economic Times		India	1
Urban Education		USA	1
Working Papers in Bilingualism		Canada	1

These geographic characteristics implies that it is important to compatible with conceptions and lenses in separated continents such as north America and Europe. As the typical colonized countries in a long term, those countries have specific regulations to consider the immersion and assimilation of languages from other areas throughout the world. As such, Table 1 is supported diverse landscapes for illustrating the regions where are required to specific language resolutions regarding the challenge of cultural integration. Yet, eight of articles in this study are linked to American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Population Association of America (PAOA), Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), Harvard Graduate School of Education (HGSOE), Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO), American Educational Research Association (AERA), Western Social Science Association (WSSA).

Table 2. Geography

Authors	Date	Country	Region
Bauer	2000	Netherlands	Nationwide
Bao	2019	China	Nationwide
Bodomo	2010	China	Southwestern regions
Cahnmann	1998	USA	Philadelphia
Carter & Chatfield	1986	USA	California
Cincotta-Segi	2011	Lao PDR	Nationwide
Creswell & Creswell	2018	USA	N/A
Cummins	1976	Canada	N/A
Feng & Adamson	2017	China	Minority regions
Feurer	1996	China	Yunnan
Fishman	1977	USA	Nationwide
Fitzgerald	2011	USA	Colorado & Massachusetts
Freyne & Clément	2015	Canada	Nationwide
Gardiner & Enomoto	2006	USA	N/A
Gerena	2011	USA	Southern California
Hannum	2002	China	N/A
Heugh	2013	South Africa	Nationwide
Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins	2008	Worldwide	N/A
Leung & Wong	1996	China	Hong Kong
Martinović	2018	Croatia	Nationwide
Menken & Solorza	2012	USA	New York
Menken & Solorza	2014	USA	New York
Nguyen & Hamid	2016	Vietnam	Nationwide
Norman	2019	China	N/A
Pousada	1991	USA	New York
Qing & Suizhou	2010	China	Tibet & Xinjiang
Rong	2007	China	Nationwide
Rundall	1986	European Union	Spain
Safty	1992	Canada	Nationwide
Sawe	2018	China	N/A
Suhua	2008	China	Sichuan

Tsung & Cruickshank	2009	China	Xinjiang
Valdes	1997	USA	Nationwide
Wang & Postiglione	2015	China	Gansu
Xia & Wang	2007	China	Nationwide
Xing	2001	China	Nationwide
Zhou	2000	China	Nationwide
Zhu	2014	China	Nationwide

The second factor in this section was the geography. Those data and research materials indicates even though there are a great deal of bilingual education practice worldwide, the certain context and obstacles in terms of policy and history would be crucial to guide the implementation in China. As a result, 18 of articles are developed in China, while others with the number of 26 locate the North America, Europe, Africa and Asian. The global references are provided a majority of landscape to demonstrate the phenomenon in bilingual education. In relation to the bilingual implementation, the chosen articles are tended to include broaden categories: leadership in communities; parental engagement; communities in service; teacher preparation; and further research.

Table 3. Temporal Distribution

Year	Total articles
1976-1979	2
1980-1985	0
1986-1990	2
1991-1995	4
1996-2000	5
2001-2005	2
2006-2010	8
2011-2015	7
2016-2019	6

In table 3, the temporal distribution of the articles indicates the interests relating to the bilingual practice was barely noticed between 1980 and 1985. By contrast, it attains a high welcoming in this phenomenon during the years from 2006 to 2010 when they were released. As a whole, it should be noted that this type of research has started to achieve preferences in the early 2006. However, the rate of being discussed in the same topic has turned to cool down a bit more in the last five years. As a result, the distributed variables have been gone through a fluctuated process.

Table 4. Five Recommendations

Authors	Leadership in Communities	Parental engagement	Community involvement	Teacher Preparation	Further research
Bauer					√
Carter & Chatfield					√
Cincotta-Segi				√	
Cummins		√	√	√	
Fitzgerald		√			
Gardiner & Enomoto			√		
Gerena	√		√		
Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins	√				
Leung & Wong		√			√
Menken & Solorza		√			
Nguyen & Hamid		√			√
Pousada	√		√		
Rundall		√			
Safty	√			√	

Results in School Settings

There are 15 studies indicating bilingual education in Guangxi navigates five recommendations. Even though those domains (Table 4) collaborate within the education-wide inclusion, they may not mutually be influenced on how to function in each perspective. To investigate each domain, this section about results has some more subsections.

Principals

Studies explored principals as a multi-angle role to facilitate bilingual education in multicultural school settings. In this part of data research, there are three domains to demonstrate the bilingual education leadership when principals implement their jobs.

