

Deyuan He

China English in World Englishes

Education and Use in the Professional
World

Asia in Transition

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To Kevin He, my son

Foreword

China is a country with the largest number of English language learners (more than 400 million) and these learners invest a great amount of time, money, and effort in learning the language, but their learning effectiveness is hardly satisfactory. Against this background, more research is needed to study the use and development of English in mainland China (hereafter China), and this book is such an effort. By focusing on the ideal pedagogic model of university English, this book explores university teachers' and students' perceptions toward China English in the context of world Englishes, as well as their views toward introducing China English as part of the teaching model and the possibility of including China English and world Englishes into the existing curriculum. This book also extends its focus from the educational arena to the professional use of English in China's workplace. These two areas are closely related to each other as the use of English in the professional world will partly be influenced by and exerts considerable influence on English language teaching. Specifically, the following issues concerning the use of English by working professionals in China are explored: (1) the language choice at the workplace, (2) the frequency of the use of English, (3) the importance of Chinese/English and the changes in the importance, (4) the use of English by types of organization, ownership of company and industries, and (5) the relationships between participants' frequency of English use and self-rated English ability and the importance of English.

The author employed three methods including questionnaire surveys, match-guise technique, and interviews (group and individual) to investigate the perceptions and views as conceived by non-English majors and their Chinese teachers of English, and the professionals who use English at their workplace as well.

Taken together, the data obtained from the three research methods yield (to a greater or lesser extent) informative findings suggesting that standardized Englishes are still perceived by university students in China as the most desirable models of English. This is believed to have significant implications for the teaching of university English in China. The book suggests that China English should be well codified and promoted before being adopted as the pedagogic model so that China's English learners may develop a stronger sense of ownership of the language and

have more integrative learning motivation. In addition, it proposes that the curriculum design of university English should include an introduction to the well-defined characteristics of China English and world Englishes. Last but by no means least, the book demonstrates that English has been used more widely and frequently in the professional world than before and has become increasingly important in China, and so university English should be taught more productively as a tool of communication and further personal development rather than merely a subject for examinations.

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Last, but by no means least, I wish to express my profound gratitude to my extended family. They have been so supportive and encouraging that I can always feel their deep care and love for me although we are thousands of miles apart. I'm particularly thankful to my wife Candice and my son Kevin, whose deep and warm love is the most important source of courage and motivation for me to pursue my dream. Being so thoughtful and being always there for me, they have helped me in the most special and tender way!

Introduction

To the readers who are not specializing in sociolinguistics, I may need to introduce China English as a key concept of this book from the very beginning (please refer to Chap. 2 for more discussion on this term). In this book, China English is defined as a performance variety of English which has standardized Englishes as its core but colored with characteristic features of Chinese phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse-pragmatics, and which is particularly suited for expressing content ideas specific to Chinese culture through such means as transliteration and loan translation. However, it should be pointed out that China English is still a developing variety of English, which is not a well-developed variety like Indian English, Singaporean English, and Brunei English, let alone a standardized variety like British English and American English.

This book is concerned with the educational arena and professional world of China English in the context of World Englishes. More specifically, it focuses on university students' and teachers' perceptions of China English in the context of World Englishes, their views about introducing China English as part of the pedagogic model together with Standardized Englishes, the possibility of including select features of China English and World Englishes into the existing curriculum, and students' preference of teachers for university English in mainland China. This book also extends its focus from the educational arena to the professional use of English in China's workplace.

Research Background

Modern technology has turned the world into a small village. The Internet can carry English, the global language, to every corner of the world. Since China adopted the Open Door Policy in the year of 1978, especially after her joining WTO in 2001, more and more professionals with proficient English are needed. Under this context, both the teachers and students in China have spent a considerable quantity of time and energy in the teaching and learning of English. However, many previous

studies (e.g., He, 2007, 2011, 2013, 2017a, 2018a, 2018b; He & Li, 2009; Lu, 2002; Wu, 2005; Wu & Zhang, 2001; Yan & Fan, 2005; Zhang, 2005; Zhou, 2006; Zhu, 2003) have reported that the effectiveness of teaching and learning is hardly satisfactory, especially in terms of students' oral English proficiency, and seems unworthy of the huge investment poured into English education. This is a long-standing problem which has drawn great attention from many researchers, scholars, and teachers of university English alike, myself included. There are many contributing factors to this problem, and the current model followed by English teaching in mainland China might be one of them. According to Bolton (2003), Zhang (2003), Adamson (2004), Lam (2002), and He and Zhang (2010), British English has been adopted as the only pedagogic model ever since the founding of the People's Republic of China (PRC) till the middle of 1970s. With the improvement of the Sino-American relationship in the late 1970s, a good many American English textbooks and audio materials were imported into China together with the arrival of American experts and teachers. Gradually, American English got popular and also became a pedagogic model, which results in today's coexistence of both British and American English as pedagogic models in China. However, it seems that the current pedagogic models are not so effective judging from students' low learning effectiveness at English in mainland China (He, 2015, 2017c; He & Li, in press; Xu, 2010b). Being deeply concerned about this, I intend to explore a proper model for the teaching of university English to non-English majors (hereafter 'teaching of university English') in mainland China to follow in the context of World Englishes by investigating the conceptions of the teachers and learners of university English on the attainable and desirable model(s) that they wish to follow. In addition, I plan to explore the use of English in the professional world and its pedagogic influence in China.

In nearly all the universities in China, 'University English' is a required course for students of Year-1 and Year-2; the third-year students must take some English courses related to their specialty, which are termed as Subject-Based English—SBE (e.g., business majors must study a course like Business English), and English is usually an elective course for the seniors (cf. Lam, 2005, pp. 192–193). Therefore, both 'University English' and 'university English' appear in this book. The former is the name of the required course taken by the first- and second-year students, while the latter refers to the overall English teaching and learning in China's tertiary institutions.

Incentives

There are three major incentives behind this book. The first is the 'relentless' spread of English in the world and the natural emergence of varieties of English. It is a fact that English has become a language with a total of one billion speakers (Dalby, 2001) while there are only about 337 million Native Speakers (NSs) (Jenkins, 2015). It is not difficult to see how 'popular' English is in the world judging from

these two figures. In addition, a safe conclusion may also be drawn from these two figures that most of the English speakers are bilingual or multilingual Non-Native Speakers (NNSs). In other words, today's NNSs of English far outnumber its NSs (see also Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 1997, 2006; He, 2017b, 2017c; He, Ling, & McLellan, 2021; He & Miller, 2011). However, the NNSs do not passively receive English, instead, NNSs make English their own in the process of learning the language, which can be best illustrated by the debate on the legitimacy of non-native varieties of English between Quirk and Kachru ever since 1990. This debate drew attention from many other researchers and scholars (Bolton, 2005; Deterding, 2013; Jenkins, 1996, 1998; Kirkpatrick, 2000, 2007b; Li, 2002a, 2002b, 2003; McArthur, 1999, 2004; Mitchell, 1993; Xu and He et al., 2017). Quirk (1990) argues in a journal article that non-native Englishes are inadequately learnt versions of 'correct' native English forms, and therefore not valid as pedagogic models. Then Kachru (1991) published his strongly worded response in the same journal, *English Today*. Beginning with a critical argument against Quirk's position, he concludes that what Quirk describes in terms of 'deficit' is, in the global context, a matter of "'difference' which is based on vital sociolinguistic realities of identity, creativity and linguistic and cultural contact" (p. 11). The debate continues, and it seems that it will not come to an end soon.

However, the reality is that more and more sociolinguists and writers from non-English-speaking countries like Japan, Pakistan, Zambia, etc., have declared their 'English' to be 'independent and standard', not to mention the countries which regard English as the official language or one of the official languages, such as India, Singapore, Nigeria, and so forth. For example, D'Souza (2001, p. 150) argues that English has been Indianized by being "borrowed, transcreated, recreated, extended, contorted perhaps". The Pakistani novelist Sidhwa (1996, p. 231) once wrote "English ... is no longer the monopoly of the British. We the excolonised have subjugated the language, beaten it on its head and made it ours". Besides, Achebe (1994, p. 433) also believes that "English language will be able to carry the weight of my African experience. But it will have to be a new English, still in full communication with its ancestral home but altered to suit its new African surroundings". Moreover, some scholars from the countries which learn and use English as a foreign language have a desire to claim their Englishes to be 'independent and standard' (Du & Jiang, 2001). With such debates going on, some Chinese scholars and researchers argue that China English can also be considered as an independent variety of English (e.g., Du & Jiang, 2001; He, Nur Raihan, & Deterding, to appear; Hu, 2004, 2005; Jiang, 2002a; Jin, 2003; Li, 1993; Wang, 1991; Xu, 2010b; Xu et al., 2017).

The second incentive concerns the necessity and possibility for Chinese English speakers to speak English like an NS. On one hand, one reason for English to become such a widely used lingua franca among people from different countries is that countries all over the world have begun and are always strengthening regional and global cooperation and communication ever since the end of World War II. In recent decades, the regional cooperation and communication, such as the European Union (EU) and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), have gained

more and more weight over the worldwide cooperation and communication because of political influence, and China is consolidating her cooperation and communication with ASEAN in various aspects. In addition, as mentioned above, native English-speaking population is a minority compared to the non-native English speakers in the world. In this situation, we can safely arrive at the conclusion that Chinese English speakers are more likely to speak in English with NNSs than with NSs. This is as Kachru (1988, p. 8) described that the international functions of English in those Outer and Expanding Circle countries (China is an Expanding Circle country according to Kachru's three-circle model of World Englishes) are restricted "mostly between non-native users of the language (e.g., Japanese with Indians, Singaporeans with Sri Lankans)". In short, what I want to argue here is that an NS model might be unnecessary or irrelevant in China's English language teaching (ELT) and learning (ELL). This is, to some degree, supported by the conclusions of Kirkpatrick's (2006b) research. In his study, three potential models of ELT are considered in Asia countries:

- the native speaker model (i.e., an exonormative 'idealized' standard of English, such as British English and American English);
- the nativized model (i.e., a nativized regional variety of English, such as Filipino or Singaporean English); and
- the lingua franca model (i.e., a model for those who are learning English to use it as a lingua franca).

He concludes that the NS model is irrelevant and unattainable to most non-native English learners (cf. Graddol, 2006); instead, he argues that the lingua franca model is the most sensible model in those contexts where the learners need English mainly to communicate with other NNSs. Besides, Cook (1999, p. 185) also argues that "the prominence of the native speaker in language teaching has obscured the distinctive nature of the successful L2 user and created an unattainable goal for L2 learners". By contrast, we can convince EFL/ESL students that "they are successful multicompetent speakers, not failed native speakers" if we can "acknowledge that L2 users have strengths and rights of their own" rather than concentrating primarily on the NS norms (Cook, 1999, p. 204).

On the other hand, it is well recognized that the "internationalization of a language comes with nativization and acculturation" (Kachru, 1988, p. 8), for which the spreading and learning of English in mainland China is a good example. Ever since 1980s many studies (e.g., He, 2017b; Jenkins, 2002; Kachru, 1993; Kirkpatrick, 2006b; Li, 2006b; Li & He, 2020; Li, Guo, & He, to appear; Seidlhofer, 2001; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1986) question the claim that the goal of learning and teaching English is to adopt a completely native model. In addition, Medgyes (1992, p. 342) argues that "non-native speakers can never achieve a native speaker's competence" but a near-native one for all their efforts, and Chinese English language learners are no exception. Smith (2005) even argues that English is unpronounceable, irregular, too complex, and often ambiguous for non-native learners. The nativized and acculturized English in China inevitably shows Chinese

characteristics to some extent, while Chinese and English are two quite different languages in terms of phonology, lexis, grammar, and discourse, for example, phonologically speaking, Chinese is a syllable-timed language while English is a stress-timed language (He, 2018a; Hung, 2002b; Kirkpatrick, 2006b; Xu, 2010b).

Considering the difference between Chinese and English languages, the insistence on an NS model will inevitably disadvantage the learners since the chosen model is unattainable by them (Honna & Takeshita, 2000) and severely reduce most of the non-native or local English teachers' sense of self-confidence because they are required to teach a model which they themselves do not speak (Medgyes, 1994). However, it is suggested that well-trained local English teachers (LETs, see Carless, 2006a) who speak Chinese will be more intelligible to learners who speak the same mother tongue compared with native-speaking English teachers (Kirkpatrick, 2006b, 2017a). This is because learners whose native tongue is syllable-timed, such as Chinese, Malay, and French, are likely to find speakers of stress-timed languages, such as English, less intelligible than speakers of syllable-timed varieties on account of the massive reduction and neutralization of unstressed syllables (Hung, 2002b). All of these make me doubt both the necessity and the possibility for Chinese English speakers to speak English like an NS without the influence from Chinese language.

The third and last source of incentive is the craze for English in mainland China and consequently the dilemma that the teachers and learners of university English in mainland China are facing today as to which model to follow. The following facts may give a partial picture of the craze for English in China. Firstly, mainland China has the largest English-learning population in the world (Bolton, 2003; Jiang, 2002a; Xu and He et al., 2017). Secondly, the Ministry of Education in China requires English to be offered as a compulsory course in mainland China from the third year at primary school till university; the English craze is even sweeping Chinese kindergartens in the form of the so-called 'bilingual kindergartens' (Jiang, 2003). This is like Graddol (2006, p. 10) said that "English learners are increasing in number and decreasing in age" in China. Thirdly, the Ministry of Education in China also required the universities under its direct administration to use English textbooks in teaching the English language, information technology, biology, finance, and law, and to teach 5–10% of university courses in English within 3 years after the 'work conference' held in Hefei in October 2001. In addition, the Ministry also encourages Chinese textbook writers to compile teaching materials in English (Chinese universities, 2001). Fourthly, Chinese governments at all levels encourage their employees and other ordinary people to learn English for the promotion of economic development and various other reasons, such as Beijing for the 2008 Olympic Games, Shanghai for 2010 World Expo, and many other cities for their city image, and so on. Bolton (2002a, p. 182) even claims that "in the minds of many inside China, English seems inextricably linked to the nation's continued economic growth", and he is right to say so since both Kirkpatrick (2007a) and Li (2007a) argue that trade is one of the major impetuses for the spread of English. Fifthly, University English Test (CET, a required high-stakes test for nearly all the non-English majors in mainland China) certificates are now becoming

a must for university graduates to look for a job. Sixthly, the ELT has now become an industry which brings millions and millions of dollars to not only state-owned schools and universities but also many other institutions and individuals, such as the New Oriental School and Li Yang (famous for his ‘Crazy English’, see the ‘Crazy English’ movement documented in Bolton, 2003, pp. 252–256 for details). Seventhly, it was reported that some universities in China who had been granted autonomy to take in new students through their own University Entrance Examinations excluded the subject of Chinese from the Examinations but retained the subject of English (Gao, 2010), while both are required subjects in the National University Entrance Examinations. The list of the facts can go on and on, but I think these are enough to show the craze for English in China.

However, as mentioned at the beginning, with such a huge investment—time, money, and energy—into English learning, why is the students’ learning effectiveness still hardly satisfactory? I think the pedagogic model which the learners and teachers of English in China are required to follow is probably the most important factor. Chinese English education has long followed British and American English as the standard, but most Chinese English learners have already learnt Chinese for at least 7 to 9 years before they begin to learn English, which means that they have formed the Chinese way of thinking and learning (see Gao et al., 2005); while it is known to all that English is a rather different language from Chinese, so it becomes fairly hard for Chinese students to learn the ‘so-called’ Standardized English without Chinese cross-linguistic influence. However, what is China’s English learners’ perception of the pedagogic model? This factor, plus the other two factors mentioned above, drew my attention to the ongoing research in this area.

Methodological Design and Data Collection Methods

The principal questions of this book are: (1) to investigate university teachers’ and students’ perceptions toward China English, (2) to explore the more attainable and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China to follow, (3) to survey the use of English in China’s workplace, and (4) to research into the possibility of including the model in the existing curriculum for university students in mainland China within a larger theoretical framework of World Englishes. A number of recent studies (e.g., Du & Jiang, 2001; He & Li, in press; He & Miller, 2011; Hu, 2004, 2005; Jiang, 1995a, 1995b, 2002a, 2003; Xu et al., 2017) have focused on the general aspects of China English, and it is believed that the applied-linguistic approach with the triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative data would best address such questions.

Various quantitative and qualitative methods have been used in language education research such as questionnaire survey, stratified sampling in survey research, interviews, participant/classroom observation, case study, verbal protocols, and so on (Brown, 1997; Brown & Rogers, 2002; Keeves, 1997). Among them,

questionnaire survey is one of the most frequently used. Its main advantage is that samples can be large and many questions can be asked on the same topic. It is also easier to achieve a rather high level of reliability if the questions are well-developed and the administration is standardized (Babbie, 2004). However, one disadvantage is that, depending on the respondents' self-report, the questionnaire instrument has the problem of being artificial, thus leading to the problem of low validity (Allan, 1995; Babbie, 2004). Therefore, questionnaire survey alone, though with some strengths, cannot provide the researcher with a full picture of the participants' perceptions toward China English and its use in the professional world, World Englishes, the ideal pedagogic model, and the possibility of a combination of these into the present curriculum of university English in China.

Some researchers tried to use other methods to complement the questionnaire survey to enhance the reliability and validity of their research (e.g., Gardner & Miller, 1996; He, 2017c; He & Zhang, 2010; Lai, 2005; Lambert, 1967; Ling & He, 2020; Pan, 2019; Plakans, 1997). These methods include interview (individual and group) and match-guise technique (MGT). The merits of interview are that it is more valid than survey or experimental study if done with rigor, and that it enables a more in-depth understanding of the issue under investigation (Babbie, 2004; Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell, & Alexander, 1995). Nevertheless, the interview method suffers from some serious weaknesses as well. For instance, it has potential reliability and generalizability problems (*ibid*), because only a small number of informants can normally be interviewed in one study owing to practical constraints (Kvale, 1996).

Similarly, the match-guise technique has the same potential to be more reliable but less direct (Lambert et al., 1960). Its greatest advantage lies in its capacity to provide firsthand and intuitive information about the participants' attitudes toward different languages or dialects/varieties of a language. It has been used extensively in attitude research and the assumption remains that it is a finer instrument for eliciting (sometimes unconscious) evaluative stances than are, for example, self-reporting or forced-choice questionnaire survey (Giles & Powesland, 1975). The match-guise technique has been criticized, however, for methodological problems, for instance, it was argued that evaluative responses made to readings of passages may not necessarily reflect attitudes conjured up in real-life interactive contexts (Agheysi & Fishman, 1970). Other areas which cause concern are the limitation of contact between listener and speaker to vocal cues and the difficulty of a speaker manipulating from version to version only those clues which the experimenter wants varied. The speaker's own bias toward the speech sample may lead to the production of stereotypical or caricatured samples which then evoke stereotyped perceptions (Scherer, 1972).

All three methods, therefore, have merits and demerits. If only one is adopted in a book, its validity or reliability or both are open to doubt. As a result, more than one method should be employed to increase the validity and reliability of the research. This is consistent with what Denzin (1997) argues, that "interpretations

which are built upon triangulation are certain to be stronger than those which rest on the more constricted framework of a single method” (p. 319). Denzin further points out that “[t]riangulation is the preferred line of research in the social sciences” (p. 321) since social scientists can “overcome the intrinsic bias that is bound to come from single-method research” (ibid) by combining multiple methods.

Specifically, it is appropriate to consider the questionnaire survey as the major part of the data collection for this book. However, in order to cross-validate the results of the questionnaires, interview and match-guise technique are also used to collect more data for triangulation purposes. Besides, these instruments have been successfully used in language education research, for example:

- Questionnaire survey: (He, 2017b), Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) and Hu (2004, 2005) on China English; Horwitz et al. (1986) and (He, 2018a) on language anxiety; Johnson (1992) on teacher beliefs; Oxford (1990) on learner strategies; etc.
- Individual interview and group interview: Flowerdew et al. (1998), He and Li (2009) and Plakans (1997) on language attitudes; Gardner and Miller (1996) on independent language learning; and so on.
- Match-guise technique: Lambert et al. (1960) on language evaluation; Bilaniuk (2003), He (2015), Lai (2005, 2007), El-Dash and Busnardo (2001) and Zhou (1999) on language attitudes; Clopper and Pisoni (2002) on dialect variation; and so forth.

Figure 1 illustrates the methodology and instruments used in this book. It is hoped that the three methods of data collection will triangulate each other, and all together, the conclusions might be drawn by analyzing the data collected with these instruments.

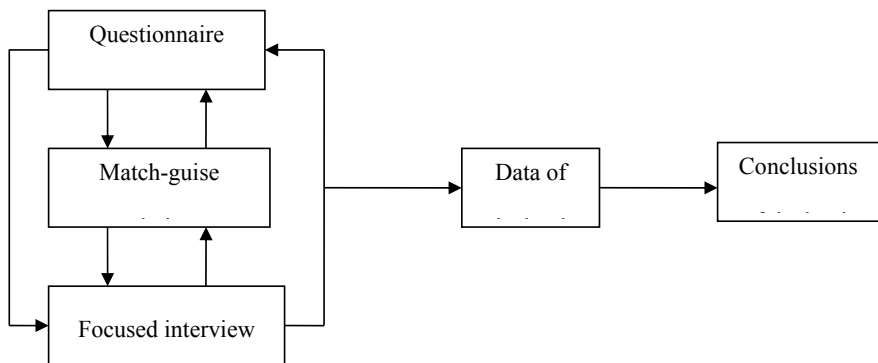


Fig. 1 Methodology of the book

Organization of the Book

This book consists of five chapters. This Introduction chapter has outlined the background, incentives, research questions, and the rationale behind the choice of methodological design and data collection methods in this book.

Chapter 1 briefly reviews the topics in world Englishes related to this book, namely, the development of English to world Englishes, the models and categories of world Englishes, and then the implications of world Englishes for English language teaching and reform in China.

Chapter 2 reviews some key topics in China English. It firstly introduces the term—China English—and then some key arguments related to the term. Secondly, this chapter reviews the features of China English at the following four linguistic levels: phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse. Then the curriculum design for the teaching of university English in China is also discussed, which is followed by a brief review on the preference of teachers (i.e., LETs, or NETs, or both) for university English in mainland China. This chapter ends with a discussion of the implications of China English for the ELT reform in China.

Chapter 3 reports an empirical study on China English. It starts with the introduction of the participants involved and research methods employed and then these participants' understanding of China English as a developing variety. The following three sections present both the quantitative and qualitative data concerning three fields, respectively: the more preferred pedagogical model for ELT in China, curriculum design on China English, and teacher selection for teaching university English in China. The fifth section compares different perceptions of China English by different participant groups. The last section is about the comparison between the findings from the present study and those from the previous ones.

Chapter 4 presents another empirical study on the professional use of English in China's workplace, which includes the following six sections: the necessity of investigating into the use of English in the professional workplace in China, the pattern of language choice in China's workplace, the use of English in China's workplace, the importance of and changes in the importance of languages, language ability in China's workplace, and the implications of professional use of English for ELT reform in China.

The last chapter, Chap. 5, concludes China English and the professional use of English in terms of three aspects: the present situation and some current issues, the theoretical and practical implications for ELT reform in China, and some directions for future research in the field.

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Abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CCTV	Chinese Central Television Station
CET	University English Test
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELL	English Language Learning
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EU	European Union
GA	General American
L1	First Language
LETs	Local English teachers
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MGT	Match-Guise Technique
NETs	Native-Speaking English Teachers
NNSs	Non-Native Speakers
NSs	Native Speakers
RP	Received Pronunciation
VOICE	Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English
WTO	World Trade Organization

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Chapter 1

Setting the Stage: Topics in World Englishes in Focus



This chapter presents a comparatively comprehensive review of the literature related to World Englishes. It begins with an overview of the globalization of English. Either for historical and political reasons, or economic, practical, and intellectual reasons, among others, English has become the language of globalization: of international trade and business, politics, cultures, law, sciences and technology, cooperation, and higher education, to name just a few. Secondly, I discuss the models of diaspora of World Englishes. The spread of English all over the world draws many scholars' and researchers' attention to it, and they published models to describe the spread of English (McArthur, 1992), such as Strevens' World Map of English in 1980, McArthur's Circle of World English in 1987, Görlarch's Circle Model in 1990, Kachru's Three-Circle Model of World Englishes in 1985, and Modiano's Centripetal Circles of International English in 1999 (which was subsequently modified in the same year). Among them, Kachru's is undoubtedly the most influential one (Jenkins, 2015). Then I talk about the categories of World Englishes. The chapter finally outlines the implications of World Englishes' research for English language teaching and reform in China. By now, English is not only being learnt and used by more and more Chinese people but also showing more and more Chinese characteristics, which has become a focus of attention for many scholars who are interested in language use in society.

1.1 From English to World Englishes

Needless to say, English has now become an international or world or global language; in other words, it has become a world lingua franca. It has for some time been learnt worldwide, and is now spoken in nearly every country of the globe. Jenkins (2015) pointed out that there are about 337 million people speaking it as their L1 and perhaps 235 million as many again as their L2, and countless people are learning and using English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and McArthur (2003,

p. 22) said there might be at least half a billion EFL users and learners in India and China alone, “leaving aside Hong Kong as a special case where English has long had a strong public presence”. Crystal (2003) even estimated that the world’s English-using population had reached nearly 2 billion. Some researchers also claimed that “about a third of the world’s population are in some sense exposed to it, and by 2050, it is predicted, half the world will be more or less proficient in it” (e.g., Hu, 2004, p. 26). Similarly, the results of a globally administered questionnaire by the British Council (1995) also confirm the global dominance of English in the next 50 years. The rapid rate of innovations in information technology has hastened the need to use English. As amply demonstrated by Graddol (2006), the English language was used for 85% of the web pages in 1998, and it was still the main language used in the web pages in 2000 although the estimated figure dropped to 68%.

Either for historical and political reasons, or economic, practical, and intellectual reasons, among others, English has become the language of globalization: of international trade and business, politics, cultures, law, sciences and technology, cooperation, and higher education, to name just a few. In his book, *English as a Global Language*, Crystal (2003) listed six reasons why those for whom English is not their mother tongue wish to learn it and actually communicate internationally in English. In short, the reasons listed by Crystal include historical, internal political, external economic, practical, intellectual, and cultural ones. Jenkins (2015, p. 36) added the seventh one to the points made by Crystal, “personal advantage/prestige since, in many cultures, the ability to speak English is perceived as conferring higher status on the speaker”. Brutt-Griffler (2002) also discussed some reasons for the diasporas of English, such as historical, economic, and cultural/intellectual reasons. In addition, Brutt-Griffler (2002, p. 136) further argues that the globalization of English is also the result of the macroacquisition (i.e., “the spread of language to the new speech communities via a process of second language acquisition”) of the language in many parts of the world (e.g., Africa and Asia).

1.2 The Models and Categories of World Englishes

The spread of English all over the world draws many scholars’ and researchers’ attention to it, and they published models to describe the spread of English (McArthur, 1992), such as Strevens’ World Map of English in 1980, McArthur’s Circle of World English in 1987, Görlarch’s Circle Model in 1990, Kachru’s Three-Circle Model of World Englishes in 1985, and Modiano’s Centripetal Circles of International English in 1999 (which was subsequently modified in the same year). Among them, Kachru’s is undoubtedly the most influential one (Jenkins, 2015). Since the conceptions created in this model will be mentioned more than one time in this book, it is necessary for me to reproduce it here for a better understanding (see Fig. 1.1 on p. 13).

In Kachru’s model, World Englishes are divided into three concentric circles: the Inner Circle (countries where English is the ‘first language’ of a majority of the population, for example, the USA, Britain, Australia, and New Zealand), the Outer

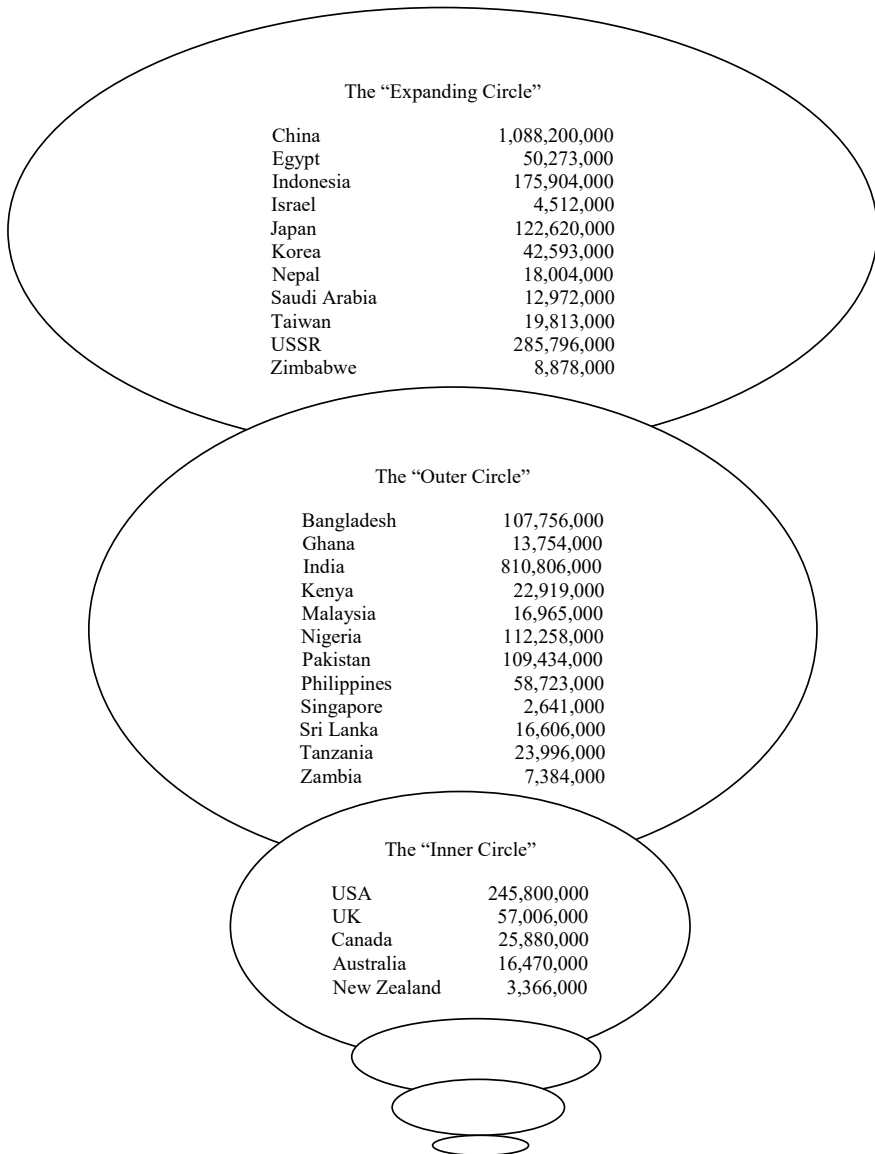


Fig. 1.1 Kachru's Three-Circle Model of World Englishes (From Kachru, 1992a, b, c, p. 356)

Circle (where English has the status of an official 'second language', for instance, India and Singapore), and the Expanding Circle (where English has the status of a 'foreign language', for example, China and Egypt). The three circles "represent the diverse cultural contexts" (Kachru, 1992b, p. 356) when English traveled from Britain to other English-as-Native-Language (ENL) countries (the Inner Circle), then

to the English-as-Second-Language (ESL) countries (the Outer Circle), and then to the English-as-Foreign-Language (EFL) countries (the Expanding Circle). By saying this, we should note that Kachru did not intend the term 'Inner' to imply any sense of types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in superiority. Meanwhile, it should be noted that Kachru first published this model in 1985 and thus the figures (which are for whole populations rather than English speakers alone) are now outdated. Besides, the model has appeared in various forms in various publications, including *English Today* No. 16, 1988, accompanying his article 'The scared cows of English', in which the circles are presented in horizontal left-to-right succession (see Kachru, 1988, p. 5). Despite its major influence and high citation rate as the standard framework for World Englishes, this model is not without its problems; some of them "relate to recent changes in the use of English while others relate to any attempt at a three-way categorization of English uses and users" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 17; see the same page for the eight most serious problems). Besides, a number of researchers have proposed that this model needs to be updated due to the changed circumstances since its publication. Comments have been made and/or alternatives recommended by many scholars (e.g., Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 1997; Jenkins, 2015; Kandiah, 1998; Modiano, 1999a, 1999b; Seidlhofer, 2002a; Toolan, 1997; Tripathi, 1998; Yano, 2001). Kachru (2005) has responded at length to some of these comments and suggestions, describing them as "misrepresentations of the model's characteristics, interpretations and implications" (p. 220).

Besides this Three-Circle Model of World Englishes, Kachru (1992c) also classified different English varieties into two categories according to their functions and status: institutionalized variety and performance variety. The former refers to the English which possesses the official status in a country and is used both internationally and intranationally. The latter indicates the English which is solely used for the international communications for the purpose of political, economic, scientific, and cultural exchanges.