Evaluation. Five articles indicated that bilingual education is a tool to evaluate the principals and the staff at school. Gardiner and Enomoto (2006) states that regulating the principals and discipline among school staff at a higher level would be a factor to promote teaching minority languages. There is no every principal have the minority background. Only have they better understand this culture-conflicting issue with diverse language and cultural backgrounds, they are more likely to face the challenges to arrange the bilingual program. For example, to hold the peer tutoring and score their knowledge about minority groups among district school leaders is a motivation to enhance the bilingual implementation.

Organizer. Eleven articles illustrate that School leaders play a key role to guide and instruct staff in facing the issue of multicultural diversity. Therefore, this top-down management is effective for the administrators and a requisite to organize the minority language teaching as a proficient instruction. As a matter of fact, it is highly demanding for leaders to design and conduct the bilingual education program without the support of other participants in running the school's management. Hence, it is a completed cycle started with intention to the performance-oriented outcomes as a whole. This attainment in schools advocates bilingual teaching

implementation would overcome challenges such as time-frame, financial allocation and external collocations.

Parental Engagement

Early intervention. Gardiner and Enomoto (2006) believe that it is imperative to provide a linguistic environment for young language learners from their parents in nature. For pre-school aged children, their language performance is mainly represented from the routine communication with family members. Furthermore, the interactive medium through mother tongues would be considered as one of the most preferable ways to educate children when they live in a community where different from their traditional lifestyles.

Auxiliary effect. Home-based participation indicates the collaboration with other parts of counterparts in language learning. Parents bridge the gap for students between schools and communities (Gerena, 2011). It is crucial to understand how parents consider their perspectives, values, desires and needs to learn minority languages. The propriate instruction by family members for students to learn mother tongue would be more motivational to a great extent.

Communitive Involvement

To certain extent, communitive administrators are more practicable to arrange and organize activities for bilingual students. In terms of geographical regions and habitats, there are a great deal of organizational assistance can be implemented in the out-of-school phenomenon in the field of language education.

Integration. Sufficient community support for minority language learners is included by internal and external factors. The internal factor relates to the parental involvement that mentioned before. The external factor identifies the school climate which is compatible with the community engagement. Social change impacts on the trends of bilingual education. Rather,

community directly represents their identities those regions belong to, how the groups culturally response to the language and what they subjectively matter. As a result, the characteristic and qualified bilingual instruction should be integrated in social interactions for language and literacy development (Huerta-Macias, 2003).

Partner. Partnership with social service is utilized multiple resources in society to provide a linguistic environment for students (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006). Bilinguals have special needs for certain organizations that would be specifically acquire non-dominant language as much as possible. For example, workers in those associations are responsible to make connection with students are in the particular groups. Those groups of students are assessible to get assistance of language instruction other than schools.

Teachers

Teacher is considered as the major practitioner in bilingual education. They directly use the bilingual language as an instructive medium which ties to the evaluation of students' learning performance. Meanwhile, teacher is one of the most crucial roles to deliver the information from the external and internal learning environment.

Instruction. Teachers play a direct role to instruct bilingual students in the school settings. Their attitudes towards to bilingual education decides how they educate their students, how they conduct the teaching process and how they practice in the teaching environment. As a result, teachers are empowered to be responsible to deliver dominant and non-dominant languages. As long as the educational authorities put forward to bilingual education, it is necessary to follows the rules for teachers and enact to master of other languages which they might not be familiar with. This instance would be a reference to a typical characteristic of teachers in the school settings.

Training programme. The pre-service teachers are allowed to be mastered of different languages when they take the courses while learn for being an official teacher. As the policy-planners, they are likely to build up the confidence of learning minority languages before implementing the bilingual education. Thus, more specifically, as long as teachers get a better understanding of minority languages and culture, it is imperative to educate students with the specific minority backgrounds and maintain the equity of each student.

Chapter Three: Findings

In this chapter, firstly, it concludes and clarifies four components that imply by this research. It clearly illustrates that how those components process in implementing the bilingual education. Then, it illustrates that the how the national bilingual education as well as the global ones run and function. It is necessary to compare other programs in diverse countries with China's. Last, to outline other issues the researchers need to be paid attention when they study on the bilingual education.

Definitions of Components

Bilingual education in this article is generally separated into four key components, which are 1) administrative construction; 2) school climate; 3) out-of-home Domains of Zhuang Language Education; 4) program models.

First, there are numerous education policies, regulations and laws which impact on the Zhuang education. For instance, the Bilingual Education Act in the US started to support students using their heritage languages financially in 1968 (Cahnmann, 1998); In China, there was a nation-level document named Suggestions for Enhancing Minority Education Work which aims to emphasize on the freedom of language teaching for non-dominant group of students (Feng & Adamson, 2017). In addition, several publications have explored specific factors of policies impacting on diverse minority languages (Valdes, 1997). As a result, it is effective to compare a great deal of global literature with national implementing bilingual education. Minority groups are different from geographical diversities and cultural backgrounds. Researching on the non-dominant group should not be excluded by the bilingual education program from any other countries throughout the world. Hence, the multiple perspectives on a global scale in minority language education through top-down approaches is the key to explore the effectiveness of government-directed guidance.

Second, a number of researchers articulate the importance of teacher preparation and the leader preparation, are used to mandate the bilingual teaching in the educational environment. As the school leaders themselves, they may not possibly be qualified to provide formal preparation (Menken & Solorza, 2014) for Zhuang language education. By contrast, it is productive for successful educators to offer a welcoming and flexible space for Han-Zhuang education. Because the cultivation of inalienable heritage culture and language would be an asset considerably for school staff during the bilingual teaching process. Specifically, the starting point should be more attainment of minority groups for school practitioners at higher levels which results in achieving the fulfillment of confidence and satisfaction to implement the program in dual language education. Therefore, the teacher preparation would be the sub-component which is practicable to have a joint effort with principals through “grade-level committee, program groups” (Carter & Chatfield, 1986, p. 24). At this level of preparation, teachers have a feeling of belonging and clearly understand what, when and how they are supposed to teach with the materials (Carter & Chatfield, 1986). Thus, no matter what the exact job description of school staff is, the educational environment indicates the values and expectations for students to study another language as well as Han in China. Students are influenced by the school climate to shape their social values in race, group and culture.

Third, because Mandarin is the sole language as an instructional medium in urban schools in GZAR, it is imperative to teach the Zhuang language and how the Zhuang teaching will face challenges through policy context to affect leadership and teachers’ language-teaching practices in class. In addition, since 1949, interference from the central governmental has become the rule in the area of education (Suhua, 2008). Furthermore, language education for ethnic minority students has been shifted to the Central Government policymakers which vary from region to

region in China (Tsung & Cruickshank, 2009). During the periods from the late 1940s to the mid-1980s, the language policy in GZAR has been changed depending on diverse political contexts, according to Zhou (2000), there was a writing system invented for the Zhuang people which facilitated the use of the minority language by the first national conference held in December 1955. Mandarin was only promoted for domain group only announced by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) Central Committee in 1956 (Policy Research Office of State Commission on Language and Script [PROSCLS], 1996). Han language has become the only instructional media which the government eliminated or gradually reduced the minority-language curriculum in 1958 (Zhou, 2000). During the Cultural Revolution (1966-76), Zhou (2000) states that bilingual education (including Zhuang) in China had reached the lowest threshold of the past few decades. What is more, he mentions that since 1980s, Chinese in the replacement of the Latin system has been the dominant language in the school settings. As it turns out, why does Zhuang language matter to language education in Guangxi? The answer ties to the tremendous proportion of Zhuang group people distributed in this region.

The fourth component illustrates the importance of a large number of school models to implement bilingual education. Even though there is an argument about eliminating bilingual education programs in urban schools (Menken & Solorza, 2012), it is worthwhile to explore whether there is a pretext or not on the process of investigation. It is worth exploring why bilingual education does not work in specific situations. Also, the interference within the whole process would be the potential initiatives as an impact on the practice in minority language education. As a matter of fact, it is valuable to compare with the bilingual education in distinctive cultural backgrounds which is compatible with social trends in current years.

The Implementation of Bilingual Education in the World

There are a number of paradigms demonstrating how the bilingual education model run throughout the world. With regard to those practices, French Immersion in Canada, the European models of bilingual education, the application in South-African, accountability and the elimination of bilingual education Programs in New York City Schools are the significant ones which will be mentioned as follows. They are significantly introduced as an entry level to explain how the practices function in the multi-cultural countries such as China.

Europe. European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) (1992) is developed by the European Parties which is applied to five countries: the UK, France, German, Italy and Russia. It lists the detailed contents for administrative authorities, public service and educators about how to promote practice, protection, principals, and goals in terms of bilingual education due to preserve cultural traditions and heritage. It is worth noting that European model in bilingual implementation has influenced in a positive way. Referring to the ECRML, regional or minority languages are defined as: “(I) traditionally used within a given territory of a state by nationals of that State who form a group numerically smaller than the rest of the state's population; and (II) different from the official language(s) of that state; it does not include either dialects of the official language(s) of the State or the languages of migrants” (Council of Europe, 1992). It appears that the Charter admits the dominant of official language(s) and requires the education of minority languages to be conducted by the official language. Therefore, the Charter guarantees the sustainability and vitality of minority languages being supported by policy-makers in general public. According to Baetens Beardsmore (1993), he exemplifies linguistic training programme in Europe. Generally, it is initiative for the administrative authorities to practice and develop multilingual education in any country within Europe. Likewise, those educational planners in Europe far more tend to take the inner interaction in school with the