However, some scholars have suggested that there are weaknesses in Kachru's Model, as it treats varieties of English geographically and historically (Jenkins, 2015), and therefore fails to capture the dynamic nature of the use of English in the modern world (Cogo & Dewey, 2012). As a result, it is necessary to have a look at Edgar Schneider's Dynamic Model (Schneider, 2007, 2014), which describes the evolution of English in various postcolonial societies around the world. According to Schneider, the first phase is foundation, when the language is first introduced into a new territory. The second phase is exonormative stabilization, in which the linguistic norm is mainly NS-based, but lexical loans and early phonological and syntactic transfer are increasingly found. The third phase is nativization, this is the central phase during which cultural and linguistic transformations take place. The fourth phase is endonormative stabilization. The final phase is differentiation, when the variety has reached full maturity with its own independent identity and there is no further need or desire to refer to NS-based varieties of English for norms. In line with Schneider's description, Brunei English, Hong Kong English, and Malaysian English are described as being in the third phase. Singapore English is assumed to

be in the fourth phase of development, which may be progressing toward the fifth phase.

All these indicate that “English, as a lingua franca, is playing an increasingly important role in every corner of the world and in many sectors of the society” (Hu, 2004, p. 26). But the NNSs do not passively receive Standardized English since “what some people call Standard may not be Standard to others” (McArthur, 1994, p. 12). In addition, it is neither desirable nor possible for NNSs to use English like an NS of English; instead, they actively ‘produce’ English through various means. On the whole, English is always ready to accept all these changes and become rich; in this way, English becomes Englishes. This situation is like Kachru argued in the conclusion of one of his theses.

[I]t seems to me there is much to celebrate in the spread of English as a world language. Where over 650 artificial languages have failed, English has succeeded; where many other natural languages with political and economic power to back them have failed, English has succeeded. One reason for this dominance of English is its propensity for acquiring new identities, its power of assimilation, its adaptability to ‘decolonization’ as a language, its manifestation in a range of varieties, and above all its suitability as a flexible medium for literary and other types of creativity across languages and cultures. (Kachru, 1988, p. 8)

So the rapid globalization of English will inevitably result in the nativization of English, which in turn leads to an increase in the varieties of English. In other words, “the English language has already grown to be independent of any form of social control” (Crystal, 2003, p. 190) and it becomes no longer the private property of the Anglo-Saxons. In the context of the development of new varieties of English, Li (1998) argues that there is no reason to see systematic deviations from Anglo-American norms at the pragmatic and discourse level as errors. So it is quite natural for English having been sociolinguistically labeled as ‘Indian English’, ‘Pakistani English’, ‘Zambian English’, ‘Singaporean English’, and so on. With probably the most English users and learners (Bolton, 2003; He, 2015, 2017c, 2018a), English in mainland China is also undergoing a great change. English has acquired great importance since China’s adoption of the open-door policy, and it has become more and more important after China became a member of WTO and Beijing became the host city of 2008 Olympic Games in 2001, along with Shanghai becoming the host city of 2010 World Expo in 2002. For some bilingual Chinese mainlanders, English is moving in the direction of becoming a ‘second first language’ as McArthur (2002) pointed out. By now, English is not only being learnt and used by more and more Chinese people but also showing more and more Chinese characteristics, which has become a focus of attention for many scholars (e.g., Deterding, 2006, 2017; He, 2007, 2015, 2017b, 2017c; He & Li, 2009; He & Li, in press; He, Ling & McLellan, 2021; He & Miller, 2011; He & Zhang, 2010; Hu, 2004, 2005; Jiang, 2002a, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2017a; Xu, 2005, 2010a, 2010b; Xu, Deterding & He, 2017a, 2017b).

1.3 The Implications for English Language Teaching and Reform in China

The change of English to World Englishes has undoubtedly great implications for English language teaching (ELT) and its reform in China. For many years, the standard varieties of British and American English have been accepted and promoted as the only internationally acceptable forms of Standardized English, which has, however, in recent years, been challenged in studies associated with ‘World Englishes’ and ‘English as a Lingua Franca’ (ELF) or ‘English as an International Language’ (EIL).¹ Within such frameworks, the question of which models of English (i.e., native vs. non-native models) should be the pedagogic model in a particular country or region then arises. In fact, the pedagogic model of English in outer and expanding circle countries has been a subject of debate for some time (e.g., Bamgbose, 1998, 2001; Davies, 1999; He & Zhang, 2010; Kachru, 1995, 1992c; Seidlhofer, 1999; Starks & Paltridge, 1996; Widdowson, 1997). For example, Alptekin (2002, p. 63) once challenged native-speaker norms and pointed out the need for a new pedagogic model of English in the context of EIL by arguing that

...[t]he conventional model of communicative competence, with its strict adherence to native speaker norms within the target language culture, would appear to be invalid in accounting for learning and using an international language in cross-cultural setting. A new pedagogic model is urgently needed to accommodate the case of English as a means of international and intercultural communication.

However, the opposite voice can also be heard; only several months later, Timmis (2002) echoed “the frequently voiced concern that, amidst the diversity, there should be a workable model of comfortable intelligibility for international purposes” (also cited in Prodromou, 2006, p. 52) in the same journal, *ELT Journal*. By investigating the attitudes of teachers and students toward NS norms, Timmis (2002) argues that native varieties of English are probably the best starting point for such a model although some applied linguists argue against the predominance of NS models and cultures in ELT. While He and Zhang’s (2010) study indicated that the desired model in China should be the one based on standardized Englishes but supplemented by well-codified and well-accepted features of China English and World Englishes.

Among the prestigious researchers concerning the pedagogic models of English in the description of ELF, Kirkpatrick’s work deserves special attention here. He has conducted research on the model of English that should be used in classrooms for

¹In this book, ELF refers to the approach to English that tends to theorize and investigate interaction in international contexts, which does not involve native-speakers/L1-users of the language. ELF is represented by the works of scholars like Jenkins (e.g., 1998, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2006a, 2015 and Jenkins, Modiano, & Seidlhofer, 2001) and Seidlhofer (e.g., 1999, 2001, 2002b, 2004, 2006), among others. However, according to Jenkins (2006a) and Prodromou (2007), EIL can be used to convey the same meaning of ELF, but it also refers to the use of English in international contexts between people who do not share the same L1, including interactions between native and non-native speakers of English. Thus, compared with ELF, EIL is more inclusive in scope and configurations of speakers. In this book, however, EIL is used interchangeably with ELF (cf. Jenkins, 2006a).

many years, especially in the context of Asia and Australia, and he wrote a lot in this area (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 2000, 2002, 2006a, 2006b, 2007a, 2011, 2012, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c, 2016, 2017a, 2017b; Kirkpatrick & Deterding, 2011; Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017; Kirkpatrick & McLellan, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Kirkpatrick & Zhang, 1995; Scollon, Scollon, & Kirkpatrick, 2000).

In a book chapter, Kirkpatrick (2006b) discusses the advantages and disadvantages of three different potential pedagogic models of English in East Asia and Australia: an NS model, a nativized model, and a lingua franca model; and he concludes that the last one is the most sensible one in the contexts where English is mainly used to communicate between NNSs. What is more, he believes that this last model also closely approximates Kachru's (1992a) idea of a 'polymodel' approach to the English teaching since it neither imposes rigid 'correct' norms nor adheres to a single model. Nevertheless, he also points out that the various stakeholders² (especially the teachers and learners) will still have to choose between the first two models until the applied linguists are able to supply the teachers and learners with adequate descriptions of lingua franca models.

Considering the development of English in mainland China, Kirkpatrick (2006b) argues that the nativized and lingua franca models might not be the right choice because of China's traditional and strongly held attachment to standards and correctness (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002). Therefore, he suggests that for the time being, an NS model (most probably American English) is the choice of all stakeholders in China. However, it should not be neglected that this suggestion is based only on a survey of students' attitudes toward varieties of English conducted at only one university in Beijing. In addition, several other investigations also suggested that China English should stand alongside British English, American English, and other 'World Englishes', and that Chinese students do not inherently aspire to an NS model; instead, it is the lack of opportunity to access updated information on World Englishes that has led to this pragmatic adoption of the NS model (e.g., Hu, 2004, 2005; Jin, 2005). This situation is as Rubdy and Saraceni (2006, p. 6) argue, that the choice of NS models to be taught in the classroom is, in many cases, "in fact not a real choice but a result of a lack of alternatives".

Kirkpatrick (2006b) identifies five reasons why the NS models remain the most popular and sought after one, which can be briefly summarized as

1. They benefit from the commercial promotion provided by the publishers and international ELT institutions alike;
2. They have been well codified;
3. They are looked upon as standard varieties of English through their codification;
4. They represent power, and this power works in more than one way whether it would be media, publishing, and/or language teaching interests;

²Such as the education policy-makers and implementers (in other words, the politicians and educational bureaucrats) at different governmental levels, English language teachers and learners at different levels, parents of these learners, textbook publishers, examination providers, and even some leaders of the enterprises which might need their employees to be proficient in English.

5. They have, more or less, historical authority. This, together with their codification, allows people to argue for their inherent superiority as models over more recently developed nativized varieties.

Then he disputes these reasons one by one and argues that the adoption of NS models will only be advantageous for a tiny fraction of the total number of teachers and learners. Specifically, only the NS teachers will benefit from these models since they are “seen as providing the correct model, the source of the standard” (Kirkpatrick, 2006b, p. 73); and only the learners who learn English mainly for the purpose of communicating with NSs and understanding the native speaking culture that they are interested in will benefit from choosing them as models (Kirkpatrick, 2007a). But again, it must be pointed out that the teachers and learners mentioned above account for just a tiny minority of the number of people who teach and learn English in mainland China today.

While the choice of an NS model does good to only a tiny minority of English teachers and learners, this choice brings great disadvantages to the great majority of them. First of all, Kirkpatrick (2007a) argues that the NS model is unattainable for the learners. Then he goes on to explain that the EFL/ESL learners can sound American or British only if they go and live there for a comparatively long time or are taught completely by NETs, which will be impossible for most of the English learners in mainland China. As a result, the learners’ unwillingness to experiment with the language will be unavoidable since they will “become frustrated by setting themselves what is, in effect, an impossible target” (Cook, 2002, p. 331). Secondly, the choice also undermines the position of local teachers because of being required to teach a model which they themselves are not the representatives (Kirkpatrick, 2007a), which will, in turn, severely reduce their sense of self-confidence and self-respect (Medgyes, 1994). Prodromou (2006, p. 52) also argues that “[t]he non-native teacher’s authority also suffers in the native-dominated scheme of things because it is precisely in the area of the learners’ culture that non-native teachers are at their best”.

Based on the above arguments, we might safely arrive at the conclusion that it will not work well in mainland China to insist completely on an NS model since it may not only be less useful but also a hindrance (cf. Graddol, 2006). Since we are talking about teaching and learning English as a lingua franca in China, it is conceivable that we can combine select features of China English into the NS model, which can be termed either as an ‘institutional bilingual model’ as suggested by Kirkpatrick (2006a) in one of his research projects, or as ‘Standardized English plus’ as proposed by Li (2006b), since the great majority of mainland English learners are L1 Chinese speakers who develop bilingual skills in schools by being taught English by L1 Chinese teachers. This ‘new’ model might solve the problems mentioned above. Firstly, it is attainable and relevant to the learners. Secondly, LETs also become the role models for learners now since they possess the linguistic background and resources of the learners’ L1 and they are now teaching a language they have learnt as a foreign language. This experience gives them an understanding of the potential difficulties their students might have and an empathy with their students (Medgyes, 1994). Above all, we need

to examine the situation and development of China English so as to have a better understanding of the ‘new’ model.

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Chapter 2

Setting the Stage: Key Topics in China English



This chapter presents some key topics in the research of China English. First of all, I introduced the different terms researchers used for China English and some related arguments concerning China English. In this book, China English is defined as a performance variety of English which has standardized Englishes as its core but colored with characteristic features of Chinese phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse-pragmatics, and which is particularly suited for expressing content ideas specific to Chinese culture through such means as transliteration and loan translation. We should bear in mind that China English is still in the process of development. It should be considered at present as a ‘common intermediate language’ instead of a new variety of English. This is said because even Hong Kong English is “short of a sociological basis at the societal level, it seems inappropriate to characterize ‘Hong Kong English’ as a new variety” although it is well-acknowledged and “with a strong public presence” (Li, 2000, p. 57). Secondly, this chapter delineates some of the most salient features of China English at the four linguistic levels (i.e., phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse). It next probes the necessity of introducing course like ‘China English and World Englishes’ into the university English curriculum. The chapter also discusses the question, who are the better teachers for university English in China, NETs or LETs? Lastly, the chapter comments China English and its implications for ELT reform in China.

2.1 China English: The Term and the Key Arguments

In recent years, it seems increasingly fashionable to talk about ‘World Englishes’ and China English among Chinese researchers. A sizeable body of research has been generated on various aspects in these two areas. In the past decade of the past century, some scholars might be cautious or skeptical of the assertion of objective reality of China English, e.g., Sun (1989), Zhang (1995), Xie (1995) and Lin (1998). More others (e.g., Du, 1998; He, 2007, 2015, 2017b, 2017c; He & Li, 2009; He &

Li, in press; He, Ling & McLellan, 2021; He & Miller, 2011; He & Zhang, 2010; Hu, 2005; Jiang, 2002a; Shaohua Li & Yang, 2001; Xu, 2010b; Xu, Deterding & He, 2017a, 2017b) argue that those who held skeptical or negative attitude toward China English were afraid of the thought that our naming of the variety of English in China as China English meant that we would be tolerant toward the non-normative or not-totally-normative English and thus make the English in China laughable. In fact, this worry is unnecessary since many China English “words and expressions are more forceful and effective than their Standardized English dictionary equivalents just because they carry over the ‘connotations, harmonies, sidelights and aromas’ of the Chinese originals” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 8). In addition, it is also argued that whether China English should be accepted or not depends, not on the language form and authoritative views, but on the users of the language and the communicational effect (Jiang, 1995b). So after more than 10 years of debate on this topic, more and more scholars and researchers no longer doubt the objective reality of China English (Xu, 2017).

First of all, it is my belief that a proper name should be given to the variety of English being learnt and used in mainland China. Although some researchers (e.g., Du, 1998; Zhangxian Pan, 2002; Xie, 1995) think that today’s research on China English should be focused on its nature and characteristics not on its definition, I, like many others (e.g., Jia & Xiang, 1997; Li, 1993; Wang, 1991; Xu, 2017), still consider it necessary to have a tentative definition first so that we can be clear about the target of our research, which is like Confucius argued more than two thousand years ago: “Without a legitimate name, without authority to the words” (Míng bù zhèng, zé yán bù shùn. 名不正, 则言不顺). Up to now, several terms have been used to refer to the English spoken or written by mainland Chinese:

1. Chinese colored English (Huang, 1988);
2. Chinese-style English (Gui, 1988; Jia, 1990);
3. Sinicized English (Cheng, 1992);
4. Chinish (Jin, 2003);
5. Chinglish (e.g., Niu & Wolff, 2003a, 2003c; Wang, 2000; Wang, 1999; Zhuang, 2000);
6. Chinese English (e.g., He, 2017b; Jia & Xiang, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2017a; Li, 2019; Weibo Wang & Ma, 2002; Xu, 2005, 2010a, 2010b, 2017; Xu, Deterding & He, et al., 2017a, 2017b; Xu & Sharifian, 2018);
7. China English (e.g., He, 2007, 2015, 2017c; He & Li, 2009; He & Li, in press; He, Ling, & McLellan, 2021; He & Miller, 2011; He & Zhang, 2010; Hu, 2004, 2005; Jiang, 1995a, 2002a, 2003; Jiang & Du, 2003; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Li, 1993, 2016; Lin, 1998, 2001a, 2001b; Paiz, Comeau, Zhu, Zhang, & Santiano, 2018; Pan, 2019; Wang, 1991, 2015; Xie, 1995; Yang & Zhang, 2015).

These scholars meant more or less the same thing when they used these terms to talk about basically the same target, China English; so we need to select one from them or create a new term to specify the subject areas of this research.

As shown in the above list, the first four names referring to the variety of English in China (i.e. Chinese-colored English, Chinese-style English, Sinicized English,

and Chinish) were used only by one (or two) author(s), respectively. Chinglish was out of favor after 2003. In addition, Chinglish is a stigmatized term since it is a blend of Chinese and English, and Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) interpret Chinglish or Chinese English as an interlanguage or learner English halfway between English and Chinese. People in China feel ashamed if they are described as speaking Chinglish, because even ‘good Chinglish’ is ‘very bad English’ in Chinese people’s eyes; so the term Chinglish is unwelcomed because it is loaded with pejorative meanings in China. As a result, we can ignore the first five names listed above. Chinese English is regarded as “‘bad English’ or ‘beginner’s English’ or, at most, an interlanguage which needs to be improved” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 6); except those serious researchers mentioned above, “others would see no difference” between Chinese English and *Chinglish* (ibid). If time can tell us which term should be chosen, China English is more preferred than Chinese English for now. However, it should be mentioned that there are arguments for the restoration of Chinese English being used as a term to refer to the variety of English in China (Li, 2019; Xu, 2017).

Another reason which makes me think it inappropriate to label the English learnt and used in mainland China as ‘Chinese English’ is because scholars often call the institutionalized varieties of English with the adjective form (cf. Mufwene, 1994), such as Indian English, Pakistani English, Australian English, British English, American English, and so forth. However, the English spoken and written in mainland China should be classified as a performance variety of English in line with Kachru’s classification of English varieties. Therefore, like many recent researchers in China, I prefer using the term China English, which was first put forward by Professor Ge (1980, p. 2):

It is reported that some foreigners said that expressions in the books published in China are wrong in NSs’ opinion, which were named as Chinese English or Chinglish and should never be used. It is out of question that any NNSs should obey the linguistic regulations set by the native English speakers. But I think every country is unique to some degree. In China, for instance, we have content ideas specific to Chinese culture to express while speaking or writing in English, such as *Four Books* (Sì Shū), *Five Classics* (Wǔ Jīng), *imperial competitive examination* (kējǔ), *eight-legged essay* (bāgǔwén), *xiucai* (xiùcai), *juren* (jǔrén), *Jinshi* (jìnshì), *Hanlinyuan* or *Imperial Academy* (Hànlínyuàn), *May Forth Movement* (Wǔsì Yùndòng), *Mr. Science* (Sài xiānsheng), *Mr. Democracy* (Dé xiānsheng), *baihua* (báihuà), *ideological remoulding* (sīxiǎng gǎizào), *Two Hundreds Policy* (Shuāngbǎi Fāngzhēn), *people’s commune* (rénmín gōngshè), *four modernizations* (sìgè xiàndàihuà), and so on. All these translated terms are expressions of China English rather than Chinese English or Chinglish. The native English speakers might find them hard to be understood at first, but the situation will be changed with a little explanation (italics in original).

“Ge Chuangui was the first Chinese scholar who took a serious study on the Chinese variety of English” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 7). He created the term China English in 1980 in an essay about Chinese–English translation. However, in the rest of the essay, he gave no more details about China English; instead, he went on to argue that Chinese–English translation should follow the language habits of native-English users, rather than the Chinese ones, with the exception of some expressions being translated with Chinese characteristics since there are no such English equivalents. In other words, his research in this thesis was mainly concerned with vocabulary

from the perspective of translation, instead of studying China English as a language variety. It was unfortunate that his new concept was ignored by Chinese scholars in the next 10 years.

In the year of 1991, Wang Rongpei was the first Chinese scholar who tried to define China English as “the English used by the Chinese People in China, being based on Standardized English and having Chinese characteristics” (Wang, 1991, p. 3). Although it is the first try in the research circle to present a definition of China English, this one was not so perfect and was revised more than once.

After two years, Li (1993, p. 19) revised Wang’s definition, saying that China English is not necessarily used in China and he even argued that there “exists no such thing as Standardized English, since not even British English and American English are looked upon as [the only] ‘Standardized English[es]’ any longer today”. He thought we could call the English which goes along with the common core of English language and is accepted by English-speaking countries as ‘Normative English’ (‘guī fàn yīng yǔ, 规范英语’) (for more details about the common core of English, see Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 1999, 2001). So he redefined China English as follows: China English has ‘normative English’ as its core but with Chinese characteristics in lexicon, syntax, and discourse, and it is employed to express content ideas specific to Chinese culture by means of transliteration, borrowing, and semantic regeneration without cross-linguistic influence from the Chinese language. Li also differentiated China English from Chinglish by defining the latter as the ill-formed English created by China’s English language learners and users who use English unnaturally with the cross-linguistic influence from Chinese language rules and customs.

Another two years later, Xie (1995) responded to Li’s definition of China English from the angle of language interference. He argues that both China English and Chinglish are cross-linguistically influenced by Chinese language, so he defines China English as an interference variety of English used by Chinese people in the intercultural communications on the basis of ‘normative English’. Xie (1995) is right to insist that China English cannot be free from the cross-linguistic influences of Chinese language since “the learners’ acquisition of a second language is influenced, either negatively or positively, by their mother tongue, and by the linguistic environment” (Hung, 2004, p. 39; cf. Gass & Selinker, 2001). For instance, Cantonese learners of English in Hong Kong tend to substitute either /t/ or /f/ and /d/ or /f/ for dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, respectively, since there are no such sounds in their first language (Chan & Li, 2000; Hung, 2000, 2002c, 2002e).

Still another two years later, Jia and Xiang (1997) revised Wang’s definition again by pointing out that once a person has acquired Chinese as his/her first language and formed the Chinese manner of thought, he/she will use English with certain Chinese characteristics no matter what nationality he/she belongs to and where he/she lives. So they defined China English as a variety of English which is used by the Chinese NSs with ‘normative English’ as its core and which manifests unavoidable Chinese characteristics or helps transmit Chinese culture.

Then five years later, Jin (2002) defined China English in a thesis about intercultural translation in both the broad and narrow sense and distinguished it from

Chinglish and Chinese students' 'interlanguage' in the course of English learning. In a broad sense, he defined China English as a variety of English which has the international 'normative English' as its core and which transmits Chinese-specific culture, language, ideology, and tradition into international English society by means of transliteration, borrowing, and semantic regeneration and by way of incorporating the expressions with Chinese characteristics.

Many other researchers on China English also provided some other definitions, which cannot be listed here one by one. For the purpose of a better definition, it should be pointed out that China English is not necessarily only used by Chinese people, NSs also need to use China English when they want to describe the things with Chinese characteristics. For example, when the former US president Richard Nixon visited China in 1972, he once expressed the best wishes that it was high time to build friendship between Chinese people and American people with the help of Chairman Mao's poems, saying "[t]en thousand years are too long, seize the day, seize the hour (Yī wàn nián tài jiǔ, zhǐ zhēng zhāo xī. 一万年太久, 只争朝夕)" (Nixon, 1972). In addition, I see no necessity of borrowing the term 'normative English' (cf. Li, 1993) while defining China English since, just like China English, Standardized English is also an objective reality (cf. Wang, 1991). In sum, on the basis of the above five researchers' definitions, I try to define **China English** as a performance variety of English which has standardized Englishes as its core but colored with characteristic features of Chinese phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse-pragmatics, and which is particularly suited for expressing content ideas specific to Chinese culture through such means as transliteration and loan translation (see also He & Li, 2009).

I hope that we have got an acceptable definition for the term China English by now. Three other points, however, still require further deliberation. First of all, a correlate of this definition is that China English should have the same common core as that of World Englishes, which is as Quirk et al. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 16) pointed out

A common core or nucleus is present in all the varieties so that, however esoteric a variety may be, it has running through it a set of grammatical and other characteristics that are present in all the others. It is this fact that justifies the application of the name 'English' to all the varieties.

It is this common core that makes China English mutually intelligible with all other varieties of English. Although the items and characteristics of the common core which occur in both the Standardized Englishes (e.g., British English and American English) and the indigenized Englishes (e.g., Indian English and Singaporean English) might be small in terms of number, they occur very frequently (see Nelson, 2006 for details).

Secondly, more words are needed to illustrate the relationship among the following terms: Chinese Pidgin English (CPE), Chinglish, Chinese English (or Sincized English), and China English. They are not clear-cut from each other; rather, "they are situated on a continuum" (Hu, 2004, p. 27). Let's take Chinese Pidgin English as an example, "[a]lthough short-lived, some CPE has found its way into the vocabulary of today's English, as for example the idiomatic expressions 'No can do' and 'Long time no see'" (Wei & Fei, 2003, p. 43). At the 'bottom' end of the continuum we

have CPE, a mixed language with “a limited vocabulary, a reduced grammar and a simplified phonology as compared with native English” (ibid). In addition, it was reported that the “uncouth and ridiculous” CPE was “the almost exclusive medium of communication between the natives and foreigners at the open ports” (Nevius, 1872, p. 204, cited in Bolton, 2003, p. 159). It was even suggested that “the Chinese themselves are, to an extent, adopting this language...owing to the fact that men of different provinces cannot understand each other’s dialect” (Simpson, 1873, p. 45, cited in Bolton, 2003, p. 159). More works concerning the systematic description and analysis of CPE can be found in Dennys (1870), (1878), Reinecke (1937), Hall (1944), Baker (1987), Baker and Mühlhäusler (1990), Shi (1991), and so on. At the other end of the continuum, we have China English, a language which is as good a communicative tool as Standardized English (He & Li, 2009; Xu, Deterding, & He, 2017).

Thirdly, we should bear in mind that China English is still in the process of development. It should be considered at present as an ‘common intermediate language’¹ instead of a new variety of English. This is said because even Hong Kong English is “short of a sociological basis at the societal level, it seems inappropriate to characterize ‘Hong Kong English’ as a new variety” although it is well-acknowledged and “with a strong public presence” (Li, 2000, p. 57). It is undisputable that China English is, by no means, better codified and promoted than Hong Kong English. In addition, more evidence for saying so comes from the comparison between the definition and development of China English and Butler’s (1997) five criteria for the existence of a new variety of English.

- (1) a standard and recognizable pronunciation handed down from one generation to another;
- (2) words and phrases that express key features of the physical and social environment and which are regarded as peculiar to the variety;
- (3) a history in the sense that the variety is seen as part of a speech community;
- (4) a literature written in that variety without apology; and
- (5) the existence of reference works (also cited in Kirkpatrick and Xu, 2002, p. 269).

Evaluating today’s China English against these five criteria, it is argued that the first three criteria are met to a certain extent, but not the last two, since these two criteria “provide strong evidence for an established variety. In the context of China, however, it is clear that we are considering a developing variety” (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002, p. 270). There are some other yardsticks against which the non-native Englishes can be tested whether they are new varieties of English or not (cf. Mollin, 2007). China English cannot be classified as a new variety when judged against any of them. Besides, the term China English is not so well received by scholars in general although it is well-recognized among scholars and researchers who do research in the domains of China English or Chinese English and the varieties of English in the

¹ ‘Common intermediate language’ is a term borrowed from computer science, which refers to the language of an abstract machine designed to assist in the analysis of computer programming. The term comes from their use in compilers, where a compiler first translates the source code of a program into a form more suitable for code-improving transformations, as an intermediate step before generating object or machine code for a target machine (Wikipedia, 2020). In this book, common intermediate language refers to the current developing status of China English between students’ interlanguage and a recognized new variety of English.

world. In sum, it can be argued that the widespread use of China English, works of linguistic description and codification, and English literature are needed before China English is accepted as a new variety of English.

However, it should also be noted that China English is different from students' interlanguage although it is still a developing variety of English. Larry Selinker first introduced the term—interlanguage—at the Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics in 1969 (Selinker, 1969). Three years later, he further explained the conception in a thesis titled exactly as 'interlanguage' (Selinker, 1972). Thereafter, it is widely used in the research area of linguistics. In these two theses, Selinker stated that interlanguage refers to the linguistic system observed from the second or foreign language learners' whole psychological linguistic learning process, during which there exists a large quantity of L1 cross-linguistic influence and linguistic transfer. According to this concept, the second or foreign language learning process is considered one of continual adjustment of the learners' L1 habitual rules to adapt to those of the second or foreign languages, so the ultimate target of the 'interlanguage' is to acquire the native or near-native competence. Some scholars (e.g., Xie, 1995; Zhang, 1995) showed an inclination to regard Chinese learners' interlanguage as China English (for more details, see Du, 1998). However, based on the above argument, it is quite clear that the two are rather different although both of them are cross-linguistically influenced by the Chinese language. First of all, the former refers to the learner's personal English language characteristics; in contrast, the latter refers to the traits of Chinese people learning English as a group. Secondly, the former is unstable and is always in the course of development, whereas the latter is by definition more stable, at least theoretically, and its development and variation depend on the development of society and culture. Thirdly, the interference of Chinese as evidenced in the learners' interlanguage is mainly unconscious or undesirable, and the negative transfer of the learners' interlanguage often counteracts its positive transfer. However, the cross-linguistic influence of Chinese language to China English often occurs consciously so as to express content ideas specific to Chinese culture, and the negative transfer of the cross-linguistic influence is always confined to the lowest level while the positive transfer is brought into full play. In short, we can conclude that China English—a developing variety of English—is on its way to becoming a performance variety. In other words, it is not the ultimate goal for the present common intermediate language status of China English to become a native or near-native variety of English; rather, it is to become a full-blown performance variety, China English.

2.2 China English: Linguistic Features

A number of scholars and researchers who research China English touched the specific linguistic level of China English, notably, Pinkham (2000), Jiang (1995a, 2002a, 2003), Du and Jiang (2001), Wang (1991), Li (1993), Wei and Fei (2003), Jia and Xiang (1997), Yang and Yan (2002), Deterding (2006, 2017), Xu (2010a,

2010b, 2017), He (2007, 2015, 2017c), and Ge (1980). Nearly all of them agree that we should rely on the formal language sources (e.g., *China Daily*, *Beijing Review*, CCTV-9, China Radio International) for the research of the specific linguistic levels and characteristics of China English. In summary, their research is centered on four specific linguistic fields: phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse.

2.2.1 Phonology

Some researchers argue that there is no Standardized English as a spoken model (e.g., Crystal, 1999). For example, Trudgill and Hannah (1994) claim that “*I haven’t got any* is a sentence of Standardized English, no matter how it is pronounced...”. Widdowson (1993) also concludes that the spoken form of Standardized English can be manifested by any accent (see also Jenkins, 2015). On one hand, these arguments are meaningful to some extent, for example, they make us realize that we should no longer take the view that any phonological deviation from the Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (GA) accent are ‘errors’ and thus need to be improved. Actually, the so-called RP is spoken only by less than 3% of the population in the UK (Deterding, 2013; Deterding & Salbrina, 2013). On the other hand, I think that there does exist something called Phonological Standard (e.g., voiceless dental fricative /θ/ might be pronounced as /f/, /s/, or /t/) that makes various Englishes spoken by people from different countries comprehensible to each other along the lines of a core approach advocated by the ELF scholars, especially on phonology (Jenkins, 2000, 2002, 2006a, 2015).

It should be pointed out, however, that the standard for English pronunciation and intonation is “dynamic and it is a continuum with minimum acceptability and maximum acceptability at the two ends” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 11). China’s English users’ and learners’ pronunciation and intonation, like those in any other nations, are somewhere between the two ends but with their own features. These features, as Hung (2002d) argues, should be well studied and included into international English dictionaries with some “more systematic and principled solutions to the proper phonetic representation ... instead of arbitrarily imposing the same transcription conventions on them as for traditional or ‘old’ varieties of English” (p. 34). This is said because “our learners are comfortable and spontaneous with” their own way of pronouncing English, which should be ‘modified’ “only where necessary—i.e. only when it is crucial for international intelligibility” (Hung, 2004, p. 36). What is more, the issue of international intelligibility and acceptability should be looked at not only from the viewpoint of the ‘old varieties’ of English but also from a truly international perspective (Hung, 2002a, 2004). In addition, Hung (1992) also points out that even the transcription system of a certain variety of English should (to a greater or lesser extent) be different from those of Standardized English for the purpose of fully representing the pronunciation of that variety of English in dictionaries. For example, the word *play* in a Singaporean English dictionary should be represented as /ple/ or /ple:/ instead of /pleI/ as represented in RP.

Between the two different levels of phonological representation—segmental and suprasegmental—of China English, more and more scholars (e.g., Du & Jiang, 2001; Jiang, 2002a; Yang & Yan, 2002) hold the opinion that we should pay attention to the latter since the suprasegmental transfer is cumulative while the phonemic transfer is ‘self-limiting’ (Leather, 1983) and it is mainly the suprasegmental features that make China English sound Chinese and easier for Chinese speakers to understand, but a ‘foreigner talk’ to NSs. In addition, Chinese-speaking students usually find that the learning of English suprasegmental features, such as stress and intonation, is notoriously difficult. What is more, they cannot get any help from the positive transfer of their L1 (Hung, 1993, 1994). On the other hand, research also demonstrates that phonemic features of non-native Englishes will be tolerated as long as more attention is paid to their suprasegmental features in order to keep them comprehensible to other speakers of English (cf. Deterding, 2013, 2017; Nihalani, 1999). For example, Jenkins (2006b, p. 32) argues that it has been long featured among the nativized or indigenized varieties of English to “shift dark /l/ to either clear /l/ or to ‘w’ where it occurs before a consonant or pause (as in, respectively, ‘milk’ and ‘feel’)” and “‘th’ to /f/, /s/ or /t/, whatever its position in a word”, and she argues that some of these features are becoming perfectly acceptable in the Inner Circle (cf. Kachru, 1992c; Kachru & Nelson, 2006) as they do not affect intelligibility. Li (2006b, p. 118) also argues that some phonological “substitution of labio-dental fricative and alveolar stop for the voiceless and voiced dental fricatives, respectively (e.g., *thief* is pronounced as /fi:f/, *this* is pronounced as /dis/)” will make the learners “feel empowered when learning and using ELF features, in that their preferred ‘ways of speaking’ are accepted as legitimate”. In addition, “competent Chinese English speakers do not display much uniqueness in pronouncing the 44 English phonemes” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 12).

The major English suprasegmental features include stress, pitch, intonation, juncture, weakening, assimilation, and liaison. In practice, China English is generally “more or less syllable-timed and lacks processes such as weakening, liaison, assimilation, and juncture” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 12). Yang and Yan (2002) also argue that the newsreaders or hosts/hostesses of China Radio International and CCTV (i.e., the national broadcasting and TV stations of China) tend to stress, now and then, the articles, prepositions, conjunctions, and the modifiers of noun phrases, and their spoken English often lack assimilation and liaison. In addition, Jiang (2002b, p. 22) finds that the pronunciation of China English tends to be conservative and old-fashioned because “until very recently, Chinese dictionaries and textbooks still employed the Daniel Jones system rather than the commonly accepted EPD-14, the system introduced in the 14th edition of *English Pronouncing Dictionary*”. Moreover, some researchers (e.g., Li & Wang, 2002; Liang & Zhong, 2002; Lu, 2004; Yang, 1998) state that Chinese is a tone language, which relies on four different tones to specify different meanings of the same phonation; while English depends on the devices like intonation and stress to differentiate the meanings of the word, phrase or sentence. Besides, Chinese and English belong to two different language families, respectively. As a result, China English often appears to suffer from a lack of stress, liaison, and variation in tone comparing to normative English.

On the whole, it should be noted that most of the research on the phonological comparison between Chinese and English are mainly focused on segmental level (for more details, please see Cao, 2000; Deterding, 2006; Du, 1988; Ho, 2003; Hung, 2005; Li, 2000; Meng & Wang, 1992; Yue & Ling, 1994). For example, Deterding (2006, 2017) lists 15 features of the pronunciation of 37 participants from China (i.e., extra final vowel, absence of reduced vowels, nasalized vowels, /θ/ pronounced as /s/, /ð/ pronounced as /z/ or /d/, /h/ as [x], /ʒ/ as /r/, having problems with fricatives /v/ and /z/, /l/ pronounced as /n/, vocalized /l/, glide before initial /l/, omission of final plosives, omission of dark /l/, failure to distinguish long and short vowels like /i:/ and /i/,² and stressed final pronouns), 14 of them (except the last one) belong to the segmental level. Therefore, more enquiries into the comparative analysis of the suprasegmental features between Chinese and English are needed so as to better describe and explain the phonological system of China English. It should also be made clear that the ‘dialectal’ background of L1 cross-linguistic influence is a very important factor that deserves special attention while identifying the phonological features of China English. In other words, just like the way mainland Chinese speak Putonghua with different accents depending on their ‘dialectal’ background, it is unrealistic to expect them to develop the same China English accent owing to cross-linguistic influences from their L1. This is the same as English spoken in the UK (or the US) with different accents.

2.2.2 *Lexis*

Nearly all the scholars and researchers of China English agree that “the defining feature of China English is its unique lexicon, words that are native to China or have meanings peculiar to China” (Jiang, 2002a, p. 13), and many Chinese scholars and researchers who argue there is something called China English, or Chinese English as some others called it, consider the lexis of China English the main part of their arguments (e.g., Hao, 2003; He & Li, 2009; Shao, 1999; Wan, 2005; Wang, 1991; Xu, 2010b; Xu, He, & Deterding 2017; Zhang, 2004). Two other scholars, Gao (2001) and Yang (2005) even devoted their attention primarily to lexical borrowing and innovations in China English. Besides, many Western scholars also state that it is an objective reality that there exist Chinese borrowings in English. For example, Bliss (1966) and Mawson (1975) contained six and nineteen Chinese borrowings in their dictionaries, respectively, Serjeantson (1935) listed 27 in his book on borrowings in English, Urdang and Abate (1983) listed 69, and Cannon (1988, p. 4) argues that “the standard dictionaries and obvious printed sources” include at least 979 Chinese borrowings (see Jiang, 2002a for more details of these figures). Bolton (2003) listed 231 words or expressions for Hong Kong English resulted from the cross-linguistic

²However, it should be noted that scholars hold different opinions as to whether vowel length is important or not for maintaining intelligibility in global English interaction (Deterding, 2013, 2017; Jenkins, 2000).

influence of the Chinese language in his book of Chinese Englishes. Some scholars (e.g., Cannon, 1988; Knowlton, 1970) criticized *Webster's The Third* for neglecting Chinese, Japanese, and Korean loanwords. However, it should also be pointed out that even Cannon's figure is far from complete because it does not include the vocabulary which appeared after the 1980s (such as *University Entrance Examination, material/spiritual civilization, laid off, industrial park, sunrise industry, three represents, keep pace with the times, build a well-off society in an all-round way, stability as a principle of overriding importance, dama, tuhao*, etc.) although it was published in 1988. Cui (2006) claims the most word entries (3,561) with Chinese origin based on the *Oxford English Dictionary* online (2006).

Since China's open-door policy, "many China-specific words and phrases have been used in various newspapers and magazines dealing with Chinese affairs" (Jiang, 2002a, p. 14), which proves that Chinese items in English deserve a dictionary. There are more than a dozen of such dictionaries, for example:

- (1) *General Chinese-English Dictionary* by Chung Hwa Book Co., (HK) Ltd. (Editorial, 1966)
- (2) *A Chinese-English Dictionary of Chinese Communist Terminology* by Doolin and Ridley (1973).
- (3) *Concise English-Chinese Chinese-English Dictionary* by Zhu et al. (1986).
- (4) *A General Chinese-English Dictionary* by Liu Wen (1990).
- (5) *A Modern Chinese-English Dictionary* by Duan Shizhen (1992).
- (6) *A Concise Chinese-English Dictionary of Chinese Proper Names and Terms* by Zhang and Yuan (1994).
- (7) *A New Chinese-English Dictionary* by Hu (1994)
- (8) *ABC Chinese-English Dictionary* by DeFrancis (1997).
- (9). *A Chinese-English Dictionary* by Wei (1997)
- (10) *21st Century Chinese-English Dictionary* by Liang and Zheng (1999).
- (11) *New-age Chinese-English Dictionary* by Wu and Cheng (2000).
- (12) *ABC Chinese-English Comprehensive Dictionary* by DeFrancis (2003).
- (13) *A Comprehensive Chinese-English Dictionary* by Wu Guanghua (2004).
- (14) *A Two-way Chinese-English Dictionary for Difficult Lexis* by Chen (2006).
- (15) *A Chinese-English Dictionary of New Terms and Phrases* by Foreign Language Press (2014).
- (16) *A Dictionary of New Chinese Phrases in English* by China Daily (2019).

However, there are no standardized forms for loan translations. *Jīngshén wénmíng*, for instance, is translated as the following 16 different expressions according to these dictionaries:

'spiritual civilization' [see (1), (4), (5), (6), (7), (9), (10), (11), (12), (13)];

'cultural and ideological progress' [see (5), (7), (10), (11), (13), (14)];

'culture and ideology' [see (5), (10), (11), (13)];

'advanced culture and ideology' [see (6), (11)];

- 'moral civilization' [see (1), (13)];
- 'intellectual civilization' [see (8), (12)];
- 'advanced culture and ethics' [see (11), (13)];
- 'culture and ethics' [see (11)];
- 'high standards of culture and ethics' [see (6)];
- 'ethical virtues' [see (7)];
- 'ethical values' [see (3)];
- 'spiritual values' [see (3)];
- 'a civilization with a high cultural and ideological level' [see (13)];
- 'a civilization which is culturally and ideologically advanced' [see (13)];
- 'ethical and cultural progress' [see (13)]; and
- 'intellectual and moral qualities' [see (13)].

One indirect consequence is that readers, China's English learners and users, often get confused and cannot be sure which one to choose. Therefore, more work is needed to put forward a standard China English dictionary for English learners and users to follow in China.

Regardless of the confusing situation about the lexis of China, It is generally agreed that the words and expressions with China-specific features are formed by means of loanwords and loan translations (note: the examples cited in the following two categories are frequently used in English-speaking countries, but some of them are not incorporated into English dictionaries yet).

- A. Loanwords: some words and expressions of China English are expressed with Chinese pinyin directly, such as (for those that are not so popular, a Chinese pinyin with diacritics and their brief English meanings were given in brackets):
- (a) Politics and society: Putonghua, Renminbi/RMB, dang an (dǎng àn—dossier/files/archives), hu kou (hù kǒu—registered residence), coolie, yamen (yámen—in Qing China and before, the office of officials), dazibao (dàzìbào—big-character poster, prevalent during the Cultural Revolution), mahjong, Tang, falungong, mingong (míngōng—peasants who do manual work in the city), etc;
 - (b) Martial arts: wushu, kongfu, qigong, tai chi (chuan), etc;
 - (c) Culture: xiucai (xiùcai—Who passed the imperial examination at the county level in the Ming and Qing dynasties), erhu (èrhú—two-stringed Chinese fiddle), huadan (huādàn—female role in Chinese opera), yin (yīn—the female or 'negative' principle in cosmology), yang (yáng—the male or 'positive' principle in cosmology), fengshui (fēngshuǐ—geomantic omen or geomancy), lama, piaoyou (piàoyǒu—fan), yasuiqian (yāsùiqián—money given to kids as a Spring Festival gift), etc;

- (d) Food and drinks: jiaozi, chow mein, chow fan, char siew, baozi, Goubuli, mantou, tofu, lichee/litchi, tea, maotai, nianyefan (niányèfàn—dinner for the Spring Festival Eve), etc;
 - (e) Others: yuan (yuán—the basic unit of China’s money, cf. dollar), jiao (jiǎo—the unit of China’s money, cf. ten cents), fen (fēn—the unit of China’s money, cf. cent), kang (kàng—a heatable brick bed), qipao (qípáo—close-fitting woman’s dress with high neck and slit skirt), dama (dāmā—middle-aged Chinese lady), tuhao (tùháo—rich Chinese people), etc.
- B. Loan translations or calques: some lexical items of China English are formed by translating them word for word or literally into English, and sometimes with a new meaning, for example:
- (a) Politics and society: the Spring Festival, special economic (development) zone, work unit, Four Modernizations, One China policy, open-door policy, five-year plan, the great leap forward, the Great Cultural Revolution, the Gang of Four, red guard, barefoot doctor, paper tiger, iron rice bowl, face, three representatives, hundred flowers, reform-through-labor, intellectual, Young Pioneers, five emphases, and four beauties,³ township enterprises, three represents, a community of shared future for mankind, toilet revolution, high-quality development, sharing economy, P2P lending, Guandong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area, long-arm jurisdiction, etc;
 - (b) Culture: Four Books, Five Classics, Confucius, Daoism, Eight-legged Essay, Beijing opera, square dance, etc;
 - (c) Food and drinks: moon cake, spring roll, bear paw, lotus seeds, shark’s fin, winter melon, beggar chicken, birds nest, dragon well tea, etc;
 - (d) Others: long time no see, people mountains and people seas, work one’s heart out, snakehead, chain of contempt, etc.

2.2.3 Syntax

Speaking of the syntactic level of China English, Joan Pinkham cannot be ignored. In spite of the fact that a different term—Chinglish—is used, in Pinkham’s book, *The Translator’s Guide to Chinglish*, she deals with two aspects of China English: word choice and sentence structure. As a native-English speaker, she once worked in Beijing as a polisher for 8 years, which made her examples authentic. “Most were found in draft translations that were corrected before the text appeared in print. Some were found in published materials—official documents, the *China Daily*, the several English-language magazines and so on” (Pinkham, 2000, p. 2).

³They refer to the norms advocated in the movement to build socialist ethics in the 1980s. The ‘five emphases’ refer to an emphasis on civility, courtesy, hygiene, orderliness, and morality. The ‘four beauties’ refer to the beauty of soul, speech, behavior, and environment.

About word choice, Pinkham argues that “Vigorous writing is concise, a sentence should contain no unnecessary words, a paragraph no unnecessary sentences...” but the English texts produced by NSs of Chinese are “commonly full of them, and even polished versions are seldom free of them” (Pinkham, 2000, p. 1). She classifies these unnecessary words into five categories: (1) unnecessary nouns and verbs, (2) unnecessary modifiers, (3) redundant twins, (4) saying the same thing twice, and (5) repeated references to the same thing. Here is one of her many examples:

Of course, we must have a certain number of professional revolutionaries who may not get involved in the specific production activities and a proper number of physicians as well as a certain number of personnel specializing in literature, artistic and other related activities. [emphases hers] (Pinkham, 2000, p. 150)

Pinkham at first could make no sense of the sentence and “was only aware that it was wordy and repetitive and needed to be edited down” (ibid). She consulted a Chinese and finally reworded it as follows:

“Of course, we must have a certain number of revolutionary professionals — doctors, writers, artists, and other specialists — who are not involved in production” (ibid).

Concerning the sentence structure, Pinkham lists six symptoms, i.e., the noun plague, pronouns and antecedents, the placement of phrases and clauses, dangling modifiers, parallel structure, and logical connectives. Below is another example in the category of “the placement of phrases and clauses”.

China’s leaders have made their intentions clear. “China will not devalue the yuan for the sake of its own economic development and economic stability in Asia,” premier-in-waiting Zhu Rongji said last month. (Pinkham, 2000, p. 348)

Pinkham states that the word order of this sentence is “faulty from the point of view of both logic and emphasis” (ibid), so she changed the above to

China’s leaders have made their intentions clear. “Both for the sake of its own economic development and for the sake of economic stability in Asia,” premier-in-waiting Zhu Rongji said last month, “China will not devalue the yuan.” (Pinkham, 2000, pp. 348–349)

Pinkham’s work is a good start, but we should not deny that China English has its own syntactic characteristics as argued by many Chinese scholars (e.g., Cao, 2000; He & Li, 2009; Jia & Xiang, 1997; Jin, 2001, 2002; Li & Wang, 2002; Xu, 2010b; Xu, He, & Deterding, 2017; Yang & Yan, 2002). I try to summarize their arguments as the following four points.

- A. The difference between hypotaxis and parataxis. Yang and Yan (2002) state that English sentences emphasize hypotaxis. That is to say, in English, the temporal, logical, and syntactic relations between members of a sentence and sentences are expressed mainly by certain words (such as ‘when’, ‘then’, ‘because’, ‘therefore’, etc.) or phrases (such as ‘in order to’, ‘as a result’, etc.) or by the use of subordinate phrases and clauses; while Chinese is a language which emphasizes parataxis for sentence making. In other words, Chinese relies heavily on the internal logical relationships within a sentence. This difference makes English

sentences more precise but generally more wordy and Chinese ones more concise but generally more opaque to learners of Chinese as a foreign language. This difference is one reason why official documents in Hong Kong always specify that the English version shall be referred to in case of discrepancies between English and Chinese versions of the documents although both languages are official languages in Hong Kong. This trait of Chinese sentence structure will be inevitably displayed in China English, for example, ‘Ten thousand years are too long, seize the day, seize the hour’. This is China English translation for one sentence of Chairman Mao’s poem, which seems not so grammatically correct according to the norms of Standardized English, but it can best express the original meaning of the poem. However, it should be pointed out that parataxis is also used in English (although it is not so frequent comparing to that in Chinese), for instance, ‘No pain, no gain’.

- B. Idioms made up of four morpho-syllables. There are large quantities of idioms in the Chinese language that are formed with four Chinese characters and manifest rich meaning and Chinese culture, so is the case in China English. For instance:

Seeking truth from facts (Shí shì qiú shì; 实事求是).

One country, two systems (Yī guó liǎng zhì; 一国两制).

Effort halved, result doubled (Shì bàn gōng bèi; 事半功倍).

Man proposes, God disposes (Móu shì zài rén, chéng shì zài tiān; 谋事在人, 成事在天).

- C. Parallel structure. This rhythmic structure is frequently used in Chinese to express ideas with fruitful meanings, so it is commonly used in China English, for example:

A fall into the pit, a gain in your wit (Chī yī qiàn, zhǎng yī zhì; 吃一堑, 长一智).

True in words and resolute in deed (Yán bì xìn, xíng bì guǒ; 言必信, 行必果).

A distant journey tests the strength of a horse and a long time together proves the personality of a man (Lù yáo zhī mǎ lì, rì jiǔ jiàn rén xīn. 路遥知马力, 日久见人心).

- D. The Null Subject parameter. It is argued “that variation between languages can be explained in terms of parameters which may have different settings in different languages” (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002, p. 271). The Null Subject parameter is such a parameter that has different settings in English and Chinese in that English requires a subject while Chinese might not. For example, according to Deterding’s (2000) research on the potential influences of Chinese on the written English of Singapore, the subject-omitting headlines like ‘Pushed URA Officer Down’ and ‘Hurt Girlfriend With Lighted Butt’ are acceptable in Singaporean English newspapers. These headlines, however, “would not be acceptable in British English” (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002, p. 271). Like Singaporean English, this use of zero subject sentences is also very common in China English, for

instance, it is quite common for China English users to write down sentences like ‘Very glad to write to you again’ and ‘Miss you a lot’ in a letter or an email in English because of the cross-linguistic influence from the Chinese language. There is no doubt that this summary of the syntactic traits is far from complete since China English is still on the way of development. For example, Xu Zhichang (2010b) summarized eight syntactic features on the basis of his data. However, we have no reason to ignore these existing traits, or else we might fail to express the China-specific meanings in English just because we want to abide by the ‘standard’ English grammar to the letter. For example, Lin (2001b) once criticized ‘Go to work happily, and come back safely’ as an awful translation for ‘高高兴兴上班去, 平平安安回家来; Gāogāo xìngxìng shàngbān qù, píngpíng ānān hūjiā lái’ (a Chinese slogan calling for workers to be aware of safety problems) and she proposed ‘Good luck’. However, her translation fails to express the original Chinese-specific meanings connoted by the parallel structure of the slogan even if it sounds more native-like.

2.2.4 Discourse

In Asian contexts, contact with English has on the one hand resulted in the Englishization of the local languages and on the other, in nativization of English (Deterding, 2013; Kachru, 1995; Scollon & Scollon, 1991). Therefore, China English discourse also exhibits certain unique traits because of the cross-linguistic influence from the Chinese language in this context. For example, it is argued (e.g., Samovar & Porter, 2004; Tyler & Davies, 1990; Young, 1982, 1994) that texts in English or Western cultures are often structured in a deductive format, in which the main topic comes at the beginning with supporting material following. However, Chinese or Eastern discourses are generally structured inductively,⁴ in other words, the most significant point is delayed until a considerable amount of background material has been presented. For example, NSs of English often state a request first and then give reasons for it, while Chinese speakers prefer to preface the request with the reasons for it and the reasons with a prologue as ‘facework’ (Kirkpatrick, 1993). Many other Western scholars (e.g., Kaplan, 1972; Scollon, 1991) have also supported this opinion by arguing that the traditional Chinese text structures⁵ “still have strong influence upon the written English of contemporary Chinese students” (Scollon et al., 2000, p. 9).⁶ Based on a larger contrastive discourse project in which a single news story was compared in a six-way design to include Chinese (i.e., standard written Chinese

⁴It should not be neglected that not all Chinese or Eastern writing is organized in this circular/indirect/inductive format (see Kirkpatrick, 1995b; Mohan & Lo, 1985; for details).

⁵The two structures most commonly cited are the traditional four-part ‘*qi-cheng-zhuan-he*’ structure (beginning-continuing-transition-summary) and ‘*ba gu wen*’, the so-called eight-legged essay of the Chinese imperial civil service exams (Scollon, Scollon, & Kirkpatrick, 2000).

⁶There are, however, some other studies (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 1995a, 1997) arguing that the traditional Chinese styles have little influence upon contemporary mainland Chinese writing styles, especially

and spoken Cantonese) and English versions in newspaper, radio, and television media, Li et al.'s (1993) research compares both the generic and media differences across versions of the same news story and cautions us "against making overly quick contrastive generalizations as well as against generalizing from texts in one medium to general characteristics of languages, of people, or of discourses" (p. 70).

Recent decades have seen an increasing attention to the description of the written model of China English, especially in mainland China (e.g., Cai, 1998; Chen, 1996, 1998; Li, 2016; Wang, 2000; Xu, 2010b; Yang & Wen, 1994; Zhuang, 2000). Hoey (1983) argues that there are three patterns of English discourse, namely, General-Particular Pattern, Problem-Solution Pattern, and Matching pattern, and the first one is the most commonly used one in various situations. After years of investigation into and analysis of the thought patterns of the people from different cultures, Kaplan (1966) claims that Asians frequently approach their target by indirection while writing, in other words, they always start their writing by talking about some relevant information about the topic but seldom do so directly from the topic. However, Kaplan's position (1966) has been much criticized (see Li, 1998, p. 33–34 for more details). And David C. S. Li believes that one major reason resulting in its wide skepticism is probably because (1998, p. 34):

...many critics smell racism in his line of argument, for it invites the interpretation that certain racial groups such as Chinese or Japanese are simply incapable of linear, deductive, analytical thinking – rhetorical features which are largely held to be merits of written, especially academic, English.

Based on Hoey's (1983) and Kaplan's (1966) research, Wang and Li (1993) investigated the English writings of different levels of students in their own university and found that the above-mentioned three patterns of discourse can all be observed in Chinese university students' writing, but they are obviously lack of the General-Particular Pattern and their main pattern is Problem-Solution, and their writings show the same characteristics found in Kaplan's research. In addition, Zhang (2003) described discursal norms of China English in a range of domains, from speech acts, email discourse, journalistic discourse, personal correspondence, to technical and academic writings. Xu (2010b) discusses the discourse features of China English from three aspects: cohesion, coherence, and schema.

However, to my knowledge, many important areas of discourse still remain almost untouched, such as spoken discourse in informal social interactions. Even the above-mentioned research on the discourse of China English is not so systematic, and so there is much research to be done, for example, how do Chinese speakers take turns when engaging in English conversation? What shall we do to provide teachers and learners with adequate descriptions of China English as a feasible and desirable model in mainland China? Besides, some ELF scholars (e.g., Jenkins, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2006b, 2015; Jenkins & Seidlhofer, 2001; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2002b, 2004, 2006; Seidlhofer & Jenkins, 2003) have done a lot of corpus-driven works (e.g., VOICE project—Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English—capturing

the expositive writing; and that the way the mainland Chinese students having been taught to write in Chinese has no negative influence on the way they write in English.

NNS-NNS interactions), but there are only comparatively small numbers of Chinese speakers involved in these works. Therefore, it can be concluded that more work needs to be done on the features of China English at various linguistic levels.

In sum, as I have argued, China English is still in the process of natural and continuous development; as a result, it is impossible to list all the typical features of China English now. Nonetheless, it is quite necessary and also possible to set some tentative guidelines or criteria which can help us identify salient features of China English. For example, on one hand, it is reasonable to argue that speakers of China English “may have different accents dependent upon their mother-tongue dialect” (Kirkpatrick, 2007b, p. 146). Nevertheless, given that little research has yet been conducted in this area, it is difficult to “claim any distinctive phonological features that are common to all speakers” of China English (ibid). On the other hand, there do exist some features that nearly all China English users will display while speaking English no matter whether they are still English learners or already proficient English users and regardless of which part of China they are from, such as the tendency to use syllable-timing rhythm, the preference for open-syllable endings by inserting an epenthetic vowel (usually a schwa) after a final plosive and before the next word (e.g., pronouncing “and he” as /ændə hi/), and so on. Furthermore, due to the cross-linguistic influence from their first language and specific culture, English users from China tend to speak and write English in a somewhat different way from Standardized English, such as terms specific to China English, some special but common ways of expression (e.g., “My family has three members” instead of “There are three people in my family” in spoken English), the Null-subject utterances (see Kirkpatrick, 2007b; Xu, 2005; and Sect. 2.2.3 of this book for details). Put it simply, more research is needed to identify salient features of China English at different linguistic levels in line with the criteria of whether they are demonstrated by most China English users in both formal and informal contexts of social interaction. Likewise, the features of written China English should be basically consistent with those of Standardized English. If there are any inconsistent features, they should be those that can be frequently observed in formal language sources like *China Daily*, *Beijing Review*, and so on.

2.3 China English: A Discussion on the Curriculum for ELT in China

As noted from the beginning of Chap. 1, the standard varieties of British and American English have, for many years, been accepted and promoted as the only acceptable pedagogic model in mainland China (Adamson, 2004; Bolton, 2002b; Lam, 2002; Zhang, 2003). Nonetheless, a body of research (e.g., Bolton & Botha, 2015b; Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Chang, 2006; He, 2015, 2017b; Hu, 2004, 2005; Jin, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2006b, 2017a; Li, 2006b; Xu, 2010b; Xu, He, & Deterding, 2017) has begun to challenge this view in studies associated with World Englishes and EIL

or ELF. They believe that China's English learners should be exposed to different World Englishes in curriculum design so as to raise their awareness of the existence of a whole range of local varieties of English worldwide, which is of great importance to improve their communicative competence with English speakers from different nations. However, the English majors in the eight key Chinese universities (see Table 2.1 for details⁷) were not offered a course like 'China English and World Englishes' until the year of 2020, not to mention the English majors from the second-tier universities and the non-English majors in China. Most of the courses concern the training of basic English language skills and the studies about Britain, America, and other native English-speaking countries.

It is, nevertheless, quite common to offer courses concerning the local English varieties (e.g., Common Usage Problems in Hong Kong English) and World Englishes (e.g., English as a Global Language) to university students in other parts of the world. For example, such courses are offered at the University of Oslo (World Englishes, 2020), City University of Hong Kong (All Courses, 2020), and Universiti Brunei Darussalam (English Studies, 2020). Therefore, it remains a question to be studied whether we should include a course like 'China English and World Englishes' into the present university English curriculum for English majors in mainland China. I will mainly investigate participants' opinion on whether such knowledge should be incorporated into the teaching of university English so as to acquaint students with the awareness of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American English and British English.

2.4 Who Are Better Teachers for University English Teaching in China: NETs or LETs?

It has been argued that "language planning cannot be understood without reference to its social contexts" (Cooper, 1989, p. 3), nor can the decision be correctly made on who are better teachers (i.e., NETs or LETs) for university English in mainland China without considering the English teaching context in China. In recognition of the fact that English has become the most commonly used language in the world, ever since China adopted the Open-Door Policy, there has been a growing interest in hiring NETs in China. For example, it was estimated that there were about 400,000 NETs working in China (Quinn, 2019) in the year of 2017 and about two-thirds of them worked illegally then. Nevertheless, China does not have a central government policy on employing NETs (Niu & Wolff, 2003b); instead, each province has its own policy on hiring them. Therefore, in many circumstances, NSs have been employed with an associate degree or a qualification as low as a US high school diploma (Niu & Wolff, 2003b). In other words, more and more foreigners without any teaching experience, not to mention qualifications in language teaching, are recruited just because they are NSs (Chen, 2002). These foreigners, usually very young fresh graduates in their own

⁷The information on this table was collected by surfing these universities' websites.

Table 2.1 Required courses and electives for English majors in Chinese universities (2020)

	SH	JU	BU	TU	NU	WU	FU	SY
Basic English comprehensive course	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Advanced English	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Extensive reading	*		*	*	*	*	*	*
Listening and speaking	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
English pronunciation	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
English grammar	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
American and British general introduction	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
American literature selected novels	*		*	*	*	*	*	*
British literature history	*		*	*	*	*	*	*
Interpretation	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Translation	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
North American society and culture	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
British society and culture	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Australian and New Zealand society and culture	*		*					
Etymology	*							
English practical writing	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Theoretical English linguistics	*			*	*	*	*	*
Selected readings in British literature	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Selected readings in American literature	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
English movies	*		*	*	*	*		
Rhetoric	*		*	*	*	*	*	*
Linguistics	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Practical writing translation	*		*	*		*		
American poetry	*			*		*	*	*
Bible stories	*							
American short stories	*		*	*		*	*	*
British short stories	*		*			*	*	*
American history	*				*			
British newspaper	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Style study	*		*	*		*	*	*
English lexicology	*		*	*	*	*	*	*
Basic knowledge of Computer	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Physical Education	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
A second foreign language	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
American economy		*						
International law		*						

(continued)

Table 2.1 (continued)

	SH	JU	BU	TU	NU	WU	FU	SY
International business correspondence		*			*			
International trade		*			*			
International finance		*			*			
Accounting and marketing		*			*			
American business management		*						
Composition		*	*	*	*	*	*	*
University mathematics		*		*	*			
Microeconomics		*						
Thesis			*	*	*	*	*	*
Western (European) literature			*	*				
Geography of English-speaking countries			*					
European culture			*	*	*			
Modern Chinese				*	*	*		
Ancient Chinese				*				
Science and technology English				*				
Jewish study					*			
U.S. historical documents					*			
Canadian literature					*			
Commercial English						*	*	*
English-Chinese simultaneous interpretation						*		
English speech and debate						*		
English teaching methods						*		*
Comparative studies between Chinese and Western cultures						*		*
English stenography						*		
Selective readings of English drama						*		
British and American prose							*	
British and American movie literature							*	
Bible and British literature							*	
Chinese culture and ideology							*	
Modern Irish drama							*	
Modern British absurd drama							*	
English speech training								*
English testing								*
Introduction of English advertising								*

Notes 1. SH: Shanghai International Studies University; JU: Shanghai Jiaotong University; BU: Beijing Foreign Studies University; TU: Tsinghua University; NU: Nanjing University; WU: Wuhan University; FU: Fudan University; SY: Sun Yat-sen University

2. Hang Zhang (2003) provided me with the idea of this table and some of the names of the courses

countries, come to China for further study or exploration of this vast mysterious land in Asia. Teaching oral English at tertiary institutions, usually with high salary and reasonable workload,⁸ is their best choice to support themselves during the study or travel. Some of them may have a little knowledge about Chinese culture and customs. Yet almost all of them lack knowledge about Chinese educational system, Chinese ways of teaching and learning and the characteristics of Chinese teachers and students (He & Miller, 2011; Sa Li & Jin, 2020; Liu & Wu, 2003), which jointly form their new working environment in China! Worst of all is that some foreigners seek a teaching position mainly for money, having little sense of responsibility toward Chinese students. Without sufficient preparation or planning in advance, they may give an oral class by chatting, by acting or by telling some stories at will (Zhou, 2002; Zhu, 2002).

The poor quality of NETs is just one side of the issue of teacher selection for university English in mainland China. The other side is the debate on who are better teachers for university English in China: qualified NETs or LETs. The negative attitude toward local NNS teachers is, to a certain degree, rooted in the assumption that NETs are born in English-speaking countries, who know best how English should be taught (Quirk, 1990). Medgyes (1994, p. 33) even over-pessimistically argued that NNS teachers of English were by nature “less proficient users of” the language. However, it is also noted that “being born into a group does not mean that you automatically speak its language well” (Rampton, 1990, p. 98) and that English proficiency should be evaluated against “what you know” rather than “who you are” (Rampton, 1990, p. 99). In addition, many well-established studies have shown that the common belief about NSs being superior to NNSs as language teachers is no more than a fallacy (e.g., Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; He & Miller, 2011; Sa Li & Jin, 2020; Phillipson, 1992b; Rajagopalan, 1997).

It also has to be pointed out that EFL teaching emphasizes what makes the language foreign and how as a foreign language it might be taught most effectively. In this context, Widdowson (1994) argues that the focus of attention on the language has to shift from ‘nativeness’ to ‘foreignness’ because NETs are not able to imagine themselves learning English as a foreign language although they have the rich experience of using it as a native language. Seidlhofer (1999, p. 235) also supports NNS teachers when she notes that they share the same mother tongue and culture with learners while also having the linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language, which makes NNS teachers “uniquely suited to be agents facilitating learning by mediating between the different language and cultures through appropriate pedagogy”. Similarly, Phillipson (1992a) and Kirkpatrick (2007b) see the educated local teacher as the ideal teacher of English. What is more, as pointed out in Chap. 1, the well-qualified local Chinese teachers’ spoken English might be more intelligible to Chinese students than the NETs’ English. Besides, as argued in the first paragraph of this section, educating Chinese teachers is more important and

⁸The workload for NETs and LETs are about the same (16–20 teaching hours per week); but the salary for the former ranges from RMB 2, 917 to 5, 029 (US\$ 365–629) per month, which is much higher than that for the latter, from RMB 813 to 2, 342 (US\$ 101–284) (Joen & Lee, 2006).

realistic than seeking NETs from outside if we can expose LETs in China to updated research in ELT and World Englishes so as to make them more capable of teaching University English in the context of globalization.