benefits as well as wider communication. Thus, European government would like to put extra subsidies into bilingual, even more language education for both teachers and learners because policy-planners believe this type of education attains higher success rate, irrespective of social class and selection for students (Baetens Beardsmore, 1993). The programme designers require teachers with qualified levels as native speakers and schedule the time availability of peer-group interaction among students. As a matter of fact, the mode of bilingual education in Europe significantly maintain the linguistic and cultural heterogeneity in school settings. In addition, it emphasizes on the social-cultural factors more than good with linguistic factors in bilingual development.

Canada. The French Immersion in Canada aims to teach French in English communities. The bilingualism is strongly associated with identity in the Canadian context (Freynet & Clement, 2015). Likewise, Freynet and Clement (2015) have explored the confidence of the language competency promotes the social and psycho-pedagogical nature. The data for analysis from Statistics Canada is collected among minority Francophones outside of Quebec and minority Anglophones in Quebec. The results of the quantitative research demonstrate the relationship between language proficiency and social identity of English-French speakers for all regions. However, the Canadian process is different from European operations. It is interesting to investigate how to maintain the utilization of dual-language in society. First, the dual-language parallels in the educational routines which is no other linguistic competency. According to Baetens Beardsmore (1993), he demonstrates that there are 4,500 contact hours of using French as an instructive medium in Canada which of 1,300 contact hours in Europe due to French is not the only language they learn. Second, due to this immersed language in dominant communities, there is no mixed group with other language in the dual-language class (Baetens Beardsmore,

1993). This linguistic situation ties to a way of introduction of target language rather than a core subject. As a result, it illustrates that the ethnolinguistic vitality is related to the language usage and the social-cultural nature of the areas. Referring to the Zhuang-Han school settings, it suggests to maintain the Zhuang identity which means take to considerations of linguistic and cultural pluralism rather than assimilation.

South Africa. There were two shifted attitudes towards the bilingual education by government in this area during two different periods. Moreover, it defined bilingual language in South Africa both as African language with eleven mother tongues and English. Between the year of 1955 and 1976, the Department of Education announced to minimize the use of English teaching throughout the schools. However, from the late 1970s, the majority of parents advocated for strong aspiration towards English education (Heugh, 2013). The trend turns out the lack of guidance of teachers, decreasing numbers of students of African languages in universities and insufficient resources of teachers of African languages. Hence, Heugh (2013) deems that the educators and policymakers should consider implementing bilingual education in different contexts. There is no one-size-fits-all solution in the field of education. Whether the bilingual education program in South Africa is successful depending on the administrative authorities and meeting the interests of parents. Thus, bilingual education may not work without administrators' and parental supports.

New York. Menken and Solorza (2012) conducted a qualitative research that figured out the reasons for the elimination of the bilingual education in New York's urban schools. They interviewed principals in ten city schools who intended to shut down the bilingual education programs. The study illustrates that individual schools may make their own choices supported by the principals. School leaders have the right to allocate the financial resources to maximize the

operating efficiency of the curriculum. However, according to the Aspira Consent Decree, issued in 1974, bilingual students have the rights to enroll in a bilingual education program (Menken & Solorza, 2012). In that study, Menken and Solorza outline multiple reasons to block the implementation of bilingual education in those schools. One is that all the schools are pressured by the test-based accountability which is outlined by No Child Left Behind (NCLB) program. Schools that offer such programs have typically seen that emergent bilingual students earned lower scores than that standards prescribed by the NCLB, which in turn means that schools could potentially be penalized and could face a loss of funding (Menken & Solorza, 2012). In addition, they state that the sample schools did not have time to effectively prepare for emergent bilingual students to the transition into higher education because the language of entrance examination is the dominant language: English. Likewise, the lack of funding is another crucial barrier to stop the educational form. Worse, phenomenon is shown after the year of the elimination of bilingual education and those schools had never met the academic expectation effectively (Menken & Solorza, 2012). The test-based accountability and schools' reputation impact the vitality of bilingual education in city schools in New York. In urban cities, principals are more likely to make disincentive for bilingual students at stake. Principals only tended to confirm to the educational reform when shielded by top-down educational policies. As a result, there may cause detrimental effects to eliminate the bilingual program, such as higher dropout rates of bilinguals and irrespective of social class and selection as shown in this article.