Based on the above literature, it may be argued that well-educated local teachers of English are able to serve as more successful instructors and coordinators for EFL learners in China than NETs. This argument has more or less been supported by Jin's (2005) research, but this research has its own problems, one of the limitations of Jin's (2005, p. 45) research is that "the small number of participants" makes it hard to "obtain more accurate and richer empirical findings". Hence, this argument should be further studied in this book while investigating the perceptions of teachers and learners of university English toward related issues of China English, World Englishes, and the ideal pedagogic model to follow in China.

2.5 China English: Implications for ELT Reform in China

Although English has been taught in China for more than 60 years and teaching reforms have been continuously carried out by the Ministry of Education (e.g. the introduction of University English Curriculum Requirements in 2004, the Standard of English Curriculum for Senior Secondary Schools in 2017), there are a myriad of tricky problems, long-standing or newly emerged, associated with ELT practices nation-wide. We will begin by elucidating some of these recurrent problems.

First of all, students are tired of their 'test-driven English' and 'dumb English' (Guo & Yin, 2014; He, 2018a). Both popular sayings reflect a widely perceived learning outcome whereby passing multifarious English examinations with flying colors proves much easier compared with expressing oneself fluently and spontaneously with confidence (Liu, 2012; Zheng, 2010). One reason for this problem is that ELT in China has long been examination-oriented with a focus on the native-English-speaker-based standard and lacked any tolerance for the slightest deviation from spoken norms (Wen, 2012a, 2012b). Consequently, few Chinese learners of English manage to attain fluency for fear of making mistakes which, following the mainland's native-speaker-based norms of speaking assessment, may cost them a good grade. Such an obsession for grammatical correctness generates tremendous anxiety before they even open their mouth, thereby stifling any attempt or opportunity to make meaning spontaneously in English, including in low-stake interaction with peers for practice. All these fuel a vicious circle, with insufficient speaking practice as a result as well as the root cause of unidiomatic-sounding verbal outputs, be they assessed or otherwise.

Secondly, the method of ELT is somewhat tedious (Liu, 2012; Shu, 2010, 2013). In other words, ELT in China is generally characterized by teacher-fronted classroom teaching, with minimal encouragement to students' participation, autonomy, and creativity in language learning and exploration. Such a teacher-centered pedagogy is deeply rooted in China's education system and underpinned by traditional cultural values that emphasize respect for authorities, and serve as guidance for normative

behavior in dyadic teacher–student interactions. Although the pedagogical merits of such a teaching method have been critiqued in recent years (e.g., He & Miller, 2011; Shu, 2010), there has been little substantive change to ELT policies and teaching and learning practices. One significant reason is that students' use of English in the workplace as an integral part of their work life and professional development is rarely taken seriously during their undergraduate education. Instead, the ELT curricula of most degree programs are geared toward improving students' four generic skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—in addition to translation (Cai, 2011b; Zheng, 2010).

Thirdly, the ELT curricula cannot satisfy students' diversified needs (Ding & Dai, 2013; Wen, 2012a). Students at schools learn English as a subject in classes with a mixed level of English proficiency. Although most of the university students are grouped into different classes according to their English proficiency to learn the language, increasingly more universities adopt the practice that those who have passed University English Test Band-4 (CET-4) do not need to learn English as a compulsory module, nor are they provided with advanced English programs or English for Specific Purposes (ESP) alike. The current University English Curriculum Requirements introduced in 2004 specify three levels for university graduates: general, higher, and advanced. It is at least the general level that all graduates should arrive at in all the five skills including English listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation (Chinese and English), which is believed to be both impractical and unnecessary, especially for those who are not good at English learning and/or do not need all these five skills in their future career (Wen, 2012a).

Fourthly, English teachers' language proficiency and teaching performance need to be enhanced so as to cater to the needs of ELT reform in China (Liu, 2012; Zheng, 2010). China's overseas direct investment was more than her foreign direct investment for the first time in 2014 (ChinaIRN, 2015). China is practicing her influence not only in economic field but also in many other fields such as culture and education. China has now become the third-largest cultural product exporting country after the UK and US (Wan, 2011a, 2011b) and the third most favored nation by international students following the US and UK (Chhaphia, 2014). However, along with China's continuing economic development and increasing global influence comes also the great need for professionals who are proficient in English, especially in the fields like international laws, international trade, and tourism, and the shortage of such talents has become an obstacle for the country's further economic development (Hu, 2011; Luo, Zheng, Zhang, & Yan, 2014). For example, according to a national survey carried out between 2009 and 2010 to 5,636 urban residents in China, respectively, 22.3 and 35.7% of the participants needed foreign languages (mainly English) and needed to re-learn foreign languages (ibid) in their work (Lu & Zhang, 2012). In this regard, China's English teachers are expected to contribute intensively to the training of such talents in need. Nevertheless, the cohort of English teachers need to improve their own language proficiency and teaching capacity in the first place. Take, for instance, the 61 English teachers who reached the final round out of nearly 10,000 fellow teachers in the First SFLEP (Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press) Cup National University English Teaching Contest in 2010, it was reported

that even many of these teachers demonstrated various deficiencies in their English skills and teaching practices (Shu, 2010).

Fifthly, the assessment system is problematic (Cai, 2011a; He & Zhang, 2010; Zheng, 2010). To date, ELT in China's junior secondary schools is focused on the senior secondary school entrance examination, and ELT in the senior secondary schools then targets at the university entrance examination, and ELT at universities then takes CET-4/6 as its goal since most potential employers still regard CET-4/6 grades as a reference for university graduates' English proficiency. In other words, the whole ELT system is basically examination-oriented. Although many students can pass these examinations, some even with high grades, they are not able to function well in English in their work, especially in terms of speaking and listening (Cai, 2011a; Zheng, 2010).

The above-mentioned issues concerning China's ELT are only the major ones. Almost none of the previous studies in ELT reviewed here was carried out in the context of professional world, except for Lu and Zhang (2012) which focused on the need for foreign languages (mainly English) in their participants' work rather than the actual use of English in the workplace. It is believed that curriculum design or reform of language teaching can only be effective when the actual need analysis in the country/region is taken into consideration (Brown, 1995; West, 1994). For the English pedagogic model in mainland China, we should consider our options by including China's students and teachers opinion since Graeme Kennedy said more than 30 years ago that "it is what the users of the language do, not what a small elite would like them to do which counts in the end" (Quirk, 1985, p. 7).

In addition, scholars hold different opinions about which model(s) to be followed in China's English classrooms. On one hand, it is argued that an NS model (e.g., American English) is preferred by the majority of all stakeholders in China today, especially the education policy-makers and implementers at different governmental levels (Kirkpatrick, 2006a; for details, please see Kirkpatrick, 2006b, 2007a, 2014c, 2017a; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Xu, He, & Deterding, 2017). On the other hand, it is claimed that the choice of China English as a model for the Chinese classroom is not only feasible but can also be desirable, and that such a choice has significant implications for ELT in the Chinese classroom (for details, please see Hu, 2004, 2005; Xu, 2005). All these problems make it rather necessary to have an investigation as comprehensive as possible into the attitudes and perceptions of the attainable and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China on the part of the most direct stakeholders, the teachers, and learners of university English.

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Chapter 3

China English and ELT in China: An Empirical Perspective



This chapter starts with people's understanding of China English as a developing variety. People do not accept a new variety of language automatically, instead, they will get to know its linguistic and social features gradually and then accept it naturally. China English is experiencing such a process as a developing variety of English. Then this chapter deals with some of the issues discussed in Chap. 2 on the basis of results and findings from an empirical study. These issues include: the more desirable pedagogical model for English language teaching (ELT) in China (e.g., whether China English can be considered as part of the pedagogical model for ELT in China), the more appropriate curriculum design concerning China English as a developing variety in Chinese society, and the teacher preference for university English in China. The last section of this chapter reports the different voices on the attitudes of China English from different social groups, for example, teachers, students, government officials, English users in companies. It is expected that findings from these different social groups will provide a fuller picture of the development of China English in Chinese society, and thus help the relevant stakeholders (e.g., government policy-makers, principals, parents, students, teachers, the strategic development departments of the internationally oriented companies) to make more appropriate decisions concerning China English.

3.1 Understanding China English as a Developing Variety

It is generally agreed that China English is still a developing variety, so one intention of this book is to report people's understanding toward this variety. To achieve this purpose, the best research method should be through an empirical study. It is well-known that China's primary and secondary education is university-oriented, which means that as long as the curriculum of English at university level changes, so will the curriculum at lower levels. Therefore, the participants were delimited to teachers and students of university English and their perceptions of China English as well

as the possibility of including it in the existing curriculum for university students in mainland China in the larger context of World Englishes. Teachers and students of university English were selected as the participants because they are the people who are most deeply involved in daily teaching and learning of university English and thus are most closely related to the issues addressed in this book. University students were selected also because they have had at least 6 years of English learning experience and thus are able to understand the research topic better and express their own opinions more clearly than school students. The scope of the participants was further delimited to the non-English majors and their English teachers because English majors in China's universities are expected to graduate with near-native English proficiency (please see Appendix A for more explanation and justification concerning this point and other aspects of research methods of this book).

However, due to practical constraints on research resources, the participants of this study were the representative samples of the non-English majors and their teachers. Ross and Rust (1997, p. 427) argue that the use of a sample often provides the following advantages compared with a complete coverage if the scientific sampling procedures are employed in association with appropriate methods of data analysis:

- Reduced cost associated with obtaining and analyzing the data;
- Reduced requirements for specialized personnel to conduct the fieldwork;
- Greater speed in most aspects of data manipulation and summarization; and
- Greater accuracy due to the possibility of closer supervision of fieldwork and data preparation.

One of the reasons for excluding NETs as the participants of this study is that most of the tertiary institutions in China do not employ them to teach non-English majors. Therefore, it is very difficult to find NET respondents for this research.

Specifically, altogether 1030 participants (820 students and 210 teachers) were involved in the data collection with the instruments of a questionnaire survey and match-guise technique (the useable questionnaires were 984), and one-tenth of them (i.e., $N = 103$) were interviewed. In order to ensure the representativeness of the samples, I endeavored to involve teachers and students of university English from universities of different academic levels and in different geographic regions. The participants were chosen from one key university and three second-tier universities¹ in four provinces or cities (Jiangsu, Hubei, Sichuan, and Beijing, which are located in the eastern, south-central, western, and northern part of China, respectively). Moreover, both these universities and the participants in these universities were randomly selected as long as they fulfilled the requirements mentioned above, which helps to ensure the validity, reliability, and generalizability of the study.

¹By 'key university', I mean the universities under the direct administration of the Ministry of Education in China; there are 75 such universities in China (List of universities, 2020). Consequently, all the other universities in China are classified as 'second-tier universities'.

Table 3.1 Year and gender distribution of the student participants

	Freshmen		Sophomores		Juniors		Seniors		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	177	51.5	114	45.4	46	59.7	74	60.2	411	51.7
Female	167	48.5	137	54.6	31	40.3	49	39.8	384	48.3
Total	344	100	251	100	77	100	123	100	795	100

3.1.1 Participants

All the 795 student participants are homogenous mainland Chinese, ranging in age from 17 to 25 (\bar{x} = 20.6). Among them, 51.7% (411) are male and 48.3% (384) are female. They are students of four disciplines²: Arts (196), Law (194), Business (174), and Engineering (224). Although some of the participants speak Chinese dialects as their first language, all of them can speak Putonghua now. As many as 94.7% (753) of them started to learn English from the age of 10–14, and 99.4% (790) of them had learnt it for more than 6 years. Besides, among the 795 student participants, there were 344 (43.3%) freshmen, 251 (31.6%) sophomores, 77 (9.7%) juniors, and 123 (15.5%) seniors. More Year-1 and Year-2 students were included because they were still taking the course of University English, and therefore easy to access when the data were collected. These participants were considered representative of typical university students in mainland China. The year and gender distribution of the student participants are displayed in Table 3.1.

Among the 189 teacher participants, 77 (40.7%) are male and 112 (59.3%) are female. Their age ranged from 22 to 65 (\bar{x} = 34.4), and they had 5 months to 42 years of English teaching experience (\bar{x} = 10.6). In terms of highest academic qualifications, three (1.6%) of them held a doctorate degree, 150 (79.4%) a master's degree, and 36 (19%) a bachelor's degree. As for the academic rank, two (1.1%) of them were professors, 69 (36.5%) associate professors, 73 (38.6%) lecturers, and 45 (23.8%) teaching assistants. Up to 113 (59.8%) of them taught non-English majors only and 76 (40.2%) taught both English majors and non-English majors. Table 3.2 displays the gender, academic qualification, and position distribution of the teacher participants.

3.1.2 Research Methods

The data reported in this chapter were obtained through triangulated research methods: questionnaire survey, match-guise technique, and interview.

²Students of each discipline study different programs. For example, students of Engineering major in Mechanical Engineering, Electronic Engineering, Material Engineering, Motor Engineering, etc. In this research, they are considered as one group: students of Engineering. There were 7 of the 795 students, who did not report their majors in their questionnaires.

Table 3.2 Gender, academic qualifications, and ranks of the teacher informants

	Doctor		Master		Bachelor		Prof		Associate Prof		Lecturer		TA		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	2	66.7	63	42	12	33.3	2	100	29	42	35	47.9	11	24.4	77	40.7
Female	1	33.3	87	58	24	66.7	0	0	40	58	38	52.1	34	75.6	112	59.3
Total	3	100	150	100	36	100	2	100	69	100	73	100	45	100	189	100

Note TA—Teaching Assistant

On the basis of the previous studies, the questionnaire—*Towards an Ideal English Pedagogic Model for University Students in Mainland China: A Questionnaire Survey*—was constructed so as to find out teachers' and students' perceptions of China English and to explore the possibility of including some of its salient features in the existing English curriculum for China's university students (see Appendix B). I designed the main parts of the questionnaire in bilingual (Chinese and English) form so as to minimize possible misunderstanding of any items caused by a foreign language and provide the participants a better comprehension of the questionnaire since it is easier for them to read in their mother tongue. After the pilot test, the questionnaire was then further developed two versions for student and teacher participants, respectively (see Appendices C and D). These two versions are almost the same except the part concerning necessary personal information and the wording for some items.

In view of the need of triangulating the findings generated from the questionnaire data, match-guise technique was also used. Developed in the 1960s by Wallace Lambert and his associates (Lambert et al., 1960) in Canada, match-guise technique is an indirect research technique that involves asking participants to evaluate the personal qualities of speaker(s) whose voices are recorded, with the same speaker using different linguistic varieties or dialects, but the recordings are disguised so that the listeners do not realize that it is in fact the same reader(s) is/are reading them. The MGT procedure is built on the assumption that speech style can trigger social categorizations that lead to group-related traits (Giles & Coupland, 1991). It should be pointed out that the importance of this technique lies in manipulating the linguistic features of the oral stimulus material, rather than in manipulating the recorded voices, so there should be a total control over the recorded voices with the removal of all features of speed, volume, timbre, tone, etc. In this way, the responses elicited are considered stereotyped reactions toward the language (or the different dialects/varieties of a language) and its related group, rather than toward the voices (Edwards, 1994). Hence, it is very important that the participants should be told clearly that the voices are recorded from different people before they listen to them (see Appendix E for details about the instructions to the participants in the course of data collection). Since its introduction, this technique has been widely used in studies on language attitudes, language proficiency levels, dialects, and accent (e.g., Bilaniuk, 2003; Clopper & Pisoni, 2002; El-Dash & Busnardo, 2001; He, 2007, 2015, 2017b; He & Li, 2009; He & Miller, 2011; He & Zhang, 2010; Lai, 2005, 2007; Lambert, 1967; Thomas, 2002; Zhou, 1999). I read and recorded the short paragraph—Please Call Stella—in both China English and Standardized English (see Appendix G for the text). Then I asked seven professors³ teaching English in Hong Kong's universities to tell me their opinions about the reading. Five of them responded. Among the five, four thought that it sounded like a near-native English speaker's reading, one thought it sounded like the reading of a proficient English

³Four of them are NSs from the UK, USA, and Australia, three are from Hong Kong.

speaker. In other words, they believed that the recording of ‘native-like’ pronunciation could pass as the voice of a native speaker provided the respondents were not informed about it.

The principal method of data collection in this study is the questionnaire survey, but interviews (group and individual) were also commonly made use of as a research instrument. I had interviews with both the teacher and student participants in offices and classrooms on their campus at times convenient to them. Before asking them questions, I explained briefly the purpose of my research and assured them that the data I got from them would only be used for research purpose and their personal information would be kept strictly confidential. In order to make the participants feel easy and minimize the language barrier that might arise when a foreign language is adopted, they were interviewed in Putonghua. The interview questions for the student and teacher interviewees are presented in Appendices F and G, respectively.

In all, three instruments were employed in this research. Since each method has its own inherent limitations, these three instruments are designed to be supplementary to each other. In order to display the design of the research clearly, the procedures of the research are summarized in Fig. 3.1.

3.1.3 Participants’ Understanding of China English as a Developing Variety

This section comprises two subsections. Section 3.1.3.1 reports the results of the analysis of the questionnaire data. Section 3.1.3.2 deals with the findings obtained from the data collected by the match-guise technique. Initial discussions are also given along with the reports of the results in these two subsections.

3.1.3.1 Results of Questionnaire Survey

In the course of reporting the results of the questionnaire survey, the data collected from the questionnaire survey were undergone frequency analysis.

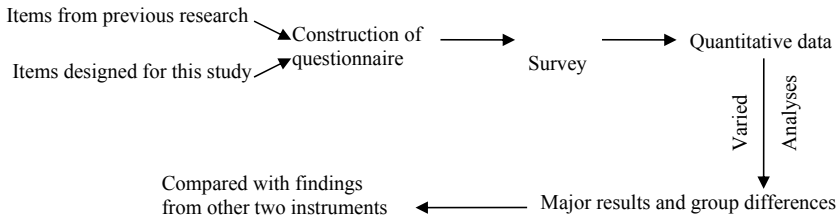
I have heard of World Englishes (Item 1)

I have heard of China English (Item 2)

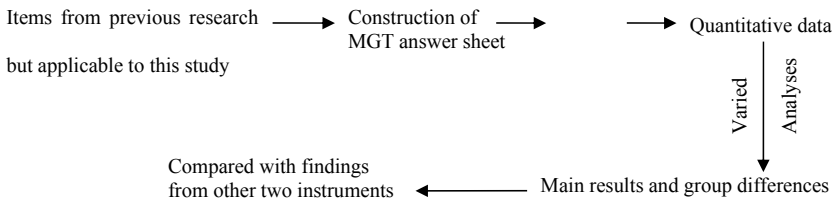
I have heard of ‘Chinese English’ (Item 3)

The results showed that, respectively, 44.7% (440), 51.9% (551), 84.2% (829) of all the participants (N = 984) heard of the three terms (World Englishes, China English ‘Chinese English’), which proves that the non-English majors and their teachers are much more familiar with ‘Chinese English’ than with the first two. The proportion of the students who knew these terms is slightly higher than expected, probably due to the myriad information channels they have to get to know these terms, for example, the Internet. For each of these three terms, there is a larger proportion

Questionnaire Survey



Match-guise technique



Focused Interviews

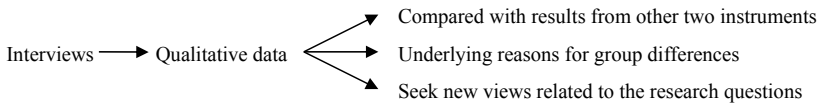


Fig. 3.1 Procedures of the research methods

of teachers than students who heard of it, especially ‘Chinese English’, which was known to 94.7% (179) of the teachers. In addition, the means of the three items were also obtained in order to facilitate further quantitative analysis at a later stage. However, these three items must be dealt with as if they were 2-point Likert scale items since computers can only operate numerical input rather than ‘Yes’ and ‘No’. In other words, ‘Yes’ was coded as ‘0’, and ‘No’ as ‘1’. Table 3.3 shows more detailed information about the frequency distributions and means for these three items.

Tables 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6 show the frequency distributions and means of Items 14–21 for the student sample, teacher sample, and the combined sample, respectively, which will be repeatedly referred to while reporting the results in this section. It should be noted that I collapsed Response 1 (i.e., strongly disagree) and Response 2 (i.e., disagree) as ‘disagree’ and Response 4 (i.e., agree) and Response 5 (i.e., strongly agree) as ‘agree’ while analyzing the results of Items 4–24 of the questionnaire survey.

There are many Standardized Englishes (Item 14)

Table 3.3 Response frequencies (in percentage) and means for Items 1–3

Items	Yes			No			Total Missing	Total Mean
	S ^a	T	Total	S	T	Total		
1. I have heard of World Englishes	42.3 ^b	55.0	44.7	57.5	45.0	55.1	0.2	0.55
2. I have heard of China English	49.2	63.5	51.9	50.6	36.5	47.9	0.2	0.48
3. I have heard of 'Chinese English'	81.8	94.7	84.2	17.7	5.3	15.3	0.4	0.15

Notes ^aS: students (N = 795); T: teachers (N = 189)

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

Table 3.4 Students' response frequencies and means for Items 14–21

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
14. There are many Standardized Englishes	8.7 ^b	13.0	28.4	27.5	21.9	3.41 ^c
15. There will be a variety of English in China one day	14.2	10.7	16.6	27.7	30.8	3.50
16. Like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', China should have its own variety of English	16.7	10.8	16.7	26.3	29.3	3.41
17a. If there will be a variety of English in China like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', it should be called China English	25.5	15.7	16.1	14.7	27.9	3.04
17b. If there will be a variety of English in China like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', it should be called 'Chinese English'	19.2	16.7	15.6	21.9	27.4	3.21
18. 'Chinese English' and China English are the same	39.5	32.7	16.6	6.0	5.0	2.04
19. The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language	2.4	2.8	8.1	38.6	48.2	4.27
20. The variety of English in China should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse	7.9	7.9	16.9	31.1	36.1	3.80
21. Only the variety of English in China can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately	11.6	12.6	19.7	26.4	29.6	3.50

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

Table 3.5 Teachers' response frequencies and means for Items 14–21

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
14. There are many Standardized Englishes	1.6 ^b	8.5	12.2	55.6	21.7	3.88 ^c
15. There will be a variety of English in China one day	10.6	8.5	12.2	46.6	22.2	3.61
16. Like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', China should have its own variety of English	11.1	10.6	18.0	38.1	22.2	3.50
17a. If there will be a variety of English in China like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', it should be called China English	25.4	13.2	7.9	27.5	25.9	3.15
17b. If there will be a variety of English in China like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', it should be called 'Chinese English'	29.1	20.1	7.4	20.1	23.3	2.88
18. 'Chinese English' and China English are the same	42.3	25.4	13.8	11.6	6.9	2.15
19. The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language	3.2	2.1	9.5	42.3	42.9	4.20
20. The variety of English in China should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse	9.0	3.2	17.5	42.9	27.5	3.77
21. Only the variety of English in China can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately	8.5	12.2	19.6	33.9	25.9	3.57

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

More than half of all the participants (54.7%, 539) agreed that there are many Standardized Englishes. Once again, the percentage of the teachers (77.3%) who are positive toward this statement is much larger than that of the students (49.4%). Among the 391 students who chose 4 or 5 for this item, 248 gave examples and most of them provided more than one example. To be more specific, American English was mentioned by 244 students; British English 229; Australian English 17; Indian English 14; Singaporean English 7; Canadian English 6; China English, South African English, and New Zealand English 2; and Japanese English, French English, German English, and Italian English once each. Meanwhile, 98 of the 146 teachers who agreed with this statement gave examples, and again, most of them provided more than one example. Specifically, American English was listed by 95 teachers; British English 90; Canadian English 11; Indian English 9; Singaporean English 9; Australian English 7; and South African English, French English, and New Zealand English once each.

Table 3.7 displays these 'varieties' of English in terms of the frequencies and percentages. The percentages here refer to the results of the frequency of each

Table 3.6 Combined sample's response frequencies and means for Items 14–21

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
14. There are many Standardized Englishes	7.3 ^b	12.1	25.3	32.9	21.8	3.50 ^c
15. There will be a variety of English in China one day	13.5	10.3	15.8	31.3	29.2	3.52
16. Like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', China should have its own variety of English	15.7	10.8	17.0	28.6	27.9	3.42
17a. If there will be a variety of English in China like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', it should be called China English	25.5	15.2	14.5	17.2	27.5	3.06
17b. If there will be a variety of English in China like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', it should be called 'Chinese English'	21.1	17.4	14.0	20.8	26.6	3.14
18. 'Chinese English' and China English are the same	40.0	31.3	16.1	7.1	5.4	2.06
19. The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language	2.5	2.6	8.3	39.3	47.2	4.26
20. The variety of English in China should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse	8.1	7.0	17.0	33.3	34.5	3.79
21. Only the variety of English in China can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately	11.0	12.5	19.7	27.8	28.9	3.51

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to the one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

'variety' of English divided by the respective number of participants who provided (an) example(s) for Item 14 in the questionnaire. For example, students' percentage of American English was obtained by dividing 244 with 248 and then multiplied by 100. Besides, the percentages were all rounded to one digit after the decimal point. The figures in the table indicate that most of the participants still regarded only American English and British English as Standardized English. However, other varieties of English also began to receive more recognition.

There will be a variety of English in China one day (Item 15)

Like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', China should have its own variety of English (Item 16)

Among the 984 participants, 595 (60.5%) believed that there would be a variety of English in China one day, but slightly less participants (56.5%, 556) thought that China should have its own variety of English. One of the reasons might be that they thought English in China is only used internationally. This is unlike 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English' which is used both intranationally and internationally (when

Table 3.7 Examples of different varieties of English and their frequencies of mention

Englishes	Students (N = 248)		Teachers (N = 98)	
	Frequencies	Percentages	Frequencies	Percentages
American English	244	98.4	95	96.9
British English	229	92.3	90	91.8
Australian English	17	6.9	7	7.1
Indian English	14	5.6	9	9.2
Singaporean English	7	2.8	9	9.2
Canadian English	6	2.4	11	11.2
China English	2	0.8	/	/
South Africa English	2	0.8	/	/
New Zealand English	2	0.8	1	1.0
Japanese English	1	0.4	/	/
French English	1	0.4	1	1.0
German English	1	0.4	/	/
Italian English	1	0.4	/	/
African English	/	/	1	1.0

Indians or Singaporeans talking to people from other nations). This reason, however, needs further confirmation from the interview data.

If there will be a variety of English in China like ‘Indian English’ or ‘Singaporean English’, it should be called: (a). China English; (b). ‘Chinese English’ (Item 17)

Overall, there are more participants who chose ‘Chinese English’ (47.4%, 467) than those choosing China English (44.7%, 440). However, up to 49.2% of the teachers, in contrast with 35.9% of the students, rejected ‘Chinese English’ as the name for the possible future variety of English in China. Besides, more than half of the teacher participants (53.4%, 101) are in favor of the name of China English.

‘Chinese English’ and China English are the same (Item 18)

As expected, a majority of the participants (71.3%, 702) did not think that ‘Chinese English’ and China English are the same. The proportion of the students (72.2%, 574) who held this opinion is a little larger than that of the teachers (67.7%, 128).

The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language (Item 19)

The variety of English in China should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse (Item 20)

There are, respectively, 86.5% (851) and 67.8% (667) of the participants who agreed with the two statements. The large percentages are understandable in the sense that all the participants were teaching or learning English as a foreign language in China and they are well aware of the influences of the Chinese language on English

in China. This explanation can be confirmed by the reasons they wrote for Item 25 and the opinions they presented in the interview.

Only the variety of English in China can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately (Item 21)

It is noticeable that 56.7% (558) of the participants agreed with this statement. In other words, most of them believed that only China English can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately. The data of match-guise technique and interviews will further confirm this.

3.1.3.2 Results of Match-Guise Technique (MGT)

The main aim of the present match-guise technique is to capture the subjective reactions of the respondents toward China English and Standardized English. In this section, the means on each trait were presented and compared between these two different ‘varieties’ of English and different groups of participants. It is the differences between the ratings of each variety that I am most interested in. Given all variables controlled, if a respondent gives different ratings to different guises, it will be quite clear that the difference is rendered by the ‘variety’ as marked by accent.

On the whole, the findings of the match-guise technique as displayed in Table 3.8 are found to be consistent with the findings of the questionnaire survey in Sect. 3.1.3.1. It can be seen from Table 3.8 that MANOVA revealed significant differences between China English and Standardized English in the means on 15 out of the 16 traits. To be more exact, Standardized English was given significantly higher ratings than China English on nearly all the positive traits except the one (i.e., patient) showing no significant difference. Nonetheless, Standardized English was given markedly lower ratings than the latter on the two negative traits. Such results indicate that the participants are far more affirmative of Standardized English than to China English.

On the other hand, it should be noted that the subjects in the match-guise experiment are far from being negative toward China English, since their means on all 14 positive traits of China English are above 2 and close to the median 3, and the mean on the trait ‘patient’ (3.13) is even higher than the median and that of ‘Standardized English’ (3.04; see Table 3.8 for details). These results suggest that the subjects’ attitudes toward China English are not so negative. This is compatible with the questionnaire survey finding that select features of China English may be accepted as part of the teaching model in China as to be reported in Sect. 3.2.

To sum up, what has been reported in Sect. 3.1.3 indicates that student and teacher participants have got some knowledge of World Englishes, China English, and Chinese English. Although they still value standardized English more than China English, their general attitudes toward China English is not completely negative. Specifically, most of them (71.3%) did not agree that Chinese English and China English are the same. Approximately 60.5% and 56.5% of all the respondents argued, respectively, that China would or should have its own variety of English. However,

Table 3.8 Means and differences of China English and Standardized English on the 16 traits

Traits		Means	
		China English/Standardized English	Difference
Positive	1. Friendly	2.94/ 3.31	-0.37**
	2. Intelligent	2.83/ 3.17	-0.34**
	3. Educated	2.88/ 3.18	-0.30**
	5. Competent	2.80/ 3.39	-0.59**
	6. Industrious	2.93/ 3.08	-0.15*
	7. Sincere	2.99/ 3.15	-0.16*
	9. Approachable	2.78/ 3.16	-0.38**
	10. Considerate	2.85/ 3.00	-0.15*
	11. Trustworthy	2.92/ 3.11	-0.19*
	12. Wealthy	2.77/ 3.06	-0.29**
	13. Trendy	2.72/ 3.20	-0.48**
	15. Powerful	2.75/ 3.34	-0.59**
	16. Confident	2.79/ 3.64	-0.85**
	14. Patient	3.13 /3.04	0.09
Negative	4. Arrogant	3.01 /2.61	0.40**
	8. Aggressive	3.04 /2.66	0.38**

Note ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

neither of the two proposed names (China English and ‘Chinese English’) as a designated term for the future variety of English in China won support from over 50% of all the participants. What is more, about 86.5% of all the participants believed that the variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language, and 67.8% thought that China’s variety of English should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse pragmatics. In addition, more than half (56.7%) of the 984 participants supported the statement that only the English variety in China can adequately express the content ideas specific to Chinese culture.

3.2 The More Desirable Pedagogical Model for ELT in China

As explained in the Introduction of this book, pedagogical model is closely related to the learning effectiveness of English in China, so this section tries to identify whether the present NS-based variety of Englishes is the reason for the less-than-satisfactory English language learning in China. This section will include two subsections. The first subsection is mainly centered on the results of the quantitative analysis while

the second subsection is focused on a detailed description of the qualitative data. Just like Sect. 3.1.3, initial discussions are also given along with the reports of the results or findings in all three subsections.

3.2.1 Results of Questionnaire Survey

Since sometimes the data from students and teachers will be mentioned separately, the results of their questionnaire survey will also be reported separately in Tables 3.9 and 3.10, respectively, and then combined together in Table 3.11.

British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks.
(Item 4)

Approximately 75.4% (742) of the whole sample reported that British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in their textbooks, and the proportion (87.3%) of the teachers who thought so is higher than that (72.6%) of the students. It should be noted again that I collapsed Response 1 (i.e., strongly disagree) and Response 2 (i.e., disagree) as 'disagree' and Response 4 (i.e., agree)

Table 3.9 Students' response frequencies and means for items related to pedagogical model

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	3.8 ^b	6.9	16.5	29.8	42.8	4.01 ^c
5. I am satisfied with my English learning effectiveness	24.8	34.6	32.2	7.5	0.9	2.25
6. One reason for my low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model	23.1	28.4	20.5	11.3	7.8	2.48
7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning	7.8	13.5	21.6	28.6	28.3	3.56
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker	3.5	3.9	12.5	19.0	61.1	4.30
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	28.2	23.9	21.9	13.1	12.8	2.58
22. Well-defined features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing teaching model	6.7	10.2	21.3	35.2	26.7	3.65
23. The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model	17.6	27.7	29.3	16.0	9.3	2.72

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

Table 3.10 Teachers' response frequencies and means for items related to pedagogical model

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	3.2 ^b	2.6	6.9	26.5	60.8	4.39 ^c
5. I am satisfied with my students' English learning effectiveness	9.0	23.8	37.0	27.0	2.6	2.90
6. One reason for my students' low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model.	25.4	17.5	15.3	9.5	2.6	2.24
7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning	5.3	10.6	16.9	32.8	34.4	3.80
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker	3.2	/	7.4	29.1	60.3	4.43
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	38.6	19.0	19.6	16.9	5.8	2.32
22. Well-defined features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing teaching model	4.8	6.9	22.8	45.0	20.6	3.70
23. The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model	13.2	28.0	26.5	27.5	4.8	2.83

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

and Response 5 (i.e., strongly agree) as 'agree' while analyzing the results of items related to the pedagogical model.

I am satisfied with my (students') English learning effectiveness (Item 5)

One reason for my (students') low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model (Item 6)

We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning (Item 7)

It is not surprising that 54.2% (534) of the whole sample are not satisfied with their (or their students') English learning effectiveness, and only 12.5% (123) of them are satisfied. Just like what was repeatedly argued in Introduction and previous chapters, these participants had spent a lot of time and energy teaching and learning English, but few of these students could use English proficiently, especially when it comes to oral English. However, what is beyond expectation is that among the 87.3% (860) of all the participants who did not report to be satisfied with their (or their students') English learning effectiveness, only 16.8% (175) agreed that the adoption of British English or American English as the pedagogic model is one of the reasons for their (or their students') low learning effectiveness. Indeed, about 58.9% (579) of all the participants insisted on adopting an NS-based model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning, while only 20.2% (199) of

Table 3.11 Combined sample's response frequencies and means for items related to pedagogical model

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	3.7 ^b	6.1	14.6	29.2	46.2	4.08 ^c
5. I am satisfied with my (students') English learning effectiveness	21.7	32.5	33.1	11.3	1.2	2.38
6. One reason for my (students') low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model	23.6	26.3	19.5	11.0	6.8	2.44
7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning	7.3	12.9	20.7	29.4	29.5	3.61
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker	3.5	3.2	11.5	20.9	61.0	4.33
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	30.2	23.0	21.4	13.8	11.5	2.53
22. Well-defined features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing teaching model	6.3	9.6	21.5	37.1	25.5	3.66
23. The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model	16.8	27.7	28.8	18.2	8.4	2.74

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to the one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

them rejected this model. Some explanations for the participants' views can be found in the interviewees' personal accounts in Sect. 3.2.2.

When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker (Item 9)

When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese (Item 10)

About 81.9% (806) of all the participants wanted to sound like an NS while only 25.3% (249) of them want to be identified clearly as Chinese when they speak English, which shows that most of them have a strong desire to speak native-like English, in other words, standardized English. However, it should not be neglected that about one-quarter of the participants still want to keep their identity clearly as Chinese even when speaking English.

Well-defined features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing teaching model (Item 22)

The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model (Item 23)

It is noticeable that 62.6% (616) of the participants agreed with the first statement while only 26.6% (262) agreed with the second one. In other words, although most of them believed that the well-defined traits of the variety of English in China should be

incorporated into the existing teaching model, only about a quarter of them supported the idea that it can replace the existing pedagogic model in China. One explanation might be that China English has not yet been a fully codified and well-established variety of English in the world; hence it cannot replace the present model. The data of match-guise technique reported earlier in Sect. 3.1.3.2 have confirmed this interpretation, which will be further confirmed from the interview data below.

3.2.2 Findings of Interviews

Before I report the results of the interviews, the way that these interviewees are coded must be illustrated. The codes of the interviewees contain the following information in turn:

- Identity (S–student, T–teacher);
- Gender (F–female, M–male);
- The code number as assigned to each questionnaire and MGT answer sheet (for students, from 1 to 820; for teachers, from 1 to 210);
- Discipline for students (B–business, L–law, E–engineering, A–arts) or academic qualification for teachers (B–bachelor, M–master, D–doctor);
- Years for students (1–Year-1, 2–Year-2, 3–Year-3, 4–Year-4) or academic rank for teachers (T–teaching assistant, L–lecturer, A–associate professor, P–professor); and
- University: if the interviewees are from the key university, the letter ‘K’ will be added to the end of the code; if not, nothing is added.

For example, ‘SF64B2’ refers to a female student whose code number on the questionnaire and MGT answer sheet is 64, and she was a Year-2 business major in a second-tier university; ‘TM173BTK’ refers to a male teacher whose code number on the questionnaire and MGT answer sheet is 173, and the highest academic qualification he obtained when interviewed was the bachelor’s degree, and he was then a teaching assistant in the key university.

Are you satisfied with your (students’) English learning effectiveness? (Question 1)

When asked about their general feelings about their (or their students’) English learning effectiveness, most of the students and teachers replied very briefly in a negative way. Some typical answers were: ‘No’; ‘Very unsatisfied’; ‘Certainly not’; and “Not satisfied, especially with oral English”. Only five of them (less than 5%) expressed satisfaction but with obvious reservation: ‘Not so satisfied’, ‘Somewhat satisfied’, “I am satisfied with some (a few) students’ learning”.

If not, what are the reasons for your dissatisfaction? (Question 2)

With regard to the reasons for their (or their students’) low learning effectiveness, most of the interviewees held similar opinions. In brief, the following factors were

identified from their response as the most frequently mentioned reasons (arranged in decreasing order of numerical significance):

- Learning English just as a subject for exams rather than a tool for communication;
- Having little chance to put what they have learnt in English class into practice;
- Learning too much about grammar and vocabulary while overlooking the importance of oral English;
- A lack of conducive environment and atmosphere to practice English skills, particularly speaking skills;
- Having low intrinsic motivation for English study;
- The large class size;
- The fear of speaking English; and
- Having no clear purpose in English study.

Some of the typical replies to this question are presented below (The code number of the interviewee is indicated in the brackets at the end of the quote⁴):

[Example 1] Firstly, I am not interested in English from the beginning. Besides, there is not such an environment that can cultivate my interest in English learning. Thirdly, English listening and speaking were not tested in the national university entrance examinations, thus we did not practice these skills; instead, we just learnt for exams, which made English learning very boring. Fourthly, I do not think it is very important to learn English since we will not use it much if we do not go abroad. (SF64B2)

[Example 2] We do not have chance to put what we have learnt into practice, we learn English for exams rather than for real communication. (SF77E2)

[Example 3] We do not have a good English learning environment and we do not use English after class. In fact, we cannot understand foreigners' words well or speak English freely with them even if we have a chance to communicate with them since we are too poor to understand and speak the language successfully. Moreover, when we speak English, we are afraid of making mistakes and not being able to make ourselves understood, thus we choose not to speak English. (SM271A2)

[Example 4] We lack intrinsic motivation for English learning; in other words, we do not like learning it, and we learn it just for the sake of exams. (SF515L2)

[Example 5] We use English mainly in English class and rarely use it out of class. That is to say, we have too little chance to use it, so when we want to say something in English, usually, we cannot remember the words. (SF690B2K)

[Example 6] Firstly, students have always been asked to learn English grammar, vocabulary, or reading skills, not to practice oral English. They are also afraid of speaking English since they worry about making mistakes. This prevents them from making progress in oral English. Secondly, there are too many students in one English class. It is nearly impossible to have oral practice in big classes because it is very difficult for both the teacher to control and the students to participate. Thirdly, teachers themselves should have chance to improve their teaching skills and English level. Even a NET will not be a good English teacher in China if he does not have rich English subject knowledge and does not know how to teach English as a foreign language. (TF67MT)

⁴As mentioned in Sect. 3.1.2, all the interviews were conducted in Putonghua and then transcribed and translated into English.

[Example 7] Many students do not have deep interest in English and they lack strong intrinsic motivation to learn it well since they do not consider it quite useful in their future jobs. (TF123ML)

On the whole, the informants did not regard the present pedagogic model as a reason for their (or their students') less-than-satisfactory learning effectiveness; in other words, they did not think that setting themselves (or their students) a target as high as Standardized English is one of the contributing factors to the low learning effectiveness. One possible reason for this might be the negative backwash effects of the tests. Many students learn English for the purpose of exams rather than out of intrinsic motivation (see Examples 1, 2, and 4 above). Since the exams are currently NS-based, it is not surprising that they and their teachers feel that rather than being one of the reasons for their unsatisfactory English learning effectiveness, an NS-based model is the appropriate teaching model to follow in the classroom. This is also why Li (2006b) argues that the criteria of assessment should also be changed along with the reform of teaching model and curriculum design. Among the 103 interviewees, however, 2 did mention that Standardized English as the teaching model might be a reason. The following is one argument of this opinion:

[Example 8] On one hand, students do not spend enough time learning English. On the other hand, teachers, consciously or unconsciously, infuse students with Standardized English, and tend to place much more emphasis on accuracy than on fluency of their students' output of English, which leads to students' fear of making mistakes when using the language. Many of them just dare not open their mouth and speak English. As a result, they cannot improve their English skills very effectively. (TM20DP)

Although these two informants did not mention explicitly that the teaching model is one of the reasons, they did suggest that Chinese teachers tend to regard Standardized English as the goal of English learning and Chinese students fail to speak fluent English partly due to their worry about their English being too poor to be 'standard'.

Is pedagogic model a reason for your (students') low learning effectiveness? Why or why not? (Question 3)

Since most of the interviewees did not mention teaching model as a reason for the low learning effectiveness, I had to probe further whether they considered the target of Standardized English was too hard to be attained and thus made students lose interest in learning English. Moreover, in order to probe into their attitudes toward Standardized English as the teaching model, I also asked them their opinions about the necessity and possibility of going on adopting British and American English as the model for teaching university English in China.

To this question, about three-fifths (62) of the interviewees (N = 103) provided negative answers saying that in spite of the adoption of Standardized English as the teaching model, they never or seldom required themselves (or their students) to attain a proficiency level of Standardized English. Some students even argued that even if they were required to arrive at such a target, it was not a reason for their unsatisfactory learning effectiveness. They would only work harder toward Standardized English if they were told that their English was not standard. It seems that the target of

Standardized English can sometimes serve as a source of motivation in English study. The following are some of the representative responses to this question:

[Example 9] No. We have never thought about such a model [i.e., NS model] in our learning, in other words, we do not realize the existence of such a standard. Thus, we cannot tell clearly its effects on our English study even if it is indeed one of the reasons for our low learning effectiveness. (SF408L1)

[Example 10] No, because we are always taught according to such a standard and we are trying to arrive at this target. Besides, I think I like NSs' English a lot, especially when I watch English movies. (SF548L2)

[Example 11] No. I think one's English will become better sooner or later so long as he/she works hard at it. If we have worked hard but our English is still not so good, we will only work harder. (SF690B2K)

[Example 12] No, because we do not require that our students must arrive at the level of Standardized English. Their interlanguage, Chinese English, is also acceptable if they fail to attain Standardized English. (TF36MA)

[Example 13] No. I seldom ask my students to arrive at a certain standard and I think few students, consciously, work for the target of Standardized English. (TM102BL)

To those students who did not look upon the present teaching model as one of the reasons for their low learning effectiveness, two more questions were posed. One is whether they would be afraid of making mistakes while speaking English, and most of them said 'yes'. The other is how they judged if they were right or wrong while speaking English, and nearly all of them confessed that they would compare what they said with Standardized English. However, most of them did not feel that the worry about making mistakes would dampen their interest in English learning. Instead, they would only pay more effort in their study so that they can speak the language perfectly one day. Only approximately one-tenth of them changed their mind and agreed that teaching model might be a reason for their poor learning effectiveness. One example of the typical responses is cited below:

[Example 14]

Interviewer (I): Are you afraid of making mistakes while speaking English?

SF408L1 (S): Yes, since others may not be able to understand me if I make too many mistakes.

I: Against what do you judge what you say in English as right or wrong?

S: Huh...

I: Do you compare what you say with Standardized English?

S: Yeah.

I: Then will such comparison with Standardized English make you not so confident about your own English and then lose some interest in English learning?

S: No. It will only make me realize that I should work harder at English to learn it better.

About one-fifth (19, and 14 of the 19 are male) of all the interviewees ($N = 103$) agreed, albeit with some reservation, that having Standardized English as the pedagogic model might be a reason for their (or their students') low learning effectiveness. Below are the typical examples of this view:

[Example 15] It is possible that we may lose interest in English learning because the target of Standardized English is by no means practical, but this is not the main reason. In most cases, we lose interest just because we cannot catch up with our classmates, not because we cannot achieve the level of Standardized English. (SM123E3)

[Example 16] It is somewhat reasonable, but it is by no means the main reason since we, as teachers, never ask them to attain the level of Standardized English. (TM11ML)

[Example 17] It is sensible to some extent since Standardized English is really hard for non-English majors to attain. (TF52ML)

The rest one-fifth (21, again, 14 of the 21 are male) of the interviewees ($N = 103$) believed that the existing teaching model had been one of the reasons for their (or their students') unsatisfying English learning effectiveness. Among them, there were more student interviewees than teachers. Below are some typical responses in this regard:

[Example 18] Yes, I have lost interest in English learning because I could not speak English perfectly. (SM132E3)

[Example 19] I have the same feeling as him [the student as shown in Example 18]. Many of us once practiced English in our dorms but finally stopped doing so because we found our English was mostly in fragments and full of errors. (SM113E3)

[Example 20] Yes, that is what I felt while learning English. At first, I tried very hard, but after a while I found I could not learn English as well as required by the teachers and curriculum. Thus gradually, I lost interest in English learning, and now my English is rather poor. (SF544L2)

[Example 21] It can be a reason since we were taught and have also taught our students according to Standardized English, but most of the students of university English will not be able to arrive at such a standard, gradually, they may lose interest in English, and their English learning will thus be affected. (TF67MT)

Is it necessary and practical if we go on adopting British or American English as the model for teaching of university English in China? Why or why not? (Question 4)

Based on their responses to the first three questions, it can be concluded that most of the interviewees were unsatisfied with their (or their students') English learning effectiveness and meanwhile, the majority of them did not regard the teaching model as one of the reasons. Therefore, it is natural that most of them would still insist on adopting Standardized English (e.g., British or American English) as the pedagogic model for university English in mainland China. Some of them even believed that their (or their students') learning would be less effective if China English was chosen as the teaching model. On the other hand, although they were striving for the level of Standardized English, they were aware of the difficulties in achieving this level, so they could also accept the reality if their (or their students') English was not so standard. Some positive replies to Question 4 above are as follows:

[Example 22] Yes, since they (British English and American English) are Standardized English, and as a pedagogic model, they must be at a comparatively high level that can only be attained with continuous efforts. It will be meaningless if it is easily attainable. (SM46E1)

[Example 23] Yes. If we have to learn English, we still hope to learn Standardized English although it is difficult. (SM148E4)

[Example 24] Standardized English can guarantee efficient communication and avoid misunderstanding resulting from different varieties of English. This is just like Putonghua, the more standard, the better. (SF533L2)

[Example 25] Yes, because we need a standard, and China English is not a well-established and promoted variety of English and it needs to be fully codified. (TF17BT)

[Example 26] Yes, since they are the standard that we can rely on. But I will not ask my students to reach this standard, we just strive for it. It is OK if they cannot arrive at this target, but they should be able to communicate in English. (TM173BTK)

There were, however, about one-fourth (25) of the interviewees ($N = 103$) arguing that it was unnecessary for them (or their students) to adopt Standardized English as the target of their (or their students') English learning as long as they can communicate freely in English with others. About the possibility of acquiring Standardized English, these interviewees thought it was theoretically possible but practically impossible since they (or their students) were not English majors and they (or their students) had many other subjects to learn apart from English. The following are some representative comments:

[Example 27] No, we do not need to attain the level of Standardized English as long as we can communicate in English with others. (SF77A1)

[Example 28] No, If only we can communicate in English, we do not need to make our English so standard. For example, I know some Indians in Shanghai, their English is not standard, but they can communicate effectively. (SF435L1)

[Example 29] It is possible but not necessary for non-English majors to arrive at the level of Standardized English. If they can communicate with foreigners in English or read English materials, the main purpose of English learning is fulfilled. What is more, in China, English is needed more in reading rather than in speaking. (TF145ML)

If you can choose the pedagogic model for teaching of university English in China, which one(s) would you choose: China English, the standard British/American English, or the Lingua Franca English? Why? (Question 5)

Since many of the interviewees might be not so familiar with Lingua Franca English or English as Lingua Franca (ELF), I explained its connotation to all the interviewees in Putonghua (i.e., the language used in all the interviews in this book) while asking them the above question. That is, Lingua Franca English refers to English as a global language rather than Standardized English, which is widely used by NNSs from different nations in the world to communicate with each other, without (in most cases) or with the participation of NSs. "The target model of English, within the ELF framework, is not a native speaker but a fluent bilingual speaker, who retains a national identity in terms of accent, and who also has the special skills required to

negotiate understanding with another non-native speaker” (Graddol, 2006, p. 87). In Putonghua, it is ‘作为全球共同语的英语’ (Zuò wéi quán qiú gòng tóng yǔ de yīng yǔ, literally, ‘As global common language English’).

When asked their choice of the pedagogic model for teaching university English in China, most of the interviewees selected Standardized English. Most of the reasons they provided fell into one of the following six (they are presented in decreasing order of statistical significance):

- The ‘variety’ of English in China would finally become unintelligible to foreigners if China English were adopted as the teaching model at this stage of its development;
- China English has not been well-codified and promoted;
- Standardized English ensures better communication;
- China does not have the social foundation to adopt her own variety of English as the teaching model like India or Singapore;
- The teachers and students have got used to Standardized English as the teaching model; and
- Pedagogic model should be a target that can be fulfilled only through arduous work, or it would be meaningless.

However, most of the interviewees who chose Standardized English also admitted that students’ near-Standardized-English or even China English is acceptable provided they can communicate in English with others in view of the enormous difficulties in achieving the level of true Standardized English. The following excerpts illustrate the above opinions:

[Example 30] I choose Standardized English because if we choose China English as our teaching model, our English might go too far from Standardized English and become unintelligible to the speakers of other varieties of English. You know, we cannot attain Standardized English but something like China English even when we choose the former as the pedagogic model, then what will our English be like if we choose China English as our model? (SM23E1)

[Example 31] I will still choose Standardized English because China is different from India and Singapore where English exists as one of the official languages used by many people and thus it is possible to form their own English varieties. English teaching and use in China, however, are still at a very low level, so it is hard for China to form her own English variety. (SM212A1)

[Example 32] [I choose] Standardized English, preferably American English, since China English is something that we will naturally arrive at when we are approaching Standardized English, we do not need to consider it as a pedagogic target. Besides, China English is still on the way of development; it has not been well codified. (SF254A1)

[Example 33] I will choose Standardized English since we are used to it and it can ensure better and wider communication. (SM262A1)

[Example 34] [I choose] Standardized English, since we need English mainly for international communication and Standardized English enables us to communicate with people from all over the world more effectively. If NNSs from different countries all speak their own variety of English, there will be misunderstandings. (SM744B2K)

[Example 35] I do not know which one to choose, but I will choose the one that can ensure better communication. My intuition tells me it will be Standardized English although we might not be able to attain it. It should be acceptable if students cannot arrive at this target, as long as they can communicate in English. In other words, I do not mind whether my students' English is standard or not for the purpose of communication. (TM66DP)

[Example 36] [I choose] Standardized English, for China English might hinder effective communication. Besides, a pedagogic model should be something that students can arrive at only with very hard work. The model will be meaningless if the students can easily attain the target, say, China English. (TM135MA)

[Example 37] I will choose Standardized English although students might not be able to arrive at this target. I hope their English can come to a near-native standard, that is, they produce less and less Chinglish and become more and more like NSs. According to the theory of language acquisition, it is nearly impossible for them to arrive at the Standardized English level. And practically, it is unnecessary to arrive at such a level. But I also worry if different countries have their own English varieties, it is likely that their English will finally become unintelligible to each other. So if we really want to adopt China English, it must, first of all, be fully codified and promoted. (TF161BL)

Some of the informants who chose Standardized English were followed by the question about which variety is easier for China's English learners to acquire, China English or Standardized English, nearly all of them agreed that China English would be easier to arrive, but they would still choose Standardized English as the teaching model for one of the reasons mentioned above or some other trivial reasons. The following is a representative excerpt of the question and corresponding response:

[Example 38]

Interviewer: Do you agree that China English is easier to acquire for China's learners of English when compared to Standardized English?

SF254A1: Yes, it is easier, especially in terms of oral English. But as for the choice of the pedagogic model, I will still choose Standardized English since it will help me know English culture better.

Most of these informants were also asked whether they thought it was possible to incorporate some of the salient and well-codified traits of China English into the teaching model together with Standardized English. Nearly all of them gave a positive answer since they realized that they were learning or teaching English in China and China's English learners cannot be free from the cross-linguistic influences from the Chinese language. Besides, they knew that some content ideas specific to Chinese culture can only be adequately expressed with China English. They also generally believed that China English was somewhat easier to acquire when compared to Standardized English. Two representative replies to this question are quoted below:

[Example 39]

Interviewer: Then can China English be introduced as part of the pedagogic model together with British English and American English?

SM212A1: Yes, it can. Since we are learning English in China, our English is certainly subject to the influences of our native language, Chinese.

TM66DP: I think the answer should be "yes", because our students might find China English easier to acquire than Standardized English. Besides, there are times when only China English can be used to adequately express the content ideas specific to Chinese culture.

It should not be neglected that about 20% (17, and all were from second-tier universities and ten of them were students of Year-3 and Year-4) of the student interviewees (N = 82) and about 10% (2) of the teacher interviewees (N = 21) selected China English as the pedagogic model on condition that it had been well codified and promoted since they believed it would be easier for China's English learners. What is more, they did not think it is necessary for them (or their students) to acquire Standardized English since many of the students do not need to communicate in English with foreigners; even if they do, the interlocutors will not necessarily be NSs. Nonetheless, they emphasized that there should be some commonly shared standards among different varieties of English, or else they would become totally unintelligible to each other one day. Some typical examples are provided below:

[Example 40] I will choose China English since it might be easier for Chinese learners. But first of all, China English must be well codified and promoted. (SM147E4)

[Example 41] I will choose China English. Firstly, it is impossible for us to speak English like a NS since we Chinese people have spoken a different language for thousands of years, our vocal organs might be different, which makes it very hard to pronounce some English phonemes. In addition, it is also unnecessary for us to speak English like NSs since we will use English to communicate mainly with NNSs not NSs, the NSs account for only a small portion of the people with whom we need to communicate in English. But there should be a global standard; otherwise the varieties of English in different nations will become incomprehensible one day. (SM201A1)

[Example 42] For oral English, I will choose China English. As far as the students can communicate in English with others, they do not need to speak Standardized English; besides, it is nearly impossible for most of them to arrive at the level of Standardized English. But for written English, I think they should still stick to Standardized English since it is the requirement of international academic journals. (TM22MA)

[Example 43] I choose China English because it might be easier for Chinese learners when compared to Standardized English, and it can also help to retain and spread Chinese culture. To Chinese learners, the most difficult part of learning Standardized English lies in its pronunciation and intonation. Some phoneticians argue that some of our articulatory organs might have degenerated since we had not used them for a long time, and some sounds, like dental fricatives, do not exist in Chinese, therefore, it is very hard for Chinese learners to pronounce them accurately. Even if we try very hard, we can only make our pronunciation near the standard one. (TF145ML)

Only three (2.9%) interviewees (N = 103) chose Lingua Franca English as the teaching model because they thought such a model will enable better communication between English speakers from different nations, particularly between NNSs who are nowadays the majority of English users. The interviewees who did not choose Lingua Franca English thought that it has neither the advantages of Standardized English nor those of China English as mentioned earlier. Two typical examples of these opinions are presented below:

[Example 44] I will choose Lingua Franca English. We do not need to be so standard because our purpose is for communication, and what is more, there are more NNSs than NSs now, and Lingua Franca English might be easier and more convenient for we NNSs to acquire and communicate. (SM113E3)

[Example 45] Standardized English, since China English has not been well-codified and Lingua Franca English is neither easier to acquire for China's English learners nor can it ensure free communication comparing to Standardized English. (TF123ML)

What would be a more desirable model of English for students in mainland China in your opinion? (Question 6)

The informants' responses to this question are in accord with those to Question 5. Most of them thought of Standardized English as the more desirable teaching model for China's non-English majors. However, what is noticeable is that 3 of the 21 teachers described the more desirable pedagogic model in China as the one in which Standardized English plays the role of the nexus (cf. Widdowson, 1997, 2003), supplemented by the well-codified and promoted traits of China English. They argued that this combined model may help make English learning easier for Chinese students and ensure intelligibility at the same time since students will be more confident in English learning and meanwhile they will still observe the rules of Standardized English in their English output. Nonetheless, according to these three teachers, the prerequisite for the adoption of such a model is that the features of China English must be well identified and free from social stigma; that is, they should be acceptable for the purposes of communication and English language assessment. On the whole, the model they proposed is quite similar to the 'Standardized English plus' model suggested by Li (2006a). The following is one example of these three teachers' proposition:

[Example 46] Personally, I think it might be a better choice if we can combine Standardized English and China English together. That is to say, we will consider Standardized English as the target of our teaching, but we can also accept students' Chinese way of English speaking, including their pronunciation and some phrases and expressions they use, since it is really hard for them to speak English totally free from the cross-linguistic influences of the Chinese language. Of course, their Chinese way of English speaking, or China English as you said, must be well-codified and accepted internationally to some degree. One of the merits of this model lies in the fact that China English might be easier for China's English learners to acquire. Besides, students will be more self-confident and relaxed when speaking English if they know they do not necessarily need to speak it as rigidly as in Standardized English just like American or British people, and it is ok for them to speak in a Chinese manner. (TF55BL)

In conclusion, of all the questionnaire respondents, about 75.4% considered that British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in their textbooks. Consequently, when speaking English, up to 81.9% of them preferred to sound like an NS whereas only 25.3% wanted to be identified clearly as Chinese. Moreover, most of the participants (79.6%) believed that the NNSs can also speak Standardized English. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers and learners of university English, on the whole, are still in favor of adopting Standardized English (most probably, British or American English) as the pedagogic model for university English in China. Nevertheless, at the same time, 75.8% of the questionnaire respondents noted that intelligible oral English with a Chinese accent is also acceptable in international communication. The findings of the match-guise technique and interviews are consistent with those of the questionnaire survey. The participants in

the match-guise technique were found to be far more positive toward Standardized English than to China English (see Sect. 3.1.3.2 for more details). Besides, about 78.6% (81) of the interviewees (N = 103) expressed a preference for British or American English as the teaching model for university English in China. The rest of the interviewees, however, argued that it was unnecessary for them (or their students) to aim at Standardized English in English learning as far as they can communicate freely with others in English. Even those who were in favor of Standardized English admitted that it was very hard for them (or their students) to attain this level, hence their (or their students') not-so-Standardized English was still acceptable while striving for Standardized English.

As for whether the pedagogic model is a reason for Chinese students' less-than-satisfactory English learning effectiveness, the results of the questionnaire survey indicate that although most of the participants (87.3%) were not satisfied with their (or their students') English learning effectiveness, only 20.3% of them agreed that the adoption of Standardized English as the pedagogic model was one reason for their (or their students') less-than-satisfactory learning effectiveness. The results of the questionnaire survey can again be cross-validated indirectly by those of the match-guise technique (see Sect. 3.1.3.2) and directly by the findings of the interviews. On one hand, the MGT participants showed a very affirmative attitude toward Standardized English, which, to some degree, indicates their advocacy of Standardized English as a model of English. On the other hand, about three-fifths (62) of the interviewees (N = 103) did not consider the teaching model as a reason for their (or their students') low English learning effectiveness. Instead, some other reasons were identified according to these interviewees' responses, such as learning English simply as a subject for exams rather than as a communicative tool, and the lack of authentic environment to facilitate the development of various English skills, especially speaking skills. Meanwhile, most of the interviewees still regarded Standardized English (e.g., American English or British English) as the more desirable pedagogic model for teaching university English in China. Only 3 teacher interviewees out of 21 (see Example 46 above for details) held a different view and they recommended another teaching model that is rather similar to 'Standardized English plus' as proposed by Li (2006a), which is based on Standardized English and supplemented by the features of China English.

When it comes to whether China English can be introduced as part of the pedagogic model together with British English and American English, though only 26.6% of the questionnaire respondents believed that the variety of English in China can replace the existing pedagogic model, 62.6% of them advocated incorporating its salient and well-codified features into the existing model. In addition, the participants' tolerant attitude toward oral English with a Chinese accent also implies the possibility of introducing selecting features of China English as part of the pedagogic model together with Standardized English. Once again, the questionnaire survey results summarized here can be triangulated by those of the match-guise technique and interviews. Although the MGT informants are comparatively more positive toward Standardized English, they are far from being totally negative toward China English since their means on all the 14 positive traits of China English are all above '2' and close to the

median '3', and one of the means (i.e., the mean on the trait 'patient') is even higher than the median and that of Standardized English (see Table 3.8 for details). Considering that the choices of all these traits were designed in the form of a 5-point Likert scale, the results like the above signified these respondents' not-so-negative attitudes toward China English. Such attitudes suggest that some salient features of China English, to some extent, may be accepted as part of the teaching model in China. Furthermore, as reported earlier in this section (see Example 39 and the paragraph in front of it for details), even the interviewees who preferred Standardized English as the teaching model espoused the introduction of China English into the current pedagogic model for teaching of university English in China for various reasons discussed earlier in this section. That is, firstly, they agreed that they were learning or teaching English in China and Chinese learners are bound to be cross-linguistically influenced by the Chinese language. Secondly, they argued that only China English can fully deliver some content ideas specific to Chinese culture. Furthermore, comparing to Standardized English, most of them thought that it was more or less easier for Chinese learners to acquire China English.

3.3 Curriculum Design Concerning China English

A successful curriculum design will need to consult opinions from various stakeholders, especially teachers and students of the curriculum. This section will report students' and teachers' opinions concerning the curriculum design of university English in terms of China English and World Englishes.

3.3.1 *Results of Questionnaire Survey*

Tables 3.12, 3.13, and 3.14 show the frequency distributions and means of items related to curriculum design from the questionnaire survey for the student sample, teacher sample, and the combined sample, respectively. As in Sects. 3.1.3 and 3.2.1, I collapsed Response 1 (i.e., strongly disagree) and Response 2 (i.e., disagree) as 'disagree', and Response 4 (i.e., agree) and Response 5 (i.e., strongly agree) as 'agree' while analyzing the results of these items.

In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English (Item 11)

The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English (Item 12)

Overall, most of the participants are affirmative toward these two statements: 75.8% (746) and 79.6% (783), respectively. The teacher participants are especially positive toward them: 94.8% (179) and 94.1% (178), respectively, and only 2.6% (5) of the teachers expressed disagreement. These results can be explained by the fact

Table 3.12 Students' response frequencies and means for items related to curriculum design

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English	4.0	7.2	17.5	38.4	33.0	3.89
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English	3.1	4.4	16.1	28.8	47.3	4.13
13a. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers	11.6	18.4	21.9	28.1	20.0	3.27
13b. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with other non-native English speakers	7.7	13.6	25.7	32.1	20.8	3.45
24. Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in university English	6.8	11.1	21.4	34.7	26.0	3.62

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

Table 3.13 Teachers' response frequencies and means for items related to curriculum design

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English	2.6	/	2.6	39.2	55.6	4.45
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English	0.5	2.1	3.2	40.7	53.4	4.44
13a. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers	13.8	25.9	22.8	22.8	14.8	2.99
13b. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with other non-native English speakers	11.1	10.6	19.6	37.6	21.2	3.47
24. Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in university English	9.5	10.1	16.4	39.7	24.3	3.59

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

that teachers have more experience in communicating with English and they have a better understanding of the related knowledge.

Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with: (a). native English speakers; (b).other non-native English speakers (Item 13)

Table 3.14 Combined sample's response frequencies and means for items related to curriculum design

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English	3.8	5.8	14.6	38.5	37.3	4.00
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English.	2.6	4.0	13.6	31.1	48.5	4.19
13a. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers	12.0	19.8	22.1	27.0	19.0	3.21
13b. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with other non-native English speakers	8.3	13.0	24.5	33.1	20.8	3.45
24. Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in university English	7.3	10.9	20.4	35.7	25.7	3.62

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to the one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

Almost 46% (453) of the participants agreed with Choice *a* whereas 31.8% (303) disagreed with it. For choice *b*, about 53.9% (531) of them are for it while 21.3% (210) against it. It should be pointed out again that teacher and student participants held significantly different points of view on the first choice. About 48.1% of the student informants agreed that most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with NSs while 30% of them disagreed with this choice, however, the two figures for the teachers are 37.6% and 39.7%, respectively. Put it another way, considerably more students thought that most Chinese need English to communicate with NSs (refer to Tables 3.12 and 3.13 above for more detailed numerical information).

Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in university English (Item 24)

To some extent, the questionnaire data on this statement turned out to accord with the book author's expectation that students should be informed of salient features of China English and other varieties of English besides learning Standardized English at university, since about 61.4% (604) of the participants are positive toward this item.

Student A: 'I can pronounce English just like a native speaker now. Sometimes people think I am a native speaker.'

Student B: 'I can pronounce English clearly now. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I still have the accent of my country.'

Please fill in the blank with A or B; I would prefer to be like Student _____. (Item 25)

It can be seen from Table 3.15 that 55.4% (545) of the participants would prefer (their students) to be like Student B, which suggests that more than half of them did

Table 3.15 Response frequencies (in percentage) and means for Item 25

Item	A			B			Total Missing	Total Mean
	S	T	Total	S	T	Total		
25. I would prefer (my students) to be like Student A/B	41.6	56.6	44.5	58.2	43.4	55.4	0.1	0.55

Notes S: students (N = 795); T: teachers (N = 189)

not mind (their students) speaking English with the accent of their mother tongue as long as they (their students) can communicate in English with others. Almost 83% (660) of the students and 43.9% (83) of the teachers provided reasons for their choices to Items 25–26. Some of them wrote more than one reason for one or both of the two questions (see Appendix H for more details of their reasons). The total means for Items 25 and 26 were also calculated and displayed in Tables 3.15 and 3.16 for later comparison in Sect. 3.5. Nevertheless, since computers can only operate numerical input instead of letters like ‘A’ and ‘C’, for the purpose of obtaining the mean for Item 25, choice ‘A’ was coded as 0, and ‘B’ as 1. For Item 26, ‘C’ was coded as 0, ‘D’ as 1, and ‘E’ as 2.

Approximately 50.1% (273) of the 545 participants who chose Student B argued that English is just a tool for communication, and therefore it is unnecessary for them (or their students) to pronounce English like an NS as long as both NSs and NNSs can understand them. Besides, about 34.9% (190) of them have a strong language identity, that is, they want (their students) to be identified as Chinese while communicating with foreigners in English. Another main reason for them to choose Student B is that they (18.3%, 100) believed that English learners’ pronunciation cannot be free from the cross-linguistic influence of their mother tongue, Chinese.

Student C: ‘I can say everything that I want to say. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I use English my own way and sometimes I say things which native speakers think are grammar mistakes.’

Student D: ‘I know all the grammar rules I need so that I can say anything I want. I use these rules correctly, but sometimes English people use grammar that isn’t in the grammar books and I don’t want to learn this.’

Student E: ‘I use all the grammar rules that native speakers use, even the informal grammar native speakers use when they speak to each other.’

Please fill in the blank with C, D or E; I would prefer to be like Student____. (Item 26)

It can be seen from Table 3.16 that 46.1% of the informants preferred (their students) to be like Student E, which implies that nearly half of them hoped that they (or their students) could master English grammar well, including the informal grammar.

Among the 454 participants who selected Students E, 248 (54.6%) believed that speaking English like Student E can guarantee free/better/more effective communication since knowing more informal grammar can help avoid misunderstanding or

Table 3.16 Response frequencies (in percentage) and means for Item 26

Item	C			D			E			Total Missing	Total Mean
	S	T	Total	S	T	Total	S	T	Total		
26. I would prefer (my students) to be like Student C/D/E	28.8	28.6	28.8	24.9	24.9	24.9	46.0	46.0	46.6	0.2	1.17

Notes S: students (N = 795); T: teachers (N = 189)

embarrassment on certain occasions. In addition, 74 (16.3%) thought that they hoped (their students) to learn Standard/perfect/good English if they had to learn it.

3.3.2 Findings of Interviews

Should we learn/teach the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in teaching of university English? Why or why not? (Question 8)

In accordance with the findings of the questionnaire survey, about 70% (72, and most of them are male) of all the interviewees (N = 103) agreed that the well-codified features of China English and other varieties of English in addition to Standardized English should be included in teaching of university English. The reasons they provided include: first, students can have a basic understanding of different varieties of English, which will help to maintain their interest in English learning. Second, students might have contacts with people from different nations in their future careers, so if they know some traits of different varieties of English, communication will be more effective. Some teachers (e.g., Example 49) went further that even some content areas specific to Chinese culture can also be incorporated into textbooks. Nevertheless, they also pointed out that students should not be tested on these traits, or else, it would be an unnecessary burden to them. Some excerpts of these views are as follows:

[Example 47] We can know more about English and the world if we are provided with some information on these characteristics, but we should not be assessed in this aspect, otherwise it would take us too much time. It can also be offered as an elective course. (SM262A1)

[Example 48] Yes. It would be interesting, but we should not spend too much time and be tested on these traits. (SM651B1K)

[Example 49] Yes, in this case, students can know more about English and may become more interested in it. Besides, we can even include some teaching materials concerning Chinese cultures into our textbooks in addition to English cultures so that students might be able to learn Chinese culture through English, which helps enhance their interest in English learning. However, they should not be given tests on these features, or else it would be a heavy burden on them. (TF85ML)

[Example 50] Of course, it is necessary to do so since students might be in contact with people from various nations in English after graduation, but we do not need to assess them in terms of these varieties of English except the standard ones. (TM155MA)

However, it should not be ignored that 30% (31, with the females as the majority) of the interviewees (N = 103) argued that it was unnecessary to incorporate the traits of China English and other varieties of English into the present curriculum of university English. The reasons supporting their argument are (again, arranged in decreasing order of statistical significance):

- It is enough and no easy job to learn Standardized English well;

- There are already many courses for students to engage in;
- Students may feel confused with the presence of many different varieties of English; and
- Not all students need such knowledge in the future and those who need it can learn it themselves.

Below are two instances of such opinion:

[Example 51] No. American and British cultures, especially the former, are so influential nowadays in the whole world, so it is enough as long as we can communicate with foreigners in Standardized English. Besides, we have already got a lot to learn, and we might get confused if we are presented too many varieties of English. (SF286E3)

[Example 52] No, since this will put an unnecessary and heavy burden on students. Moreover, students might be confused if taught too many varieties of English. (TF184MAK)

To conclude, the three research instruments, to some degree, provided coherent findings to the curriculum design of university English in terms of China English and World Englishes since the questionnaires and interviews generated highly consistent results while the match-guise technique yielded somewhat different conclusions even though they are not in substantial agreement with the former findings. More specifically, 61.4% of the questionnaire respondents agreed that university students should be taught select salient features of China English and other varieties of English in addition to British English and American English. This view was shown by 70% (72) of the interviewees (N = 103). Also, it was revealed that the MGT informants were not opposed to China English in spite of being fond of Standardized English (see Sect. 3.1.3.2 for more details).

3.4 Teacher Preference for University English in China

Nowadays, modern technology has turned our world into a small village. The Internet is relied upon to help us with our daily lives: from food shopping to learning languages. However, even with the sophisticated advances in Internet technology, classroom teaching still remains the main way for people to learn English as a foreign language (Horwitz, 2008). With the ever-increasing number of students learning English, a debate has arisen over who can do a better job of teaching English in the classroom: local non-native-speaking English teachers or native-speaking English teachers (cf. Carless, 2006a). This debate has surfaced in several East Asian countries/regions, where native-English speaking teachers are employed within the primary, secondary, and tertiary school systems, for example, in Japan (McConnell, 2000), Hong Kong (Carless, 2006b), China (He & Miller, 2011; Li & Jin, 2020), Turkey (Duru, 2020), and Korea (Joen, 2009). The issue of teacher selection is of special significance in China as non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers of English by a wide margin (Li, 2007b), and more importantly, the demand for learning English in China is huge—China is believed to have the largest

English-learning and -using population in the world (e.g., Bolton, 2003; Crystal, 2008; He, 2015; He & Li, 2009; Jiang, 2002a). These learners mostly speak China English with cross-linguistic influences from Chinese, their mother tongue (Du & Jiang, 2001; He, 2007; Hu, 2004; Jiang, 1995a, 2003; Jiang & Du, 2003; Li, 2007b).

The standard varieties of British and American English have for long been accepted and promoted as the only internationally acceptable pedagogical models for English language teaching (ELT) (Adamson, 2004; Bolton, 2003; Lam, 2002; Zhang, 2003a, 2003b). However, recently this concept has been challenged by World Englishes scholars (e.g., Braine, 1999; Jenkins, 2006a, 2015; Kachru, 1985, 1992a; Kirkpatrick, 2006b; Li & He, 2020). Within this framework, the question of a ‘better’ teacher for university English has become a hot issue in recent years (e.g., Jin, 2005).

It has been argued that “language planning cannot be understood without reference to its social contexts” (Cooper, 1989, p. 3). Given this, I would suggest that one cannot make a decision about who are better teachers (i.e., NETs or LETs) for university English in China without considering the opinions from English teachers and learners in China. Hence, this section is a quite necessary part of a book on China English. The data are from questionnaire survey, match-guise technique, and interview.

3.4.1 Results of Questionnaire Survey

Tables 3.17, 3.18, and 3.19 show the frequency distributions and means of items related to teacher preference from the questionnaire survey for the student sample, teacher sample, and the combined sample, respectively. Again, I collapsed Response 1 (i.e., strongly disagree) and Response 2 (i.e., disagree) as ‘disagree’ and Response 4 (i.e., agree) and Response 5 (i.e., strongly agree) as ‘agree’ while analyzing the results of these items.

University English should be taught by: (a). English teachers from China; (b). native speakers; (c). both (a) and (b) (Item 8)

Table 3.17 Students’ response frequencies and means for items related to teacher preference

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
8a. University English should be taught by English teachers from China	25.5	26.9	29.9	11.8	5.7	2.45
8b. University English should be taught by native speakers	14.5	16.5	27.5	23.1	18.2	3.14
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	6.7	5.3	11.4	18.5	58.1	4.16

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don’t know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

Table 3.18 Teachers' response frequencies and means for items related to teacher preference

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
8a. University English should be taught by English teachers from China	32.8	20.1	22.2	15.9	9.0	2.48
8b. University English should be taught by native speakers	33.9	20.6	30.7	9.5	5.3	2.32
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	/	/	11.1	22.8	66.1	4.55

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

Table 3.19 Combined sample's response frequencies and means for items related to teacher preference

Items	1 ^a (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Means
8a. University English should be taught by English teachers from China	26.9	25.6	28.5	12.6	6.3	2.46
8b. University English should be taught by native speakers	18.2	17.3	28.2	20.5	15.8	2.98
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	5.4	4.3	11.4	19.3	59.7	4.24

Notes ^a1: strongly disagree; 2: disagree; 3: no opinion or don't know; 4: agree; 5: strongly agree

^bThe percentage has been rounded to the one digit after the decimal point

^cThe mean has been rounded to two digits after the decimal point

The results revealed that 79% (777) of all the participants thought that university English should be taught by both LETs and NETs. The reason might be that Chinese students on the one hand need to benefit from NETs to improve their communicative competence in English and knowledge of the target culture within which the English language is located, and on the other hand they need Chinese teachers' help to improve other skills, such as reading and writing, and to pass various exams (also see Sect. 3.4.2 for more detailed explanation). About 36.3% (357) of them believe that university English should be taught completely by NETs and only 18.9% (186) of the participants argue that it should be taught only by Chinese teachers of English.

3.4.2 Findings of Interviews

Should University English be taught by LETs or by NETs or by both of these two types of teachers in mainland China? Why? (Question 7)

Like the findings of the questionnaire survey, about three-fifths (49) of the students ($N = 82$) and nearly all of the teachers ($N = 21$) in the interviews were in favor of a combination of both LETs and NETs for the teaching of university English. The reasons behind their choice can be summarized with one sentence: students can benefit from the strengths of both types of teachers' teaching. In particular, the advantages possessed by each type include the following, among others (both of the two types of teachers' advantages are arranged in decreasing order of statistical significance):

Strengths of LETs:

- They are more familiar with the Chinese way of teaching and learning, especially the Chinese testing system;
- They have the experience of learning English as a foreign language;
- They are good at teaching reading, writing, and translation skills;
- They know Chinese students better (e.g., their learning difficulties);
- They can explain some complicated language points and grammatical rules in Chinese to students if necessary; and
- They can function as a bridge between Chinese students and NETs if the cooperation between them (i.e., Chinese students and NETs) encounters difficulties or even breaks down.

Strengths of NETs:

- They know their native language and culture better;
- They can teach better oral English;
- They can help create a conducive communicative environment and atmosphere for students;
- They are generally more active in class than Chinese teachers;
- They are often more open-minded than their Chinese peers; and
- They are usually adept at arousing students' interest in English learning, but sometimes this is simply due to their status of being NETs.

At the same time, these interviewees pointed out that students' English level is an important factor that determines their preference of teachers. NETs might be a better choice if the students have a solid English foundation, particularly in terms of spoken-English; otherwise, LETs or a combination of the two would be preferred. Besides, they also argued that NETs should know how to teach English as a foreign language and have a strong sense of responsibility toward Chinese students (the latter requirement also applies to LETs, they said). Another reason for the teacher interviewees' general agreement with the combined teaching by both LETs and NETs rather than purely by NETs, as remarked by two of the teachers, might be their worry about Chinese teachers' jobs and status being threatened by NETs (as shown in Example 56). Below are some typical comments on the preference of the combination of the two types of teachers:

[Example 53] Both of them. Local teachers are good at teaching reading, writing, and translation, and they know more about Chinese approaches to English teaching and learning and the characteristics of Chinese students, for example, they know what my learning difficulties are. NETs have an edge over Chinese teachers in teaching speaking, listening, and the cultures of English-speaking countries. They can foster a better environment for students to improve communicative competence in English. (SM147E4)

[Example 54] I prefer the teaching by both of them, but mainly by local teachers since they have the experience of learning English as a foreign language and know how to teach and help us effectively in English learning. They also know Chinese testing system better, you know, we must pass CET-4 [University English Test Band-4] in order to find a good job. NETs might help us with our oral English and keep our interest in English learning, but they are not so helpful with the test. (SF521L2)

[Example 55] It depends on the students' English level. If their English is good enough, then NETs will be better. If their English is not so good, they can have oral English classes by NETs, but reading and writing classes by Chinese teachers. If the students' English is poor, they should be taught by Chinese teachers solely. However, NETs-only will be the best choice if we do not need to study for any exams and learn English just for communication. (SF709B2K)

[Example 56] A combination is better. At the beginning of university English learning, specifically, in the first three semesters, students should be taught by Chinese teachers. Then if their English is good enough and have no big problems in following NETs' teaching, they should be taught by NETs. If students are taught by NETs but cannot understand their teaching, they might lose interest and confidence in English study. NETs would be more capable of teaching oral English, but to develop students' other language skills like reading, writing, translation, and the mastery of grammar and vocabulary, local teachers might be more experienced. Also, I wonder if University English were taught completely by NETs, what would we Chinese teachers do? (TM22MA)

[Example 57] Together if possible. Chinese teachers know more about Chinese students and the testing system in China. NETs know the language better and their pronunciation is much better too. If students can communicate with NETs, they will be more confident and interested in English learning. (TM66DP)

[Example 58] Both. In this way, the two groups of teachers can learn the strong points from each other to offset each others' weaknesses. Different teachers can be assigned to students according to different teaching tasks (e.g., listening and speaking, reading and writing, translation, and so on) and students' different levels and needs.

Interviewer: What are the strong points of these two types of teachers in your opinion?

Local teachers' strong points: They can resort to Chinese if the students cannot follow their instruction in English at the early stage of the university English learning or when the students' English is at a rather low level. Besides, they have their own EFL learning experience and therefore can understand students' difficulties and expectations in learning.

NETs' advantages: English is their mother tongue, so their English is naturally much more standard than their local counterparts. Furthermore, they are better informed of the latest variation or new trends in both written- and spoken-English. Yet, Chinese teachers' English might be very old or even outdated. In brief, NETs can use their own language more productively than Chinese teachers. An example is that they can express a rich meaning with a very simple word, which is often said by us Chinese teachers with (a) complicated sentence(s). What is more, they know the target culture better. (TF145ML)

About 30% (24) of the student interviewees ($N = 82$) preferred to be taught only by NETs. The reasons underlying their preference are somewhat the same as the perceived strengths of NETs mentioned above. In the meantime, they were also a little disappointed at their LETs' not-so-Standard English, especially their pronunciation. Once again, they insisted that NETs should have a certain knowledge of teaching English as a foreign language, and preferably if they know some Chinese. I asked some of the student interviewees who wished to be taught completely by NETs whether it would be a problem for them to prepare for the tests like CET-4/6 without LETs' guidance. Some of them said they had already passed CET-4/6, and others did not think that they would have any problems with such tests. This indicates that these students were comparatively good at English. Some of the representative opinions are cited below:

[Example 59] NETs, since they can provide us with a better English learning environment. It will be better if they can speak Chinese. For example, we can employ English teachers from Singapore, Hong Kong, and Taiwan, they can speak both English and Chinese well. (SF77E2)

[Example 60] NETs, so we can have a better environment and atmosphere for English learning, and more chance to speak English. (SM271A1)

[Example 61] NETs, they can speak very good English since it is their native language, and they can arouse our interest in English learning. We are a little disappointed at most of the LETs' pronunciation. (SF350A4)

[Example 62] I will choose NETs. If so, we can learn Standardized English to communicate more effectively with others. Of course, the precondition is that we have no difficulties in preparing for and passing CET-4/6. (SF731L2K)

Only approximately 10% (8) of the students ($N = 82$) preferred to be taught completely by local English teachers. Apart from their wish to benefit from the advantages of Chinese teachers as stated earlier, their main concerns were that they might not be able to follow the NETs' teaching due to their poor English and they had difficulties preparing for CET-4/6. The following are two typical remarks of this point:

[Example 63] Local teachers, since we need to pass CET-4 and CET-6, and local teachers are better at helping us in this aspect. However, I would like to be taught by local teachers in the first year and then in the second year by NETs if we do not need to prepare for CET. (SF37E1)

[Example 64] Chinese teachers, as my English is a little poor, I would find it hard to follow the lessons if I were taught completely by NETs. The cooperation would be a problem if the two types of teachers taught us together. Besides, many NETs do not have prior experience in teaching English as a foreign language and are not responsible enough. In contrast, local teachers have the experience in both learning and teaching English as a foreign language, and they know what we expect and how to help us best. (SM273A1)

To sum up, as revealed by the survey results, 79% of the respondents believed that university English should be taught by both LETs and NETs, while 36.3% of them preferred NETs only and merely 18.9% preferred LETs alone. These findings are also consistent with those of the match-guise technique and interviews in that:

- (a) the MGT participants were more positive toward Standardized English (see Sect. 3.1.3.2 for more details);
- (b) the interviewees insisted that Chinese students need the help from both LETs and NETs; and
- (c) the interviewees also argued that Chinese teachers play an indispensable role in teaching of university English, although they were less preferred by students.

3.5 Different Perceptions of China English

MANOVA at item level enables a deep and detailed exploration of the potentially significant differences in the perceptions held by different groups of participants. Altogether six group comparisons were done with MANOVA to the 30 items of the questionnaire, and 4–18 items with a statistically significant difference were identified in these group comparisons. Specifically:

- Students of the one key university were found to be significantly different from those of the second-tier universities on 18 items;
- Students of different disciplines were markedly different on 17 items;
- Students and teachers were remarkably different on 15 items;
- Students of Year-1 and Year-2 were found to be notably different from those of Year-3 and Year-4 on 7 items;
- Female and male students were evidently different on 7 items; and
- Female and male teachers were strikingly different on 4 items.

In addition, MANOVA revealed that different groups of MGT participants held remarkably different opinions of both China English and Standardized English. Specifically, significant differences existed between or among the following:

- students of the one key university and the three second-tier universities;
- students of different disciplines;
- student participants and teacher participants;
- students of Year-1 and Year-2 and students of Year-3 and Year-4; and
- female and male participants.

These differences will be dealt with one by one as below.

3.5.1 *Between Students of Key University and Second-Tier Universities*

As mentioned in Sect. 3.1, the participants of this research came from both one key university and three second-tier universities. When taking this factor into consideration, MANOVA revealed that students from the key university are remarkably different from those of the second-tier ones on 18 items (see Table 3.20 for the means

Table 3.20 Mean scores and difference of the 18 items on which students of key university showed significant differences from those of second-tier ones

Items	Means	
	SSU/SKU	Difference
1. I have heard of World Englishes	0.34/ 0.44	0.10*
2. I have heard of China English	0.40/ 0.54	0.14**
3. I have heard of 'Chinese English'	0.80/ 0.90	0.10**
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	3.93/ 4.25	-0.32**
5. I am satisfied with my English learning effectiveness	2.04/ 2.19	-0.15*
6. One reason for my low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model	2.60 /2.03	0.57**
7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning	3.46/ 3.72	-0.26*
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	4.09/ 4.32	-0.23*
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker	4.23/ 4.49	-0.26**
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	2.78 /2.08	0.70**
11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English	3.84/ 4.06	-0.22*
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English	4.00/ 4.45	-0.45**
13a. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers	3.17/ 3.45	-0.28*
16. Like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', China should have its own variety of English	3.50 /3.16	0.34**
18. 'Chinese English' and China English are the same	2.12 /1.92	0.20*
23. The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model	2.87 /2.26	0.61**
25. I would prefer to be like Student A/B	0.65 /0.40	0.25**
26. I would prefer to be like Student C/D/E	1.08/ 1.41	-0.33**

Notes SSU: Students from the three second-tier universities, SKU: Students from the one key university

** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

and differences involved). Students from the key university were found to score higher on most of these items. Specifically, more of them had heard of 'World Englishes', China English, and 'Chinese English', and preferred to speak Standardized English. Furthermore, they are generally more satisfied with their English learning effectiveness. Nonetheless, there are markedly more students from the second-tier universities arguing that China should have its own variety of English and it can replace the present pedagogic model.

Table 3.21 Means and differences of China English and Standardized English between students of second-tier universities and the key university

Traits	Means			
	China English		Standardized English	
	SSU/SKU	Difference	SSU/SKU	Difference
1. Friendly	3.13 /2.51	0.62**	3.19/ 3.42	-0.23**
2. Intelligent	2.99 /2.45	0.54**	3.01/ 3.41	-0.30**
3. Educated	3.04 /2.44	0.60**	3.03/ 3.55	-0.52**
4. Arrogant	2.86/ 3.48	-0.62**	2.72 /2.32	0.40**
5. Competent	2.95 /2.39	0.56**	3.27/ 3.64	-0.37**
6. Industrious	3.10 /2.48	0.62**	2.96/ 3.32	-0.36**
7. Sincere	3.16 /2.50	0.66**	3.04/ 3.39	-0.35**
8. Aggressive	2.87/ 3.46	-0.59**	2.80 /2.39	0.41**
9. Approachable	2.94 /2.37	0.57**	3.02/ 3.41	-0.39**
10. Considerate	3.01 /2.42	0.59**	2.87/ 3.27	-0.40**
11. Trustworthy	3.09 /2.47	0.62**	3.00/ 3.38	-0.38**
12. Wealthy	2.91 /2.48	0.43**	2.96/ 3.16	-0.20**
13. Trendy	2.86 /2.30	0.56**	3.07/ 3.40	-0.33**
14. Patient	3.30 /2.65	0.65**	2.92/ 3.25	-0.33**
15. Powerful	2.88 /2.38	0.50**	3.24/ 3.49	-0.25**
16. Confident	2.92 /2.43	0.49**	3.52/ 3.84	-0.32**

Notes SSU: Students of the three second-tier universities, SKU: Students of the one key university
 ** p < 0.01

As for MGT, the most statistically significant differences were identified across school levels since the students of the key university and the three second-tier universities displayed distinct attitudes toward all of the 16 traits of both China English and Standardized English. According to the statistics in Table 3.21, the students from the three second-tier universities were considerably more positive toward China English than their counterparts from the one key university. On the other hand, the students from the key university preferred Standardized English more than those from the second-tier universities. Detailed discussions on the findings of the match-guise technique in relation to the findings of the questionnaire survey and interview responses will be provided at the end of Sect. 3.5.

3.5.2 Among Students of Different Disciplines

MANOVA at item level was also conducted within the student group among different disciplines (i.e., business, law, engineering, and arts) and significant differences were found on 17 items (see Table 3.22). Business students were found to be strikingly

Table 3.22 Mean scores of the 17 items on which students of different disciplines showed significant differences

Items	Means						
	B/L	B/E	B/A	L/E	L/A	E/A	
1. I have heard of World Englishes	/	/	0.65/0.48**	/	0.61/0.48*	0.61/0.48*	
2. I have heard of China English	0.63/0.47**	0.63/0.47**	0.63/0.43**	/	/	/	
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	/	4.20/3.90**	4.20/3.89*	/	/	/	
5. I am satisfied with my English learning effectiveness	/	2.21/1.99**	2.21/1.97**	/	/	/	
6. One reason for my low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model	2.01/2.51**	2.01/2.72**	2.01/2.50**	/	/	/	
8a. University English should be taught by English teachers from China	/	/	/	2.34/2.59*	/	/	
8b. University English should be taught by native speakers	/	/	/	3.29/2.95*	/	/	
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	/	/	4.35/3.92**	/	4.17/3.92*	4.19/3.92*	
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker	/	4.48/4.10**	/	4.37/4.10*	/	/	
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	2.15/2.53**	2.15/3.07**	2.15/2.59**	2.53/3.07**	/	3.07/2.59**	
11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English	4.03/3.76*	/	4.03/3.80*	3.76/4.01*	/	/	
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English	4.42/4.10**	4.42/3.87**	4.42/4.14*	4.10/3.87*	/	3.87/4.14*	
14. There are many standardized Englishes	/	/	/	3.29/3.59*	/	3.59/3.31*	
16. Like 'Indian English' or 'Singaporean English', China should have its own variety of English	/	3.24/3.57*	/	/	/	/	
23. The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model	/	2.33/2.97**	2.33/2.91**	2.59/2.97**	2.59/2.91*	/	

(continued)

Table 3.22 (continued)

Items	Means							
	B/L	B/E	B/A	L/E	L/A	E/A		
25. I would prefer to be like Student A/B	0.42/ 0.59 **	0.42/ 0.66 **	0.42/ 0.64 **	/	/	/		/
26. I would prefer to be like Student C/D/E	/	1.35 /1.05**	1.35 /1.08**	/	/	/		/

Notes: B: Business, L: Law, E; Engineering, A: Arts; ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

different from those of other disciplines on these items. However, more research needs to be done to provide explanations for these differences.

According to the results of MANOVA on MGT data, students of the four different disciplines (i.e., business, law, engineering, and arts) also showed noticeable differences in their attitudes toward China English and Standardized English (see Table 3.23 for the means involved). It was found that arts students displayed statistically least differences from law and engineering students. Business students were remarkably different from those of the other three disciplines, in that they appeared to display a markedly more positive attitude toward Standardized English and a less tolerant attitude toward China English. One possible explanation is that business majors, unlike their counterparts studying other disciplines, anticipate greater needs for English after graduation, and so they aspire to attain native-like competence in English.

3.5.3 *Between Students and Teachers*

The teacher group and student group were compared in terms of their means on each of the 30 items in the questionnaire.⁵ Significant group differences were found on 15 items (see Table 3.24 for the means and differences involved). A closer scrutiny of the differences found that there were considerably more teachers who had heard of the three items: World Englishes, China English, and 'Chinese English'. The differences on Items 4, 10, 11, 12, and 13a showed that teachers tended to agree more than students that it is necessary and practical to go on adopting British or American English as the model for the teaching of university English in China. Meanwhile, the group differences on Statements 5 and 7 demonstrated that teachers were not so negative toward their students' English learning effectiveness as the students themselves, and that the pedagogic model was not considered as a reason for their (or their students') low learning effectiveness. It can be seen from the differences on Items 8b and 8c that there are considerably more teachers than students who agreed that university English should be taught by both LETs and NETs in China. From the differences on Items 14 and 25, it can be assumed that China English can, theoretically, be introduced as a pedagogic model or at least as part of the models together with Standardized English if it had been well codified and become a well-established variety of English. Lastly, the difference on Item 17b indicates that strikingly more teachers opposed the future variety of English in China to be named as 'Chinese English'.

As can be seen in Table 3.25, students' and teachers' MGT data showed statistically significant differences on the three traits of China English and as many as

⁵In the course of statistical analysis, I found it necessary to input Items 8, 13, and 17, respectively, as three, two, and two items (i.e., 8a, 8b, 8c; 13a, 13b; 17a, 17b). As what has been explained in Sects. 1 and 3, it should also be noticed that for the purpose of statistical analysis, Items 1, 2, 3, and 25 are dealt with as if they were 2-point Likert scale items, Item 26 as 3-point Likert scale, since only numerical input can be operated in computers.