The Implementation of Bilingual Education in China

L1 maintenance. It is clear that one-size-fits-all programs will not serve the needs of all bilinguals, as longitudinal studies demonstrate (Menken & Solorza, 2012; Nguyen & Hamid, 2016). The success of implementing bilingual education program depends on the policy-makers'

values and interests. In the process of teacher employment, if teachers are lack of cultural contexts to translate from L2 into L1, bilinguals are less likely to understand the L2 knowledge. Generally speaking, L1 is considered as mother tongue for a specific group of people naturally spoken since they are born. L1 is communicated by original living surroundings as well as communities. Yet, as urban cities like Nanning (the capital city of Guangxi) in some autonomous regions in China, residents are negatively accepted to speak official language instead of the minority language such as Zhuang. In this light, L1 could be replaced by the dominant language as the L2 which is reversely compatible with. For our generation who were born in the 1980s in China, it is unclearly identified what is the L1 language per se. For me, residing in the minority region does not mean that it strengthens the L1 competency. However, the enforcement of academic language teaching by the policy-planners results in irrespective social class (Baetens Beardsmore, 1993). According to Zhu (2014), the word of *bilingualism* started to appear in China's political regulations and documents in 1980. He states that the official language was initially considered as an auxiliary language which had ranked the second in the educational environment with a dominant presence of minority students. In current years, bilingualism has become a popular topic due to the dilemma between the goal of maintaining economic development and protecting linguistic rights for minority groups. Thus, it is imperative to explore how the linguistic intellectuals define *bilingualism* throughout the world. As a result, the multi-angle conceptions about specific terminology in terms of language may refer to studies which concern about bilingual education. Furthermore, the potential effect of which L2 attainment encounters L1 proficiency is important because it may result in the policy-strategy making process. According to Cincotta-Segi (2011), there is no conflict between L1 maintenance and L2 centralization when the teacher deployment is settled as one of the process in

employment market. As a result, L1 being the main medium of teaching instruction may be the assumption for educational planners as a recruitment standard to deploy teachers with ethnic minority backgrounds.

L2 centrality. Generally speaking, L2 is more society-directed to meet the future expectation. L2 teaching is more complex than the rote-learning. Consequently, the motivation of learning second language can be one of the linguistic fields to study. Martinović (2016) identifies English as the L2 language for students. In addition, the goals of her study are to find how the L2 motivation impacts on English learners' outcomes while consider English as the L2. She also defines three types of L2 learning motivation, pragmatic-communicative motivation, affective motivation, and integrative motivation inclusively. Those types of motivation connect to external and internal influences which relate to student-driven performance.

Individual students are affected to a certain extent by group norms and there is pressure to internalize extrinsic types of motivation, such as our ought-to selves. Likewise, the L2 centrality is articulated by the social trends including external and inner pressures. In addition, there are differences based on the roles such as teachers and students being affected to play in the dynamic process. For instance, the medium of teaching instruction is forced to encourage maintaining the L2 learning in a dominant status. If teachers speak L2 and utilize it as an assessment medium of the exams, students would more frequently speak L2 language in the daily communication in the school settings more than L1.

According to Wang and Postiglione (2008), the exposure to the Han environment are not directly tied to the learning outcomes among students in China. Wang and Postiglione conclude the direct effect on the students' learning outcomes include: 1) the students' attendance rate, the

attitudes towards to the school climate; and 2) teachers' age, education background and the frequency of using the instructional language. Therefore, the attitudes of students and teachers' professional level are the crucial factors that impact the L2 learning performance.

Bilingual education in Guangxi. The bilingual education in Guangxi is similar to other autonomous regions in terms of policy. It is assumed that big cities like Nanning, the capital city of the GZAR is the priority to achieve more sufficient resources in economic and educational development. Yet in this section, the chosen models are only referred to distinctive practices in prefectures of ethnic minority groups. Because there are few studies focusing on how this type of implementation impacts on urban cities in Southeastern China. Feurer (1996) conducted an experimental study in Yunnan, which was a pilot program that implemented a bilingual education program among ethnic minority groups. The bilingual education effectively boosted the literacy rate for minority language students. Feurer (1996) implemented two kinds of classes: a control group that featured regular students (R), and an experimental group that featured students from the Pilot Project (PP). In terms of written test, PP students have less instructive time of writing than R students, however, their academic performance is equal. As a result, the hypothesis would be assumed that the L1 proficiency transferring to a different language in structure would tie to a different writing system. In the outcome of oral test in this experiment, due to the rare exposure of non-dominant language in outside-of-classroom settings, it illustrates the nature in self-confidence and self-competence of learning other language. To more specific, the rooted bilingual education in context has its beneficial effects for minority language as one of the official languages. Results indicate that PP students were more successful than R students on all subjects. Additionally, R students had lower levels of self-confidence regarding to learning and their classes lacked of positive reinforcement with their social-cultural identities. Therefore,

the research demonstrates that the significance of social-cultural factors empowers the literacy success of non-dominant students.

In 2008, there was a change of policy that education administrators examined whether to meet the minority students' needs in academic performance, especially a case study in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (XUAR) (Tsung & Cruickshank, 2009). They believe the outcomes were not promising because bilingual education is unsuccessfully implemented in this program due to lack of available teaching resources and materials. Moreover, minority students have little interaction with dominant students. The two group of students have rooted in different lifestyles and languages, the wider communication barely happens outside of the classroom. The psycho-pedagogical nature has influenced on their values and perspectives. As a result, in urban China, even the accessible recruitment of bilingual teachers is more beneficial than rural areas, the shifted attitudes of policy in bilingual education have exacerbated the disparities between distinctive regions. It is difficult to educate different ethnic group students when their attitudes and social-cultural perspective are distinctive.

There was another pilot program in Sichuan province implementing the bilingual education with the Yi and Tibetan as the teaching language in the minority area by the year of 2012. This implementation is required to promote the teaching quality and instruction and explore what the bilingual education impacts on minority students' learning outcomes (Rong, 2007). Additionally, there is another mode of school structure which sets up classes with mixed groups of students. As it turns out, the mixed schools show that the daily interaction between Chinese students and minority students is low (Tsung & Cruickshank, 2009). As a matter of fact, Tsung and Cruickshank (2009) indicate that the Chinese government did not provide specific resources and funding such as conducting a pre-service teacher training program in terms of

minority languages or suitable curriculum. Furthermore, it is not the point in their study that implement the bilingual education program in such cases, but it is effective to shift the attitudes towards to interests of school leaders and educational authorities.

The Outside-of-School Milieu

Generally speaking, learning a second language is natural in places, not only in the schooling environment. Children at their early ages are more likely to reach mother tongues in listening and speaking forms. However, the school climate of educating marginalized groups has led the acceptance level of non-dominant language acquisition. Some school leaders are more preferable to meet authorities' interests. There is a related effect of triangulation among school principals, policy-makers and communities. Some researches emphasize on the efficiency of the community involvement (Carter & Chatfield, 1986; Huerta-Macia, 2003; Pousada, 1991).

Rundall (1986) states that it is ineffective to isolate children from the mainstream and only teach them two languages in public schools. Therefore, there are some recommendations to advocate for the outcomes of the bilingual education through community-participation (Pousada, 1991).

Because even a well-trained bilingual teacher, he or she cannot be completely mastered of other language which is not the mother tongue. Thus, Pousada (1991) offers the recommendations to

boost the effective community engagement: 1) Mutual respect for individuals of community staff; 2) Payoffs all around; 3) Time availability; 4) Well- prepared training program; 5)

Personnel networks; 6) Professional staff to bridge the gap between schools and parents. Hence,

it is valuable for the collaboration of parental and community to plan and participate for the contribution, interaction and cooperation in bilingual language environment.

Chapter Four: Discussion

This chapter outlines eight sections including: key issues, contributing factors and rationale, five recommendations and implications. The advocacy for supportive perspectives are extorted from the identification of key challenges. There are five implications to discuss in this section, which help address the needs of leaders: 1) leadership in communities, 2) parental engagement, 3) communities in service, 4) teacher preparation, and 5) further research to identify supportive policy. This section requires extract more conclusive conceptions that use for the reference to the readers.

Key Issues

It is not easy to teach the Zhuang in the GZAR due to make connections with issues in terms of policy-makers, educational authorities and practitioners in the educational environment. It is imperative to identify why Zhuang language is so important but not popular among residents living in the urban areas. According to Greg (2019), Zhuang and Han schooling is rarer in urban areas than in rural areas. Even though this dual education program has experienced a mutual and dynamic process in history, this study is still an ethnographical one to deeply explore in order to preserve cultural heritage through language teaching. The policy-interchanging process in China and the perceptions from other countries provide a multiple lens in leading to understand why the Zhuang language matters. In addition, adding on key roles participating in bilingual education is crucial to boost the sense of confidence for Zhuang people. Zhuang, the intangible language, is worth valuing and matters for administrative authorities to advocate in the school settings. The textual and aural content are still utilized only in dominant language. Additionally, the mainstream of testing media is required to be assessed by Han for school students for all groups could graduate. School staff, as practitioners, must participate in exploring why it is important to

students in minority groups. Also, there are concerns about the effects on the language proficiency which would interfere with the future career.