Table 3.23 Means of China English and Standardized English among students of different disciplines

Traits	Means							
	B/L	B/E	B/A	L/E	L/A	E/A		
1. Friendly	CE	2.63/2.93**	2.63/3.18**	2.63/3.08**	2.93/3.18**	2.93/3.08*	3.18/3.08*	
	SE	/	3.37/3.20*	3.37/3.19*	/	/	/	/
2. Intelligent	CE	2.57/2.85**	2.57/3.05**	2.57/2.88**	2.85/3.05**	/	3.05/2.88*	
	SE	3.38/3.06**	3.38/2.96**	3.38/3.11**	3.06/2.96*	/	/	/
3. Educated	CE	2.51/2.88**	2.51/3.13**	2.51/2.96**	2.88/3.13**	/	3.13/2.96*	
	SE	3.43/3.13**	3.43/3.03**	3.43/3.11**	3.13/3.03*	/	/	/
4. Arrogant	CE	3.41/2.99**	3.41/2.90**	3.41/2.82**	/	2.99/2.82*	/	
	SE	2.40/2.58*	2.40/2.69**	2.40/2.75**	2.58/2.69*	2.58/2.75*	/	/
5. Competent	CE	2.51/2.82**	2.51/3.01**	2.51/2.81**	2.82/3.01*	/	3.01/2.81**	
	SE	3.58/3.40*	3.58/3.20**	3.58/3.35**	3.40/3.20**	/	/	/
6. Industrious	CE	2.64/2.91**	2.64/3.11**	2.64/3.05**	2.91/3.11**	2.91/3.05*	/	
	SE	3.22/3.05*	3.22/2.91**	3.22/3.07*	3.05/2.91*	/	2.91/3.07*	2.91/3.07*
7. Sincere	CE	2.60/3.00**	2.60/3.22**	2.60/3.06**	3.00/3.22**	/	3.22/3.06*	
	SE	3.32/3.11*	3.32/3.01**	3.32/3.12**	3.11/3.01*	/	3.01/3.12*	3.01/3.12*
8. Aggressive	CE	3.41/3.02**	3.41/2.87**	3.41/2.85**	3.02/2.87*	3.02/2.85*	/	
	SE	2.44/2.60*	2.44/2.82**	2.44/2.86**	2.60/2.82**	2.60/2.86**	/	/
9. Approachable	CE	2.47/2.78**	2.47/2.97**	2.47/2.88**	2.78/2.97*	2.78/2.88*	/	
	SE	3.34/3.19**	3.34/3.03**	3.34/2.98**	3.19/3.03*	3.19/2.98**	/	/
10. Considerate	CE	2.51/2.84**	2.51/3.38**	2.51/2.92**	2.84/3.38**	/	3.38/2.92**	
	SE	3.12/3.00*	3.12/2.89**	3.12/2.90**	3.00/2.89*	3.00/2.90*	/	/

(continued)

Table 3.23 (continued)

Traits	Means							
	B/L	B/E	B/A	L/E	L/A	E/A		
11. Trustworthy	CE	2.63/ 2.86 **	2.63/ 3.11 **	2.63/ 3.05 **	2.86/ 3.11 **	2.86/ 3.05 *	/	/
	SE	3.32 / 3.10 **	3.32 / 2.94 **	3.32 / 3.09 **	3.10 / 2.94 *	/	2.94/ 3.09 *	/
12. Wealthy	CE	2.50/ 2.80 **	2.50/ 2.95 **	2.50/ 2.86 **	2.80/ 2.95 *	/	/	/
	SE	3.15 / 2.97 *	3.15 / 2.90 **	3.15 / 3.04 *	/	/	2.90/ 3.04 *	/
13. Trendy	CE	2.38/ 2.70 **	2.38/ 2.92 **	2.38/ 2.79 **	2.70/ 2.92 **	/	2.92/ 2.79 *	/
	SE	3.34 / 3.10 **	3.34 / 2.98 **	3.34 / 3.22 *	3.10 / 2.98 *	3.10 / 3.22 *	2.98/ 3.22 **	/
14. Patient	CE	2.82/ 3.11 **	2.82/ 3.29 **	2.82/ 3.25 **	3.11/ 3.29 *	3.11/ 3.25 *	/	/
	SE	3.19 / 3.05 *	3.19 / 2.89 **	3.19 / 2.93 **	3.05 / 2.89 *	3.05 / 2.93 *	/	/
15. Powerful	CE	2.42/ 2.75 **	2.42/ 2.92 **	2.42/ 2.82 **	2.75/ 2.92 *	/	2.92/ 2.82 *	/
	SE	3.46 / 3.23 **	3.46 / 3.20 **	3.46 / 3.35 *	/	3.23/ 3.35 *	3.20/ 3.35 *	/
16. Confident	CE	2.51/ 2.80 **	2.51/ 2.99 **	2.51/ 2.79 **	/	/	2.99/ 2.79 **	/
	SE	3.80 / 3.60 **	3.80 / 3.45 **	3.80 / 3.61 *	3.60 / 3.45 *	/	3.45/ 3.61 *	/

Notes: B: Business, L: Law, E: Engineering, A: Arts; CE: China English, SE: Standardized English
 ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 3.24 Mean scores and difference of the 15 items on which teachers showed significant differences from students

Items	Means	
	Ss/Ts	Difference
1. I have heard of World Englishes	0.41/ 0.51	0.10*
2. I have heard of China English	0.50/ 0.63	0.13**
3. I have heard of ‘Chinese English’	0.83/ 0.95	0.12**
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	4.01/ 4.34	−0.33**
5. I am satisfied with my (students’) English learning effectiveness	2.08/ 2.41	−0.33**
7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British or American English) for teaching and learning	3.53/ 3.77	−0.24*
8b. University English should be taught by native speakers	3.11 /2.27	0.84**
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	4.15/ 4.66	−0.51**
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	2.61 /2.27	0.34**
11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English	3.90/ 4.42	−0.52**
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English	4.11/ 4.47	−0.36**
13a. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers	3.24 /2.98	0.26*
14. There are many standardized Englishes	3.41/ 3.81	−0.40**
17b. If there will be a variety of English in China like ‘Indian English’ or ‘Singaporean English’, it should be called ‘Chinese English’	3.23 /2.92	0.31*
25. I would prefer to be like Student A/B	0.59 /0.42	0.17**

Notes: Ss: Students, Ts: Teachers; ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

12 traits of Standardized English. In particular, students are found to score higher means on eight *positive* traits of China English, and teacher participants scored higher than students on 12 of the 14 *positive* traits of Standardized English. Based on these differences, it can be tentatively concluded that students were generally more positive toward China English than their teachers who typically showed much more preference to Standardized English. Put it another way, teachers seemed not to be so positive toward China English in comparison with their affirmative attitude toward Standardized English (cf. Li, 2006b). A possible reason for this may be that the teachers had learnt and then taught Standardized English for many years, so they had developed ingrained favoritism of Standardized English whereas the students, whose English proficiency was basically low, were still struggling hard to master the language, thus they tended to identify with China English. Nevertheless, more studies are needed to validate this reason or explore new reason(s) for such a teacher–student disparity since it is beyond the scope of this study to provide any valid explanations.

Table 3.25 Means and differences of China English and Standardized English between students and teachers

Traits	Means			
	China English		Standardized English	
	Student/Teacher	Difference	Student/Teacher	Difference
1. Friendly	2.97 /2.85	0.12*	3.25/ 3.56	-0.31**
2. Intelligent	2.85 /2.73	0.12*	3.12/ 3.35	-0.23**
3. Educated	2.88 /2.84	0.14*	3.17/ 3.26	-0.09
4. Arrogant	3.02 /2.96	0.06	2.62 /2.58	0.04
5. Competent	2.81 /2.77	0.04	3.37/ 3.50	-0.13*
6. Industrious	2.94 /2.92	0.02	3.05/ 3.21	-0.16*
7. Sincere	2.99/ 3.00	-0.01	3.13/ 3.22	-0.09
8. Aggressive	3.03/ 3.12	-0.09	2.69 /2.51	0.18*
9. Approachable	2.79/ 2.82	-0.03	3.11/ 3.29	-0.18*
10. Considerate	2.86 /2.83	0.03	2.97/ 3.10	-0.13*
11. Trustworthy	2.93/ 2.97	-0.04	3.10/ 3.17	-0.07
12. Wealthy	2.78 /2.76	0.02	3.01/ 3.27	-0.26**
13. Trendy	2.72/ 2.75	-0.03	3.16/ 3.36	-0.20**
14. Patient	3.13/ 3.16	-0.03	3.02/ 3.16	-0.14*
15. Powerful	2.75/ 2.76	-0.01	3.30/ 3.49	-0.19*
16. Confident	2.80 /2.78	0.02	3.60/ 3.77	-0.17*

Notes ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

3.5.4 *Between Students of Year-1 and Year-2 and Year-3 and Year-4*

Similar comparisons were also conducted between the students who were still learning University English (i.e., students of Year-1 and Year-2) and those having finished this course (i.e., students of Year-3 and Year-4) based on their means of the same 30 items. It was found that they showed significant differences on seven items (see Table 3.26 for the means and differences involved). These differences (except those on Items 12, 15, and 22) revealed that students of Year-3 and Year-4 were generally more tolerant toward the deviation of English learning from the standard than Year-1 and Year-2 students.

For MGT data, Table 3.27 showed that students of Year-1 and Year-2 displayed statistically significant differences on all the positive traits of both the two ‘varieties’ of English from students of Year-3 and Year-4. In other words, students of the latter two years were commonly more tolerant of China English than students of the first two years. One reason behind this difference might be that juniors and seniors knew more about English learning and the need of the society (e.g., they might be aware that the job market just requires the prospective employees to be capable of communicating

Table 3.26 Mean scores of the 7 items on which Year-1 and Year-2 students showed significant differences from Year-3 to Year-4 students

Items	Means	
	Y1-2/Y3-4	Difference
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	4.09/3.79	0.30**
9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker	4.36/4.12	0.24**
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	2.54/ 2.80	-0.26*
12. The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English	4.17/3.96	0.21*
15. There will be a variety of English in China one day	3.57/3.30	0.27*
22. Well-codified features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing teaching model	3.74/3.38	0.36**
25. I would prefer to be like Student A/B	0.56/ 0.65	-0.09*

Notes Y1-2: Students in Year-1 and Year-2, Y3-4: Students in Year-3 and Year-4; ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 3.27 Means and differences of China English and Standardized English between students of Year-1 & Year-2 and Year-3 & Year-4

Traits	Means			
	China English		Standardized English	
	Y1-2/Y3-4	Difference	Y1-2/Y3-4	Difference
1. Friendly	2.93/ 3.11	-0.18*	3.32/3.03	0.29**
2. Intelligent	2.75/ 3.14	-0.39**	3.24/2.76	0.48**
3. Educated	2.84/ 3.04	-0.20**	3.25/2.91	0.34**
4. Arrogant	3.04/ 3.07	-0.03	2.63/2.57	0.06
5. Competent	2.73/ 3.04	-0.31**	3.50/2.97	0.53**
6. Industrious	2.88/ 3.10	-0.22**	3.13/2.82	0.31**
7. Sincere	2.91/ 3.21	-0.30**	3.20/2.95	0.25**
8. Aggressive	3.03/3.01	0.02	2.68/ 2.72	-0.04
9. Approachable	2.74/ 2.92	-0.18*	3.17/2.99	0.18*
10. Considerate	2.78/ 3.09	-0.31**	3.02/2.85	0.17*
11. Trustworthy	2.86/ 3.13	-0.27**	3.18/2.86	0.32**
12. Wealthy	2.71/ 3.03	-0.32**	3.08/2.80	0.28**
13. Trendy	2.61/ 3.05	-0.44**	3.24/2.90	0.34**
14. Patient	3.06/ 3.32	-0.26**	3.05/2.88	0.17*
15. Powerful	2.64/ 3.07	-0.43**	3.41/3.00	0.41**
16. Confident	2.69/ 3.08	-0.39**	3.72/3.25	0.47**

Notes Y1-2: Students of Year-1 and Year-2, Y3-4: Students of Year-3 and Year-4; ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

in English fluently no matter whether it is Standardized English or not), therefore, they no longer considered China English as a ‘variety’ of English so unacceptable. Again, this is simply a plausible analysis to be validated in future research.

3.5.5 *Between Female and Male Participants*

When it comes to gender, student participants exhibited more notable differences than teachers. Striking ‘gender’ differences were found on seven items within the student group while only on four items within the teacher group (refer to Tables 3.28 and 3.29 for the means and differences involved). These differences suggest that considerably more male students regarded the adoption of Standardized English as

Table 3.28 Mean scores of the seven items which displayed significant ‘gender’ differences among the students

Items	Means	
	Female/Male	Difference
6. One reason for my low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model	2.36/ 2.55	-0.19*
8c. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers	4.28 /4.04	0.24**
10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese	2.39/ 2.79	-0.40**
15. There will be a variety of English in China one day	3.36/ 3.63	-0.27*
16. Like ‘Indian English’ or ‘Singaporean English’, China should have its own variety of English	3.28/ 3.53	-0.25*
24. Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in university English	3.51/ 3.69	-0.18*
26. I would prefer to be like Student C/D/E	1.26 /1.08	0.18**

Notes ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Table 3.29 Mean scores of the four items which displayed significant ‘gender’ differences among the teachers

Items	Means	
	Female/Male	Difference
2. I have heard of China English	0.54/ 0.73	0.19*
4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks	4.09/ 4.64	-0.55**
5. I am satisfied with my students’ English learning effectiveness.	2.29/ 2.54	-0.25*
15. There will be a variety of English in China one day	3.78 /3.24	0.54*

Notes ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

the pedagogic model a reason of their low learning effectiveness, and significantly more male students wanted to be identified clearly as Chinese while speaking English (cf., Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002) and they believed that China should have its own variety of English and there would be such a variety one day. Moreover, observably more male students argued for including China English and World Englishes into the existing curriculum for college students in China. On the other hand, there were remarkably more female students who preferred to speak English like Student E and to be taught by both LETs and NETs.

Among the teachers, notably more females believed that there would be a variety of English in China someday. At the same time, considerably more males had heard of China English, were satisfied with their students' English learning effectiveness, and agreed that British English and American English were the major varieties of English used in their textbooks.

For MGT data, two conclusions can be drawn on the basis of the results displayed in Table 3.30. First of all, male and female teachers exhibited significant differences on more than half of the traits of China English and most of the traits of Standardized English, respectively. The male teachers' means on the positive traits

Table 3.30 Means of China English and Standardized English between female and male participants

Traits	Means			
	China English		Standardized English	
	FS/MS	FT/MT	FS/MS	FT/MT
1. Friendly	3.00 /2.94	2.73/ 2.99**	3.24/ 3.27	3.66 /3.45**
2. Intelligent	2.88 /2.82	2.70/ 2.76	3.13 /3.10	3.44 /3.23**
3. Educated	2.94 /2.84*	2.71/ 3.03**	3.19 /3.15	3.35 /3.15**
4. Arrogant	3.01/ 3.04	3.11 /2.76**	2.58/ 2.64	3.48/ 3.70**
5. Competent	2.78/ 2.82	2.74/ 2.79	3.36/ 3.37	3.57 /3.37**
6. Industrious	2.88/ 2.99*	2.83/ 3.01*	2.98/ 3.12*	3.32 /3.08**
7. Sincere	2.97/ 3.00	2.91/ 3.09*	3.12/ 3.15	3.23 /3.20
8. Aggressive	3.01/ 3.03	3.29 /2.87**	2.70 /2.69	2.33/ 2.76**
9. Approachable	2.82 /2.76	2.79/ 2.84	3.09/ 3.15	3.43 /3.11**
10. Considerate	2.85/ 2.86	2.82/ 2.86	2.95/ 3.00	3.22 /2.99**
11. Trustworthy	2.90/ 2.95	2.91/ 3.05*	3.14 /3.06	3.27 /3.05**
12. Wealthy	2.74/ 2.83	2.72/ 2.80	2.97/ 3.05	3.29 /3.27
13. Trendy	2.69/ 2.74	2.60/ 2.96**	3.14/ 3.17	3.45 /3.25**
14. Patient	3.10/ 3.16	3.00/ 3.38**	3.01 /3.00	3.24 /3.07*
15. Powerful	2.70/ 2.79	2.72/ 2.78	3.33 /3.27	3.56 /3.38*
16. Confident	2.78/ 2.79	2.73/ 2.80	3.62 /3.58	3.86 /3.63**

Notes FS: Female student, MS: Male student; FT: Female teacher, MT: Male teacher. **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

of China English were consistently higher than those of their female counterparts. The opposite was the case for their means on the two negative traits ('Arrogant' and 'Aggressive') of China English. On the other hand, female teachers consistently scored higher means on the positive traits but lower means on the negative traits of Standardized English. These results suggest that female teachers were generally more positive toward Standardized English and less tolerant of China English compared with male teachers. Secondly, there were only two traits of China English ('Educated' and 'Industrious') and one trait of Standardized English ('Industrious') on which female and male students were markedly different from each other. It may thus be concluded that male and female students did not show much difference in their attitudes toward these two 'varieties' of English. The students' attitudes towards China English and 'Standardized English' were a little different from those identified with questionnaire surveys both in this section (see Tables 3.28 and 3.29) and in the study by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002). The results of the questionnaire survey in these two studies suggest that female students strongly rejected China English comparing to their male counterparts.

To sum up, when examined from a holistic point of view, the 'group differences' identified in this section show much consistency across the questionnaire and MGT data sets. The interview data, while triangulating some of these differences, also tried to identify some underlying reasons for the differences. Meanwhile, it is worth pointing out that most of the differences identified between these respondents require potent explanations from further studies.

The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire and MGT data discovered statistically significant differences with regard to the following groups:

- students of the key university and those of the second-tier universities;
- students of different disciplines;
- the teacher and student participants; and
- students of Year-1 & Year-2 and those of Year-3 & Year-4

For the questionnaire survey, the most noticeable differences were found between students of the key university and those of the three second-tier universities because these two student groups demonstrated statistically significant differences on 18 out of the 30 questionnaire items. The main conclusion reached from these differences was that students of the key university preferred Standardized English more than their counterparts of the second-tier ones. The results of the match-guise technique echoed these differences since the students of the key university were proven to be far more positive toward Standardized English than those of the second-tier ones. The findings of the interviews also suggested that the students of the key university preferred Standardized English to China English since none of them chose the latter as the future teaching model for university English in China, while those who were in favor of China English were all from second-tier universities.

The second most notable difference generated in the questionnaire survey data was among students of the four disciplines (i.e., business, law, engineering, and arts), who displayed significant differences on 17 items. It is noteworthy that business students were remarkably different from those of the other disciplines according to

the results of the questionnaire survey and match-guise technique. Specifically, the business majors showed more adherence to Standardized English and less tolerance of China English than other majors. One possible explanation might be that the business students will use English more frequently than other students in their future careers and they will need Standardized English to facilitate their effective communication with others in the business arena. Yet this explanation requires empirical support from further research.

One of the noticeable ‘teacher–student’ differences as found in the questionnaire survey data was that the teacher participants were much more affirmative of adopting Standardized English as the pedagogic model for university English in China. This finding is reflected in the MGT results which also suggest that teacher respondents typically show much more preference to Standardized English than the students (see Sect. 3.5.3 for more details). Still, as indicated by the survey results, remarkably more teachers than students considered that university English should be taught jointly by both NETs and LETs in China, whereas notably more students than teachers agreed that university English should be taught only by NETs. Similar ‘teacher–student’ difference in the preference of teachers for university English also emerged in the interviews. While almost all the teacher interviewees ($N = 21$) insisted that university English should be taught by both of these two types of teachers, only sixty percent (49) of the student interviewees ($N = 82$) held such a view. There were still about thirty percent (24) of the student interviewees ($N = 82$), who were in favor of NETs only. As reported in Sect. 3.4.2, one of the explanations for the teachers’ preference for a combination of teachers instead of NETs alone might be their worry about their job opportunities being threatened if only NETs were selected as the teachers for university English.

With regard to the students studying at different levels, both the questionnaire survey and the MGT test showed that the students of Year-3 and Year-4 were more tolerant of China English and less positive toward Standardized English than the Year-1 and Year-2 students. The findings of the interviews also suggested that more seniors tended to be in favor of non-Standardized Englishes like China English and Lingua Franca English. Such differences may be partly due to the senior students’ better awareness of what counts most in job hunting and the employers’ emphasis on the fluency rather than the standard of their prospective employees’ English. Besides, it may also be due to the fact that most of the interviewees agreed that it is easier for Chinese learners to acquire China English instead of Standardized English.

In terms of the ‘gender’ variable, the findings from the three research instruments were not so consistent. It is noticeable that more male (21.4%) student participants in the questionnaire survey agreed that adopting Standardized English as the teaching model is a reason for their less-than-satisfactory learning effectiveness whereas only 16.7% of the female students thought so. Besides, more male (63.7%) students advocated the incorporation of select and well-codified features of China English and World Englishes into the present university English curriculum in China while only 57.6% of their female counterparts agreed to this point. On the other hand, more female (50.8% and 81%, respectively) student respondents in the survey were in favor of Standardized English and being taught by both LETs and NETs, while the

two figures for the male students were 41.6% and 72.5%, respectively. As for the teacher participants in the survey, more male (77.9%) teachers had heard of China English while about 53.6% of the female participants had heard of it. However, more female (76.8%) teachers believed that there would be a variety of English in China in the future while only 57.2% of their male counterparts held such a belief.

When it comes to the MGT results, the student participants did not display significant 'gender' differences in their attitudes toward China English and Standardized English. However, the female teachers in the match-guise technique turned out to be more affirmative of Standardized English and less tolerant of China English than their male counterparts. Nevertheless, it should also be pointed out that the number of the items or traits causing marked 'gender' difference in the questionnaire survey or MGT test was the least when compared with those causing the other four types of differences discussed in the preceding section (i.e., the differences between students of the key university and those of the second-tier universities, among students of different disciplines, between teacher and student participants, and between students of Year-1 & Year-2 and those of Year-3 & Year-4).

Some of the 'gender' differences found in the questionnaire survey repeated themselves in the interviews. For example, the interviewees who considered the adoption of Standardized English as the pedagogic model somewhat a reason for their (or their students') unsatisfactory learning effectiveness were mostly males (28 out of 40). However, some other 'gender' differences derived from the interview responses do not match the questionnaire results. For instance, females (both students and teachers) were the majority of the thirty percent (31) interviewees (N = 103), who opposed that salient and well-codified characteristics of China English and World Englishes should be included into the existing curriculum of university English. This finding seems to contradict the female teachers' belief exhibited in the questionnaire data in that it may be hard for China English to become a fully promoted variety without being incorporated into the present university English curriculum step by step.

Overall, the data in the three research instruments are not sufficient to account for these apparent inconsistent 'gender' differences. Therefore, further studies are needed to identify the reasons behind these differences.

3.6 Comparison Between the Present Study and the Previous Ones

Several previous studies conducted similar investigations using questionnaire survey as (one of) the main research instrument(s). Some of the questionnaire items used in those studies were incorporated into the questionnaire of this chapter. Therefore, it will be meaningful to compare the results of the present survey with those of the previous ones. To facilitate further discussion, it is necessary to briefly report the demographic information of the respondents in the relevant previous studies.

Hu (2004, 2005) carried out two surveys to investigate, respectively, university students' and teachers' familiarity with the terms like World Englishes and China English. All of Hu's (2004) student participants ($N = 1261$) were chosen from one second-tier university in China: Three Gorges University. Of these students, 490 were English majors and 771 were non-English majors. Hu's (2005) teacher respondents ($N = 589$) were from five universities in the same province, Hubei. Among them, 210 taught English to English majors and 379 to non-English majors.

Based on a survey of the students ($N = 171$) at one key university in Beijing, Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) intended to answer the question of whether China English is an acceptable standard or not. Among the students, 88 were English majors and 83 engineering majors, and only 64 were female students.

With the purpose of providing a classroom perspective on the question about whether students should abide by native-speakers' standards of English, Timmis (2002) surveyed 400 students and 180 teachers from 14 to 45 different countries, respectively. In other words, Timmis' survey respondents were heterogeneous (i.e., with different L1 backgrounds), which is different from this book since the survey respondents of this book were relatively homogenous (i.e., nearly all of them speak Mandarin as their L1). In addition, Timmis also interviewed 15 students to cross-validate the results of the questionnaire. However, he pointed out at the same time that these interviewees could not be regarded as representative of the questionnaire respondents because they were all selected in one location, the city of Leeds in the UK.

In order to explore how Chinese university students respond to World Englishes and who, in their view, are better teachers in China, LETs or NETs, Jin (2005) surveyed and interviewed some university students aged between 19 and 22 in China, but no more detailed background information of these student respondents was provided in Jin's paper.

In Sect. 3.1 of this chapter, various demographic information of the participants ($N = 984$) in this study was reported in detail. Nonetheless, some of the information was reiterated here for the purpose of meaningful comparison in this section. Of all the participants, 795 were students and 189 were teachers, and about one-quarter of both students and teachers were from the key university. For the reasons mentioned in Sect. 3.1, all the student respondents were non-English majors, and there were very close proportions of female (384, 48.3%) and male (411, 51.7%) students. Nevertheless, obviously more female teachers (112, 59.3%) were surveyed than males (77, 40.7%). Table 3.31 presents the statistical information about the questionnaire respondents in the studies mentioned above except Jin (2005).

Table 3.31 Demographic information of the questionnaire participants in four studies

	Students							Teachers				Total	
	KU	SU	EM	NM	Female	Male	Total	TEM	TNM	Both	Total		
Hu	N	/	1261	490	771	/	/	1261	210	379	/	589	1850
	%	/	100	38.9	61.1	/	/		35.7	64.3	/		
Kirkpatrick and Xu	N	171	/	88	83	64	107	171	/	/	/	/	171
	%	100	/	51.5	48.5	37.4	62.6		/	/	/		
Timmis	N	/	/	/	/	/	/	400	/	/	/	180	580
	%	/	/	/	/	/	/		/	/	/		
This chapter	N	209	586	/	795	384	411	795	/	113	76	189	984
	%	26.3	73.7	/	100	48.3	51.7		/	59.8	40.2		

Notes KU: Key university, SU: Second-tier university; EM: English majors, NM: Non-English majors TEM: Teachers who teach English majors, TNM: Teachers who teach non-English majors, Both: teachers who teach both English majors and non-English majors

3.6.1 Participants' Familiarity with World Englishes and China English

Hu (2004) reported that 9.4% and 15.5% of the student participants she sampled had heard of World Englishes and China English, respectively, and the figures for the teacher informants were 65.8 and 75.4% (Hu, 2005). However, this chapter found that as many as 42.3% and 49.2% of the students were familiar with World Englishes and China English, respectively, and the teachers' percentages were 55 and 63.5%. It is not surprising that far more students reported having learnt of these two terms as 15 years had passed since Hu collected her data (she collected her data from the students in 2002; personal communication, 12-17-2019). As discussed in Sect. 3.1.3.1, there are various channels nowadays through which students can be informed of such knowledge; furthermore, as young students, they are very curious about and receptive to new ideas. However, it is rather unexpected that, when compared with Hu's study in 2005, there were fewer teachers in this research who had heard of these two terms. Further inquiry is necessary if the reasons behind this are to be identified.

Besides the participants' familiarity with these two terms, Hu also investigated their opinions about whether Chinese English and China English are the same. About 22.6% of her student participants thought they are different. In contrast, 72.2% of the student respondents in this chapter reported that they were different. In view of the fact that far more students were found to be familiar with China English in this chapter than in Hu's (2004) study, it might be concluded that the more students know about China English, the more of them would agree that it is different from 'Chinese English' since the latter is nothing new to most of the Chinese university students. In addition, Chinese English contains a negative connotation in the eyes of most Chinese learners.

In summary, both Hu's (2004, 2005) and the data in this chapter suggested that China English should be further studied and well codified before being adopted as part of the pedagogic model. Besides, well-promoted features of China English and World Englishes should be integrated into textbooks and other teaching materials together with British and American English. Provided that there are so many English learners and users in China, and most of the Chinese learners believe that China will have its own variety of English, among other indications, it is hopeful that China English will become an acceptable variety of English but there is still a long way to go. However, no evidence was found in the data of this chapter that China English will "become an honored member of the Inner Circle" as Hu (2004, p. 32) hoped to see one day. Instead, the data of this chapter indicate only a slim chance for China English to be accepted as an independent variety of English since students and teachers alike still adhere to Standardized English so much and most of them do not want (their students) to be identified clearly as Chinese when speaking English, not to mention Chinese politicians and educational bureaucrats who have always attached great significance to standards and correctness (Kirkpatrick, 2006b, 2017b; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002).

3.6.2 Possibility of Including China English as Part of the Teaching Model

It is interesting to see that most of the results of this chapter are in accordance with those of the study by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002). It seems that the lapse of years has not exerted much influence on university students' views of some issues concerning Standardized English and China English (they collected their data from the students in 2001; personal communication, 06-09-2019).

As reported by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), 72.5% of their student respondents rejected the statement that "Only native speakers can speak Standardized English". A similar result was obtained in the present study since 76.1% of the students agreed that "The non-native speakers can also speak Standardized English".

About 53.2% of their respondents were for the statement "There are many Standardized Englishes", whereas 60.8% of them were opposed to the item "When I speak English, I want people to know I am from China". Likewise, the results of this chapter showed similarity to theirs, with 49.4 and 21.7% of the students for and against the first statement and with 52.1% of the students opposing "When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese". Therefore, both of these two studies suggest that many Chinese students still wish to acquire the native speaker's standard of pronunciation in spite of their apparently liberal attitudes when defining Standardized English.

On the whole, their informants opposed the notion that "One day there will be a variety of English called Chinese English", with 45.6% against and 28.1% in favor. However, in this chapter, 58.5% of the students believed that "There will be a variety

of English in China one day” and only 24.9% of them did not think so. One reason might be that the term ‘Chinese English’ has a negative connotation to many Chinese people since only 49.3% of the students in this chapter agreed and 35.7% of them rejected that “If there will be a variety of English in China like ‘Indian English’ or ‘Singaporean English’, it should be called ‘Chinese English’”.

Moreover, their participants gave somewhat equal support to the two following statements: “Most Chinese need English so that they can communicate with English native speakers” and “Most Chinese need English so that they can communicate with other non-native speakers of English”, with 64.3% supporting the former and 59.1% supporting the latter. The students in favor of these two notions in this chapter accounted for close proportions too, but unlike Kirkpatrick and Xu’s study (2002), there were more students in this chapter who were positive toward the second item (52.9%) compared with those who were positive toward the first (48.1%). This is probably an indication of the students’ awareness that NSs are outnumbered by NNSs by an increasingly wide margin (Li, 2007b), which can also be proved by the findings of the interviews (see Example 41 in Sect. 3.2.2).

Two types of students were described on Timmis’ (2002, p. 242) questionnaire concerning pronunciation:

- Student A: “I can pronounce English just like a native speaker now. Sometimes people think I am a native speaker.”
- Student B: “I can pronounce English clearly now. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I still have the accent of my country.”

He reported that 67% of his student respondents and 27% of his teacher respondents preferred (their students) to be Student A. However, 32% of the students and 39% of the teachers preferred (their students) to be Student B. The rest 34% of teachers chose ‘no preference’ (this choice was not provided for Timmis’ student participants, nor did I include it in my questionnaire). The percentages of the students who preferred Student A and Student B in this chapter were 42% and 58%, respectively, and those of the teachers were 57% and 43%. The differences between the results of these two studies (see Table 3.32 for a summary) suggest that increasingly Chinese students, as they argued in the reasons for their choices (see Appendix H for more details), no longer set themselves a target as high as Standardized English for their pronunciation as long as they can communicate freely with others in English.

Table 3.32 Differences in participants’ preference for English pronunciation

Items	Student A		Student B		No preference
	Student (%)	Teacher (%)	Student (%)	Teacher (%)	Teacher (%)
Timmis’ participants ^a	67	27	32	39	34
Participants in this study ^b	42	57	58	43	/

Notes ^aN = 580 (400 students and 180 teachers); ^bN = 984 (795 students and 189 teachers)

Nonetheless, most of the teachers in this chapter still hoped that their students can acquire a native-like pronunciation. All in all, both Chinese students and teachers in this study expressed rather different expectations of English pronunciation from those of the participants in Timmis' study.

In addition to pronunciation, Timmis (2002) also tried to find out to what extent students wanted to conform to native-speaker grammatical norms. He found that, respectively, 14%, 14%, and 68% of the students preferred to be Student C, Student D, and Student E as described on his questionnaire (p. 244):

- Student C: "I can say everything that I want to say. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I use English my own way and sometimes I say things which native speakers think are grammar mistakes."
- Student D: "I know all the grammar rules I need so that I can say anything I want. I use these rules correctly, but sometimes English people use grammar that isn't in the grammar books and I don't want to learn this."
- Student E: "I use all the grammar rules that native speakers use, even the informal grammar native speakers use when they speak to each other."

About 22, 5, and 54% of his teacher respondents preferred their students to be Student C, Student D, and Student E in turn, and the rest of the 18% selected 'no preference' since they wanted to let their students make the decision for themselves (again, this choice was not provided for Timmis' student participants and all of the participants in this chapter). The results of this chapter were quite similar to Timmis' (2002) in that the participants showed a clear preference for NS norms (see Table 3.33 for more details).

Chinese participants in this chapter displayed some differences from the participants in Timmis' (2002) study in the preference of English pronunciation but some similarities in the preference of English grammar, which can be explained as follows: To encourage Chinese students to communicate orally in English, both the teachers and students should not focus so much attention on acquiring a native-like pronunciation; rather, some Chinese accents should be considered acceptable so long as they can express themselves fluently in English despite the fact that Standardized English is still regarded as the teaching model of listening and speaking. At the same time, to ensure their upward and outward mobility, the norms of reading and writing

Table 3.33 Differences in participants' preference for English grammar

Item	Student C		Student D		Student E		No preference
	Student (%)	Teacher (%)	Student (%)	Teacher (%)	Student (%)	Teacher (%)	Teacher (%)
Timmis' participants ^a	14	22	14	5	68	54	18
Participants in this study ^b	29	29	25	25	46	47	/

Notes ^aN = 580 (400 students and 180 teachers); ^bN = 984 (795 students and 189 teachers)

should still be based on a Standardized English model. This is, in a way, similar to Li's (2006a) teaching model, 'Standardized English plus' (see Sect. 3.6.3 for more details).

In sum, both the previous research (e.g., Hu, 2004, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2006b; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Li, 2006a, 2006b, 2007b) and this chapter agreed that teaching of university English in China should still adopt Standardized English as the teaching model, since an NS model "serves as a complete and convenient starting point, particularly with its social-cultural richness" (Kuo, 2006, p. 220). China English, however, might also be included as part of the model if it were codified and implemented systematically. Further, the findings in this study also suggest that both the teachers and learners themselves should be more tolerant of university students' Chinese accents in order to encourage them to speak English more, since the most serious problem they are facing is their poor communicative competence in English.

3.6.3 *On University English Curriculum Design in China*

According to Kirkpatrick (2002, p. 218), "any new English language curriculum for the region must give voice to local people". Therefore, he proposes that "the aims of a new curriculum and materials should be to motivate the learning of English by including Asian/ASEAN cultural content and promoting an Asian/ASEAN standard variety of English" in Asia or the ASEAN countries (p. 218). He also points out that the external cultures and varieties of English can also be included into the new curriculum to be characterized at least in part by features of the local variety of English and culture. In addition, he emphasizes three crucial principles that should be established in the minds of the learners while implementing the new curriculum, namely (pp. 218–219):

- English is used as a lingua franca throughout the South-East and East Asian region and that English is a language that is used by the people in the region to discuss regional affairs. The use of English between non-native speakers is much greater than the use of English between native speakers;
- Different cultures exist among the regions and the use of a local variety of English as a lingua franca allows people to learn about and discuss these cultures in a culturally appropriate form of English; and
- There are many varieties of English and that these differ phonologically, lexically, syntactically, at the levels of discourse and text, and in their use of cultural conversations and pragmatic norms. These differences cannot be treated as errors or deviant from some 'Anglo' norm.