Recommendations: Leadership in Communities

Leadership is considered to be a catalyst (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008), which balances school climate in the context of language education programs. Leadership management cannot solely stand by itself to impact on the social culture. There are four factors that principals would provide guidance and suggestions for promoting bilingual education programs. One factor for an outside-of-school scenario is that school leaders play the key role to reduce the social-cultural and ethnolinguistic misconceptions in class and selection. For instance, school leaders must work to build up the mixed groups linguistically, which is effective in European multilingual education programs. The freedom of the usage of diverse language implementation is flexible in social distance among the social clustering in nature. The integration strategy is more adaptive than the assimilation of dominant culture and language which preserves the non-dominant pattern in the routine life. In addition, school leaders should maximize the size of the learners' group. The more learners reside the target group area, the more productive to the language acquisition. Second, principals should open their minds to holding parents' conferences which provides a natural space to communicate about how to make up with flexible strategies. In some cases, parents are worried that learning another language would result in lowering the academic outcomes due to the main instructive medium of Han. For those parents who are uncertain about their children's futures, school leaders should understand parents' goals, desires, cultural values, and conceptions. Specifically, it is important to meet parents' interests to a great extent, for example, by boosting the confidence of linguistic and cultural pluralism. Third, school leaders are entitled to process sustainable and persistent implementation when they make

decisions. It is necessary for school leaders to foster a climate to a positive extent concerning bilingual education implementation. Specifically, principals should organize the peer-support meetings among staff to minimize the cultural and linguistic heterogeneity. It is practical to broaden the wider interaction for both the academic orientation and inner unity. Forth, Safty (1992) articulates that bilingual schools should be run by bilingual leaders. It is viable for school leaders to understand the bilingual teaching process and be familiar with text-book cases in bilingualism. As a matter of fact, principals or vice principals should be welcomed more to participate in evaluating, presenting and assessing procedures. Additionally, it is feasible to certify for different levels of understanding bilingual knowledge. It is vital to have skillful principals in bilingual education who understand the bilingual curriculum and instructional guidance rather than unilingual principals in order to have the successful implementation.

Recommendations: Parental Engagement

Two articles indicate that parental preference is effectively supportive to the dominant language (Leung & Wong, 1996; Fitzgerald, 2011). Parental support is necessary to promote using Zhuang language for its maintenance and sustainability. The outside-of-school support of dominant-language learning by parents is based on presumptions such as that the major test only being assessed in Han, the language holds dominance in job opportunities and business communication occurs mainly in the official language. Parents whose children are in the dual-language environment need to foster a motivative, caring and nurturing environment. It is important to understand that parental attitudes have an impact on how leaders implement language teaching programs, especially for bilingual education. Hence, it is valuable to help students learning the Zhuang language to make them feel belongings with parental support. Cummins (1976) suggests that children who want to master languages have to immerse

themselves in the mutual learning environment. Based on studies about pilot programs of bilingual education, bilingual children have been positively influenced by attaining a second language through the cognitive process. Thus, parents are responsible to provide a learning environment to improve children's cognitions as the home-based teaching.

Recommendations: Communities in Service

Social agencies are responsible to provide the understanding of parental rationales, motivations and initiatives to educational policy planners. It is not easy to implement the bilingual education policy in communities. Yet, it is necessary to arrange professional training programs for community members to fit into the existing organizational structures and networks. For example, communities should select a full-time staff to work with schools as well as parents. It is useful to provide a student the dual-language environment both at the institutional and individual levels. Likewise, community plays a key role in the gradual process to switch the method of language instruction. Bilingualism is a consistent engagement with the language and culture. Bilingual education can not be implemented without the historical and cultural context. Communities are supportive to conduct the early educational interventions. The improvement of educational opportunities aims to help family members understand how the bilingual education plans and works. Likewise, partnership between school leaders and social service agencies would be supportive to provide a multi-cultural space to the acquisition for learning other languages. To be specific, community resource workers are encouraged to communicate in Zhuang language with Zhuang youngsters.

Recommendations: Teacher Preparation

Teacher recruitment is the basic factor to maintain the dual-language education in school settings. It is arguable whether the teachers' values impact on the improvement of bilingual

education. It is suggested that the arrangement for bilingual teachers is as follows: ethnically based recruitment and the deployment of teachers do not necessarily ensure particular classroom language choices; when the L1 is used in the classroom, teachers may make more efforts to explain complicated context in the L1 and frame the context of L2. Hence, it is highly recommended that teachers are familiar with language context. Therefore, teachers who have Zhuang proficiency as well as the master of Han language would be an asset during the employment process. It advocates for hiring the qualified teachers of native speakers in Zhuang language. The linguistic asset would be beneficial to the translation from the L1 context to the L2 competency. The reform of greater relevance in the linguistic market place of school is positive for teachers with ethnic minority groups.

Recommendations: Further Research to Identify the Supportive Policies

Educational administration should explore an exam to decrease the cultural and linguistic heterogeneity. As it turns out, there are large numbers of students to meet the balanced criteria no matter what their minority backgrounds are. The specific language assessment is concentrated on bilingual students' cognitive development more than their backgrounds. Therefore, it is significant to identify the curriculum plan and the assessment system which are fit for bilingual students.

There are a number of resources demonstrate the alienation of minority group language due the imbalanced economic development. The social situation is one of the most important factors to disintegrate with social equity. In the schooling environment, students may be marginalized by different groups and identities if the distinctive economic status exists. Therefore, it is necessary to change the policy climate through putting forward to certain practicable strategies by the policy-makers.

It is apparent that English teaching spread widely in China for years. The mainstream education, which promotes the national language and English, also drives minority students into the danger of subtracting other languages' learning. The government should implement the student-driven program instead of paying more attention to the educational reform. It is imperative to teach L1 as well as the utility of language immersion. Yet, there is a tension here between the obligation to implement the policies of democratically elected governments and the need for teacher professionals to feel positive about new initiatives if they act on them successfully. Thus, no matter how the factors impact on the policy-making process, its function should be dynamic and sustainable. The policy-centered research on bilingual education needs to focus on the practitioners' satisfactory such as promoting the school climate. For district administrators, they are responsible to design mechanisms to firmly support the institutional resources and funds. The political behavior is the key to collecting the self-analytical data and effect on running the educational strategies.

Implications

This study is taken granted for practices and assumptions of others or even implied from research findings of others in the similar contexts. Yet, no bilingual education is universally applicable. There is no "perfect" model to meet the exact goal and operate the process successfully.

It is worth noting that school educators are not the only one key-role to promote the bilingual education. According to the analysis of this study in the national and international context, bilingual education challenges are encountered by the multi-facet pretext. Therefore, the intention of integrating the teaching materials and resources is the initiative. It is effective to the shifted attitudes towards the vitality of the Zhuang education. However, the top one wide-spread obstacle of improving bilingual education in Guangxi is the lack of funds and resources.

Teachers refuse to practice this implementation due to the ignorance of sufficient teaching materials. The outcomes would be unexpected because of the ethno-pedagogical expectation. Furthermore, the school practitioners are fear of pulling down the national-wide test-scores which is at risk for schools' reputations. Hence, it is viable to shape the values of school practitioners in the attainment of educational research in bilingualism.

Furthermore, China is not the only country with multilinguistic and multinational backgrounds. Promoting China's bilingual education represents to the possession of commonalities adhering to the common laws of bilingual education in the world (Xing, 2001). Policymakers are color-blinded to frame students' future about pursuing higher promising education level, landing a job position and communicating in business environment. For the outside-of-school support, policy efforts and community engagement build up the structural construction to promote the valid language proficiency. It is valuable for policy-makers to understand that building capacity around how students and families are treated and supported by schools. Notwithstanding, it is more likely to overcome the potential challenges for our next generation in terms of the disappearance of mother tongue and culture, or ignorance of the identification.

Conclusion

This study refers to diverse articles and documents about bilingual education implementation throughout the world. Compared with Chinese practice, it demonstrates an analysis about bilingual education programs and how practitioners investigate and face the challenges of this educational issue throughout the world.

For the administrative leaders, it is suggested that they build more understanding about bilingual education among marginalized groups engaged in proactive involvement in terms of education all around the world. Teachers' morale is related to the students' language proficiency.

The pressures from peers and community norms have significantly impacted the out-of-school environment. The marginalization of minority culture and language induces lower efficacy in academic performance among non-dominant students. Thus, the goal of Zhuang-Han schooling is to reduce the social-cultural misconception in the GZAR. In addition, the side effects of outer pressures are tied to the inner factors. As a result, language attainment is achieved by more than one single scenario. Furthermore, each bilingual environment is independent, and language is seldom derived from only one bilingual environment. Thus, the collaboration of leadership, community, and parents' involvement is crucial to create a holistic picture of acquiring a second language. Meanwhile, hopefully this research is considered as a starting point for future researchers' and authoritative administrators' respect for ethnic groups' education as well as a mandate for change, a reflection tool, and an initial step toward creating more just minority-language environments in school settings. Conclusively, the Zhuang-Han schooling is promising and dynamic as long as the educational authorities shift towards more positive attitudes and are supported by more financial and political input.

It is still an on-going process for Zhuang-Han language teaching due to the ethnographic development and educational feasibility. The practitioners' perspectives and interests regarding implementation should be considered for further research.

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