In contrast with Kirkpatrick's design of a curriculum based on local cultural content and nativized variety of English, Li (2006a, 2007b) proposes a curriculum centered on Standardized English, which is named as 'Standardized English plus' (Li, 2006a, p. 125). In his curriculum, for the purpose of fostering learners' English listening and speaking skills (which he terms as 'communicative competence for

Table 3.34 David C. S. Li's needs-driven areas of competence in an ESL/EFL curriculum

Communicative competence for social interaction		Literacy-based competence for EAP/ESP purposes (genre-specific)	
Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Standardized English model (supplemented by ELF features)		Standardized English model (EAP/ESP)	

social interaction'), a standard variety of English should be adopted as the teaching model, "supplemented, where appropriate, by the corresponding linguistic and sociolinguistic patterns in the non-native (especially nativized) variety of English commonly used and heard in the region" (p. 126). At the same time, he insists that the standards of reading and writing should be focused on a model of Standardized English so as to "enable the more academically inclined learners to pursue higher education (including in English-L1 countries) and find work that requires native-like competence" (p. 126). He describes such competence as "literacy-based competence for EAP/ESP [English for academic or specific purpose] purposes" (p. 126). A summary of the two areas of competence and the respective target models is presented in Table 3.34 (reproduced from Li, 2006a, p. 126).

By and large, the ideal curriculum design derived from this chapter is similar to the one as proposed by Li (2006a), 'Standardized English plus'. This is said because the results of the present research show that Chinese teachers and students still hold on to Standardized English, which makes it impossible to implement a completely new curriculum as suggested by Kirkpatrick (2002). What distinguishes the curriculum adduced from the participants' preference in this chapter from Li's (2006a) proposed curriculum design is that the curriculum for Chinese university students on listening and speaking should be based on a Standardized English model supplemented by features of China English, since an overwhelming majority of Chinese non-English majors simply cannot meet the Standardized English level and meanwhile Lingua Franca English is by no means popular in China (see Example 45 and other related parts in Sect. 3.2.2 for more details). This is also in accordance with the trend of English being more widely used as a global language, and "lack of a native-speaker accent will not be seen, therefore, as a sign of poor competence" (Graddol, 2006, p. 117). Furthermore, as illustrated by Example 61 and other pertinent interview responses in Sect. 3.3.2, some teaching materials specific to Chinese culture should also be included into the new curriculum, which might help make English learning less exotic and more amiable to students.

However, as what Li (2007b) has pointed out, "from where we are to where we want to be, there is still a considerable distance". The curriculum blueprint outlined above, which deviates remarkably from the current NS-based English curriculum, can only be turned into reality on condition that China English has been well-codified and properly implemented at all linguistic levels: phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse-pragmatics. In addition, the realization of the curriculum design discussed above relies heavily on "a substantial overhaul of English language testing, given that

teachers and learners alike will be reluctant to embrace any curriculum change that is not reflected in the targets set by the major examination boards” (Jenkins, 2006c, p. 42).

3.6.4 On Students’ Preference of NETs Versus LETs for University English in China

Who will be the more preferred teachers for university English in China: the local English teachers or the native-speaking English teachers? This is one of the questions this chapter aims to address. Kirkpatrick (2002, p. 222) argues that the “trained, multilingual local non-native speakers with high proficiency in English” are the ideal English language teachers in the context of ASEAN because of the following reasons:

- They provide an appropriate and attainable model of the language;
- They provide a motivating example for their students;
- They have empathy for their students;
- They are linguistically sophisticated;
- They understand local cultural and educational traditions; and
- They represent an excellent educational investment.

In addition, he also points out the disadvantages of the monolingual native-speaking English teachers (p. 221):

- They will not speak the language of the students or the staff;
- They will not be able to contribute to the life of the school in any way;
- They will also be unfamiliar with the cultural and educational role expected of the teacher and the student in the local context;
- After a relatively short period of time, many will leave. This has to be a poor investment.

Although based on a “small number of participants” (p. 45), Jin (2005) concludes that a combination of both LETs and NETs should be the preferable selection of teachers for university English in China. What was found in the present chapter supports Jin’s conclusion. What is more, data in this chapter reinforce Jin’s (2005) suggestion that it is fairly important to provide more Chinese teachers with better opportunities to be trained and educated (especially in English-speaking countries) so that they can supply their students with teaching of higher quality. Besides, this chapter also suggests that more NETs should be employed to teach non-English majors rather than mainly English majors in Chinese universities. Only in this way

will it be hopeful for university students to learn English in a more conducive environment. By suggesting that it is necessary to recruit more NETs to teach university English, I mean that there are very few universities in China employing NETs to teach non-English majors nowadays. Nevertheless, many non-English majors, especially those with comparatively proficient English, do want to have some English courses taught by NETs. In other words, I do not mean to hire as many NETs as LETs for Chinese universities, which is practically impossible.

This chapter has reported the results and findings concerning China English and ELT reform in China, which are obtained from the three research instruments: the questionnaire survey, the match-guise technique, and the interviews. Some statistically significant differences among different participant groups in terms of their perceptions toward China English and Standardized English were also identified through the quantitative analysis using MANOVA. Put briefly, the findings of this chapter are: Standardized English is still generally considered as the desirable teaching model for university English in mainland China; University English should be preferably taught by both LETs and NETs; and the well-codified features of China English should be incorporated into the existing university English curriculum as acceptable variants. While reporting the results and findings, their implications for ELT and its reform in China were also discussed briefly. Then the findings from this chapter were compared with those in previous research mainly in four aspects, namely, the participants' familiarity with China English and World Englishes, the probability of adopting China English as part of the teaching model for university English in China, university English curriculum design in China, and the teacher preference for university English in China.

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Chapter 4

The Use of English in the Professional Workplace in China



In the context of English being a global lingua franca and China having the most English learners and users (more than 400 million) in the world, the status and use of English in mainland China have become a topic of intense interest for researchers. However, previous research has been mostly conducted within the field of education, with few data from the professional world, and the use of English in the professional world will partially be influenced by and then influence English language teaching. In other words, these two aspects are closely related to each other. Therefore, this chapter attempts to focus on the professionals in China and their use of English so as to provide a more complete perspective for ELT reform in China. The chapter has drawn data with a questionnaire from 2,247 participants in workplaces across China and 44 of them have been interviewed. The participants are from three types of organization: government, public service unit, and company. Although overall the use of English is not frequent in China's professional world, the results indicate that English is playing an important role in about a quarter of the participants' working lives and that the majority of the participants recognize the high and continually increasing importance of English in society. The results and findings also demonstrate that the 'company' participants (especially those working in the foreign-owned companies and China-foreign joint ventures) use English significantly much more frequently and rate its importance remarkably higher than those from the other two groups organizations.

4.1 The Necessity of Investigating into the Use of English in the Professional Workplace in China

It is nothing new to say that today's world has become a global village. When it comes to the common language of this village, it can be seen that English has grown from national language into the global lingua franca out of more than 6,000 languages in the world due to the influence of the UK and the US in turn (Graddol, 2006; He, 2017c; Jenkins, 2015; McArthur, 2006) and now English has become World Englishes (He,

2018a; Jenkins, 2015; Kachru, 1985; Li & He, 2020). One result of the widespread of English is that its non-native speakers now outnumber its native speakers by an increasingly large margin (He, 2015; Li, 2007b). Hence, it is believed that the center of the language has shifted from the Inner Circle countries to the Outer and Expanding Circle countries (Deterding, 2006; Ostler, 2005). One important consequence of this shift is that many of the Outer and Expanding Circle countries have developed their localized varieties of English and become norm-developing as well instead of completely norm-dependent as they used to be (Evans, 2011; Kachru & Smith, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2017a). Therefore, these new varieties of English, especially in Asia and Africa, have become the focus of research and debate in the field of World Englishes for the past three decades (Bolton, 2003; Deterding, 2007; Deterding & Salbrina, 2013; Kachru, 1985; Kirkpatrick, 2007b; Noor Azam Haji-Othman & McLellan, 2014; Xu, 2010b; Xu, He, & Deterding, 2017).

Ever since the Open Door Policy in the early 1980s, English has been promoted in China for more than three decades at different levels. At the government level, it has been promoted for the nation's development, modernization, and internationalization. At the personal level, it has been promoted for increasing individuals' upward and outward mobility. At the educational level, English (or another foreign language occasionally) is a required subject from primary three till Doctoral degree, and there are even Chinese-English bilingual kindergartens; and some content modules are taught using both Chinese and English as media of instruction at a number of mainstream schools and universities (Gao & Wang, 2016; He, 2015). As such, an increasingly large population in China are using English in their daily lives, with localized linguistic features, hence a new variety of English being on its way. As a developing variety of English, China English (or Chinese English) has attracted great attention from researchers since China is believed to have the largest English-learning and -using population in the world (Bolton, Graddol, & Mesthrie, 2011; Crystal, 2008; He, 2013; He, Ling, & McLellan 2021). In terms of language policy, China English is argued to be a variety that can satisfy learners' strong desire for English not at the expense of local indigenous languages and cultures (Fang, 2011; Li, 1993). For the past 40 years, the teaching, use, and development of English in China have always been hot issues that attract public concerns (Ge, 1980; He & Li, 2009; Jiang, 2002a; Schneider, Hundt, & Schreier, 2014; Wen, 2012b), and the keen interest in such issues seems unlikely to diminish (Graddol & Mesthrie, 2012) due to the common recognition that "English serves as a tool and symbol of modernization, globalization, and economic prosperity" (Schneider, 2014, p. 28).

However, nearly all the empirical studies concerning China English were conducted in the field of education (Bolton & Botha, 2015a; He & Miller, 2011; Hu, 2004, 2005; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Weihong Wang, 2015). As a result, one of the criticisms (or doubts) associated with China English is that voices from the actual users of English in everyday occasions (e.g., in the professional world) have seldom been reported (Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Yang & Zhang, 2015). For the further development of China English, there is "an evident need for more empirical field-based research on the current impact of English" (Bolton & Botha, 2015a, p. 208) and "a more detailed, finer-grained body of sociolinguistic research in this area" (Bolton

& Graddol, 2012, p. 7). This chapter attempts to narrow, if not bridge, this gap. In other words, this chapter endeavors to investigate the practical use of English in China's professional world covering as many industries as possible except for farming, forestry, animal husbandry, and fishing where English is barely used.

4.1.1 China English and the Professional World

As a nation with the largest population in the world, significant issues related to China cannot be ignored by other parts of the globe, especially in the background of China's fast economic growth and ever-increasing global influence in recent decades, and the development of English in China is no exception. With so many people learning and using English with inevitable cross-linguistic influence from their mother tongue, Chinese, it is reasonable to believe that a localized variety of English in China is coming into being and will eventually gain recognition (Eaves, 2011; He & Zhang, 2010).

The past three decades have witnessed a steadily growing research interest in China English from various perspectives, to name a few: the existence and definition of China English (Jiang & Du, 2003; Wang, 1991; Yan & Yin, 2009); awareness of and attitudes toward China English (Li, 1993, 2009); features of China English (Du, 1998; He & Li, 2009; Xu, 2010b); functions of China English (Hu, 2011; Jia & Xiang, 1997); applications of China English (Feng, 2013; Zhang, 2003); and implications of China English for ELT in China (He & Zhang, 2010; Jia & Xiang, 1997).

China is expected to soon own more English speakers than the UK and the USA combined. This indicates that China English is likely to become "a major Expanding Circle English in the years to come" (Xu, 2010b, p. 205) and exert considerable influence on the further development of the English language. "At that time, native speakers may even become irrelevant [...] and Chinese English will truly be in the forefront of the development of the language" (Deterding, 2006, p. 195). The scenarios depicted here are from two of the editors of a book on China English (Xu, He, & Deterding, 2017), which is consistent with Graddol's (Graddol, 2006, p. 15) observation that "Asia, especially India and China, probably now holds the key to the long-term future of English as a global language".

Given the astonishingly large number of English learners in China, "a key issue is the relationship between the learning of English and the actual use of the language" (Bolton & Botha, 2015b, p. 169). Although the exact number of English users in China, especially in the professional world, is lacking, according to a national survey conducted between 1999 and 2001 to a sample of 165,000 households in China (Wei & Su, 2012), about 390 million people had learnt some English around the year of 2000, and 7.3% of them 'often' used English in their daily lives, 23.3% 'sometimes', and 69.4% 'seldom' used. That is, 30.6% (7.3% + 23.3%) of the Chinese who had learnt English used it in their daily lives. The use of English in China can be found in various domains including education as the main one and some other minor-scale use in international trade and business, hotels, tourism, and media and communications

and so on. However, our knowledge about “other uses of the language within China is limited” except for the education domain (Bolton & Graddol, 2012, p. 7).

On the basis of a survey involving 260 parents of pupils and middle school students in Wei (2010) reported that 52% of the participants did not know English, 24–33% knew some English but seldom used it despite the convenient access to English and 15–24% used English in their everyday lives. It is believed that the comparatively low English proficiency level is one of the main reasons leading to Chinese people’s low frequency of English use since only 21.9% of the respondents self-reported that they could conduct everyday conversations in English and 28.8% could read passages in English (Wei & Su, 2011, 2012).

The limited literature on the practical use of English in China indicates that the language is not used frequently, then what is it like when it comes to Chinese people’s practical need for English in their work? According to another survey carried out between 2009 and 2010 to 5,636 urban residents in China, respectively, 22.3% and 35.7% of the participants needed foreign language(s) and needed to relearn foreign language(s) in their work (Lu & Zhang, 2012). Although Lu and Zhang’s study is about foreign language(s) learning in China, it should be noted that 93.8% of these learners are learning (or have learnt) English (Wei & Su, 2012).

In view of the above statistics from previous research, it seems that people who use English in their everyday lives and work do not account for a significant proportion of the whole English learning population in China. However, this proportion still indicates an enormous number of people when considering the magnitude of the country’s population, and these people do have a practical need for English in their work. The influence brought (or to be brought) by these people through their use of English to the language itself cannot be underestimated, not to mention that the number of such people is still growing (Fan, Hu, & Jenkins, 2017; He, 2017b). On the other hand, from what has been reviewed so far, it can be observed that relevant literature on the practical use of English in Chinese people’s professional work is still lacking. Therefore, this chapter makes an effort to contribute some baseline data and literature to this field. Specifically, I aim to explore the following issues in China’s professional workplace:

- (1) the language choice;
- (2) the frequency of the use of English;
- (3) the importance of languages; and
- (4) the use of English by types of organization, ownership of company and industries.

4.1.2 Data Collection and Participants for English Use in China’s Professional World

The data for English use in China’s professional world were collected through a questionnaire survey and interview. The questionnaire (see Appendix I) was adapted

from *Language use in the professional world* developed by Evans (2011) to suit the context of China. Evans' original questionnaire includes 73 items, the one used in this study has 79 by removing his last ten items and another one concerning 'Cantonese' and adding 17 others (see Items 3, 9, 24, 26, 27, 37, 38, 39, 47, 48, 49, 50, 59, 64, 65, 73, and 74 in Appendix I). It elicits data on four aspects: participants' demographic information, general pattern of language choice and use (English vs. Chinese), frequency of the use of English, and importance of languages in both written and spoken communications in workplaces in China. Pilot tests of the adapted questionnaire with 30 professionals yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from 0.808 to 0.892 for the different sections, which are slightly lower than Evans' results but still indicate that the internal reliability of the present questionnaire is robust (cf., George & Mallery, 2003).

For the purpose of data-source cross-validation, 44 (22 males and 22 females) of these participants (i.e., about 2%) were also interviewed. They were asked three questions on the importance of English and the acceptability of China English. Most of the interviews were done via WeChat (a Chinese mobile communication software similar to WhatsApp) or QQ (also known as Tencent QQ, a Chinese instant messaging software service similar to Skype) except for the two interviewees from Shanghai. Permissions were obtained from the interviewees to record their interviews. For better communication, all of them were interviewed in Putonghua, so there was no direct assessment of English proficiency, which helped the interviewees feel at ease. The transcriptions of the interviews were later translated into English.

The questionnaire was firstly administered to 2,505 participants working at different levels in various industries in China with the help of 389 students at a university in Shanghai, China. This is a key university that takes students from all over the country. These students were asked to help distribute the questionnaire or forward the link of the online version to their parents and relatives who again approached their colleagues and friends for help with the survey. In so doing, this study secured data from different parts of China and various industries, but meanwhile such a snow-ball sampling method diminished the participants' representativeness of the whole population in the professional world in China. There were few (0.3%) participants aged 55 or above and the participants' educational level was comparatively high (78.1% with a bachelor's degree or above). A probability sample is hard to obtain due to the nature of this data collection being a non-government-initiated investigation. The questionnaire was distributed in three ways: hard copies (242), electronic copies (189), and online version (2,074) through an online survey system. Among these responses, 2,247 (89.7%) were valid.

Of the 2,247 participants, 1,259 (56.0%) were females and 988 (44.0%) males; 427 (19.0%) had 5 years or less of English learning experience, 938 (41.7%) 6–10 years, 532 (23.7%) 11–14 years, and 350 (15.6%) 15 years or more; 140 (6.2%) achieved a highest educational level of senior high school or equivalent, 350 (15.6%) higher diploma, 1,239 (55.1%) Bachelor's degree, 434 (19.3%) Master's degree, and 84 (3.7%) Doctoral degree. It can be seen that the majority of the participants were well-educated with more than 6 years of English learning experience. As for the age distribution, most of the participants were in their 40s, late 20s, or early 30s (see

Table 4.1 Age distribution of the participants (N = 2,247)

	24 or below	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	50–54	55 or above
Number	281	442	295	175	377	587	83	7
Percentage	12.5	19.7	13.1	7.8	16.8	26.1	3.7	0.3

Table 4.2 Years of working experience of the participants (N = 2,247)

	≤5	6–10	11–15	16–20	21–25	26–30	31–35	36–40	≥41
Number	657	328	153	363	484	211	43	8	0
Percentage	29.2	14.6	6.8	16.2	21.5	9.4	1.9	0.4	0.0

Table 4.3 Geographical spread of the participants (N = 2,247)

	NE	NC	EC	SC	YeR	YaR	SW	NW
Participant number	205	287	503	232	212	259	371	178
Participant percentage	9.1	12.8	22.4	10.3	9.4	11.5	16.5	7.9
Population distribution percentage	8.0	14.7	11.7	11.2	14.2	17.6	18.0	4.6

Note NE (northeast): Heilongjiang, Jilin, Liaoning; NC (north coast): Beijing, Tianjin, Shandong, Hebei; EC (east coast): Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang; SC (south coast): Fujian, Guangdong, Hainan; YeR (the middle reaches of the Yellow River): Henan, Shaanxi, Shanxi, Inner Mongolia; YaR (the middle reaches of the Yangtze River): Hubei, Hunan, Anhui, Jiangxi; SW (southwest): Guangxi, Yunnan, Guizhou, Sichuan, Chongqing; NW (northwest): Tibet, Xinjiang, Qinghai, Gansu, Ningxia

Table 4.1). Up to 43.8% of the participants had worked for 10 years or less, but the survey included a lot of experienced professionals as well (see Table 4.2).

With regard to the rank in job, 538 (23.9%) of the participants were senior staff, 814 (36.2%) junior staff, and the remaining 895 (39.8%) were in middle rank. The participants were from three types of organization: government (i.e., civil service, 230 people, 10.2%), public service unit (e.g., schools and hospitals, 713, 31.7%), and company (1,304, 58.0%). Among those working in company, 832 (63.8%) were in China-owned companies, 336 (25.8%) in foreign-owned, and 134 (10.3%) in China-foreign joint ventures. They were working in 35 industries¹ in all eight China's economic regions. Table 4.3 illustrates the geographical spread of the participants, including each region's population percentage against mainland China's

¹The 35 industries and the related percentages are: finance (10.9%), education (including research, 10.7%), manufacturing (9.7%), trade (7.8%), government (7.2%), service industry in broad sense (excluding those specified in this list, 5.6%), medical industry (5.6%), construction (3.4%), media and communication (3.1%), information technology (2.5%), energy (2.5%), internet (2.4%), logistics (2.3%), clothing (2.1%), retail (2.0%), transportation (1.9%), engineering (1.9%), advertising (1.8%), insurance (1.6%), publishing (1.6%), telecommunication (1.4%), tourism (1.4%), public relations (1.3%), real estate (1.2%), marketing (1.2%), environmental protection (1.0%), optics (1.0%), catering (0.9%), law (0.9%), textile (0.8%), agricultural technology (0.8%), electronics (0.6%), military (0.6%), chemical industry (0.5%), and entertainment (0.3%).

whole population. Four of the eight participant percentages basically match the corresponding regions' (i.e., NE, NC, SC, and SW) population distribution percentages. The percentage for each region's population against that of mainland China is from the National Bureau of Statistics of China.² A noticeable mismatch goes to the EC region, since the university whose students helped administer the questionnaires is based in this region hence a comparatively large proportion of participants in the region. This diminishes the representativeness of the current sample to a certain degree.

The interviewees were selected from 30 out of the 35 industries with at least four from each of the eight economic regions so as to make the interviewees as representative of the questionnaire participants as possible. The five industries from which no interviewee was selected were textile, agricultural technology, electronics, military, and entertainment. The participants from each of these five industries accounted for only 0.8% or less of the total questionnaire population; and the five industries belonged to the least six in terms of participant percentages as shown in Note 16. More details of the interviewees can be found in their codes. The codes of each interviewee include the information below in turn: gender (F–female, M–male); industries ('1'–'29' stand for 'finance' to 'law', respectively, as listed in Note 16 above, '30'—'chemical industry'); economic regions ('NE'–'NW' for 'northeast' to 'northwest', respectively, as shown in Table 4.3 and the related note); type of organization and ownership of company ('G'–'government', 'P'–'public service unit', 'C'–'China-owned company', 'F'–'Foreign-owned company', 'J'–'China-foreign joint venture'). For example, F-4-NE-F refers to a female interviewee from a foreign-owned trading company in Northeast China.

The questionnaire data underwent descriptive analyses in terms of overall frequencies (percentages and means) with SPSS. The results show that there is a certain use of English in China's professional world, but the pattern of use is skewed heavily toward types of organizations and industries. Sections 4.2–4.5 present the overall trends of language choice and use of English of the full sample, then reports the more informative trends related to organization types and industries.

4.2 The Pattern of Language Choice in China's Workplace

Section 2.1 of the questionnaire (see Appendix I) is centered on language choice (English vs. Chinese) in written communication (reading or writing), which includes 15 items on a five-point Likert scale. A preliminary frequency analysis found that 25.5% of the participants used English and Chinese equally at work or used more English than Chinese. Given the fact that they were using English in a Chinese-dominant society, their use of English was considered fairly frequent if they used

²National Bureau of Statistics of China. 2014. Zhongguo zongrenkou ji gesheng renkou [China's total population and the population in each province/autonomous region/municipality]. <http://www.mnw.cn/news/shehui/726472.html>.

English and Chinese equally. About 39% of them still used English sometimes (i.e., usually Chinese) while the rest (35.4%) never used English (i.e., always Chinese) at work. The top five types of text the participants chose to write or read in English are: professional journals/magazines, websites, external email messages, promotional materials, and letters.

Regarding spoken communication (speaking or listening, see Sect. 2.2 of the questionnaire), 20.9% of the participants most likely spoke or listened to English at work, 78.7% of them most likely communicated in Chinese, while the other 0.4% most likely used other Chinese dialects or foreign languages. The top five situations in which the participants chose to speak or listen to English are: job interviews, formal meetings/negotiations, conferences, seminars, and presentations.

4.3 The Use of English in China's Workplace

Sections 3.1–3.3 of the questionnaire (see Appendix I) examine the frequency of using English for various professional purposes on a six-point Likert scale ranging from '1'–'never' to '6'–'always' (almost every day). Table 4.4 displays such frequencies of writing, reading, speaking, and listening in English, respectively.

It is found that 21.4% (12.4% + 7.5% + 1.5%) of the participants wrote in English sometimes or more frequently, while 13.8% of them used some English though not very often in written communication. The rest of them seldom or never wrote in English at work. The top five types of text written in English in terms of frequency are: external emails, letters, Skype/QQ, promotional materials, and reports.

When it comes to reading in English, 24.0% (14.5% + 7.8% + 1.7%) of the participants sometimes or more frequently read in English at work, and 20.1% of them did not very often read in English, while the others seldom or never read in English at work. The top five types of text the participants read in English in terms of frequency are: websites, external emails, professional journals/magazines, letters, and promotional materials. Three types of text (i.e., external emails, letters, and promotional materials) are found to appear in both writing and reading top five lists.

With regard to the frequency of speaking or listening to English in the workplace, 19.0% (9.5% + 7.9% + 1.6%) of the participants sometimes or more frequently spoke or listened to English at work, and 15.7% of them did not very often speak or listen

Table 4.4 Frequency of English use in the professional workplace (N = 2,247)

Mode of communication	Never (%)	Seldom (%)	Not very often (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Always (%)
Writing	37.4	27.4	13.8	12.4	7.5	1.5
Reading	34.1	21.8	20.1	14.5	7.8	1.7
Speaking or listening	40.0	25.3	15.7	9.5	7.9	1.6

to English, while the rest seldom or never did so. The top five speaking or listening situations are: telephoning, formal meetings/negotiations, seminars, Skype/QQ, and informal meetings/discussions.

4.3.1 Use of English by Types of Organization

In terms of types of organization, 82.3% of the participants who read and wrote English frequently were from companies and the rest (17.7%) from public service units, with none of them from the government. For those from companies, 57.1% were from foreign-owned companies, 23.2% from China-foreign joint ventures, 18.1% from China-owned companies, and the remaining 1.6% did not report their ownership of company.

When it comes to spoken communication, 66.6% of the participants who opted for English frequently were from companies and 33.4% from public service units. For those from companies, 59.6% were from foreign-owned companies, 21.6% from China-foreign joint ventures, 18.2% from China-owned companies, and the rest (6.1%) did not report their ownership of the company.

Figure 4.1 shows the overall means each type of organization scored in three aspects of using English. First of all, the 'company' participants demonstrated the highest frequency of using English in all the three aspects at work among the three types of participants whereas the 'government' ones the least. Secondly, all the three types of participants displayed a lowest frequency of speaking/listening in English, whereas for the use of written English the 'company' and 'public-service-unit' participants tended to read in English more frequently and the 'government' participants write in English more frequently.

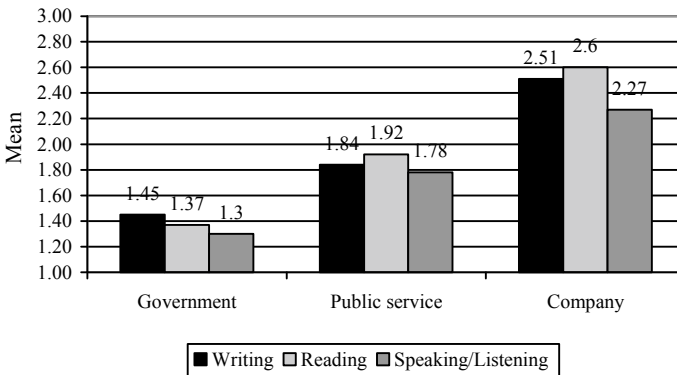


Fig. 4.1 Use of English by types of organization (N = 2,247), Scale: 1 = Never, 2 = Seldom (once/twice a year), 3 = Not very often (once/twice every 4 months), 4 = Sometimes (once/twice a month), 5 = Often (once/twice a week), 6 = Always (almost every day)

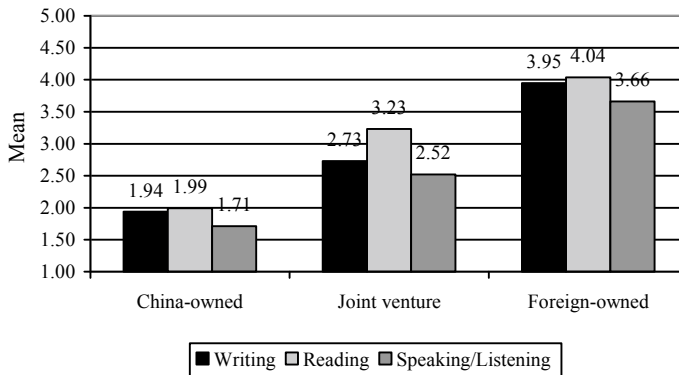


Fig. 4.2 Use of English by ownership of company (N = 1,304), Scale: 1 = Never, 2 = Seldom (once/twice a year), 3 = Not very often (once/twice every 4 months), 4 = Sometimes (once/twice a month), 5 = Often (once/twice a week), 6 = Always (almost every day)

4.3.2 Use of English by Ownership of Company

There were three subgroups within the ‘company’ group according to ownership, namely, China-owned, foreign-owned, and China-foreign joint venture. Although it is not surprising to find that people working in foreign-owned companies used English most frequently and those in China-owned companies least frequently, the mean scores of the three groups are in striking contrast, as shown in Fig. 4.2. Such contrast denotes that the linguistic environment in workplace, such as having foreign colleagues and supervisors around, the amount of exposure to English, the need to communicate in English, is one of the decisive elements for the use of English by ‘company’ people. Moreover, all the three subgroups read in English the most at work and spoke/listened in English the least.

4.3.3 Use of English by Industries

A further analysis of those who chose to use written English frequently (25.5% of the full sample) revealed that they were from 21 out of the 35 industries in the following order of frequency of English use: trade, finance, education, manufacturing, media and communication, service, information technology, internet, medical industry, public relations, engineering, transportation, clothing, tourism, retail, advertising, real estate, chemical industry, energy, catering, and optics.

With regard to spoken communication at work, participants who most likely spoke or listened to English (20.9% of the full sample) were from 19 industries, and 18 of them were the same as those mentioned above in written communication: trade, finance, education, manufacturing, tourism, medical industry, service, information

technology, media and communication, retail, internet, advertising, real estate, public relations, transportation, engineering, chemical industry, and energy. The last one was construction. It can be seen that trade, finance, education, and manufacturing were the four industries where English was used most frequently in terms of both written and spoken communication.

4.4 The Importance of and Changes in the Importance of Languages

4.4.1 *The Importance of Languages Used in China's Workplace*

Participants were asked to rate the importance of Putonghua, written Chinese, spoken English, written English, the spoken of another language/dialect they specified, and the written form of the language they specified (if applicable) in their job on a six-point Likert scale, with '1' indicating 'completely unimportant' and '6' 'extremely important' (see Sect. 4.1 of the questionnaire in Appendix I for details). The results (see Table 4.5) show that 89.1% (15.6% + 20.9% + 52.6%) of the participants believed that Putonghua was important or very important or extremely important, while the rest of them attached some or no importance to Putonghua. As for written Chinese, 91.3% (15.0% + 22.7% + 53.6%) of them considered it important or very important or extremely important. With regard to spoken and written English, the two cumulative percentages of importance are: 52.0 (11.5% + 12.5% + 28.0%) and

Table 4.5 Importance of languages in the professional workplace (N = 2,247)

	Completely unimportant (%)	Unimportant (%)	Of some importance (%)	Important (%)	Very important (%)	Extremely important (%)
Putonghua	2.2	1.6	7.2	15.6	20.9	52.6
Written Chinese	1.6	2.8	4.4	15.0	22.7	53.6
Spoken English	18.1	17.8	12.1	11.5	12.5	28.0
Written English	16.8	19.6	11.8	10.6	12.1	29.0
Spoken form of another language/dialect (please specify: _____)	0.0	0.9	7.2	3.1	3.4	2.2
Written form of the language you specified (if applicable)	0.5	0.7	1.9	0.4	0.8	0.6

51.7 (10.6% + 12.1% + 29.0%). These percentages mean that more than half of the participants attached considerable importance to the English language, which indicates that English as a foreign language in China is playing a significant role in the professional world.

Only 16.8% of participants specified a spoken language/dialect other than Putonghua or spoken English used in their workplace, and only a little more than half of them (8.7%) considered their specified spoken language/dialect as important. For the written form of the language they specified, the percentages are even smaller, i.e., only 5.0% of the participants reported a written language other than Chinese or English used in their work and less than half of them (1.8%) regarded it as important. Much less use of languages/dialects other than Chinese or English also indicates that Chinese and English are the main languages used in China’s workplace.

As illustrated in Fig. 4.3, a significant tendency is that all the three types of participants considered Chinese (both spoken and written forms) as much more important than English (spoken and written). Another tendency reveals that the ‘company’ participants attached the highest importance to both spoken and written English whereas the ‘government’ ones the lowest. This finding is in accordance with the frequency pattern of English use as demonstrated in Fig. 4.1. Furthermore, the ‘public-service-unit’ participants scored the highest means on Putonghua while the ‘government’ scored the lowest. One possible reason is that professionals in public service units (e.g., doctors and teachers) need to ensure efficient communication with people from all walks of life or people with varying ethnic/linguistic backgrounds via Putonghua, whereas government officers do not feel such an urgent need to speak Putonghua and are much likely to stick to their local dialect due to the influence of the deep-rooted ‘privilege mentality’ and bureaucracy in Chinese culture.

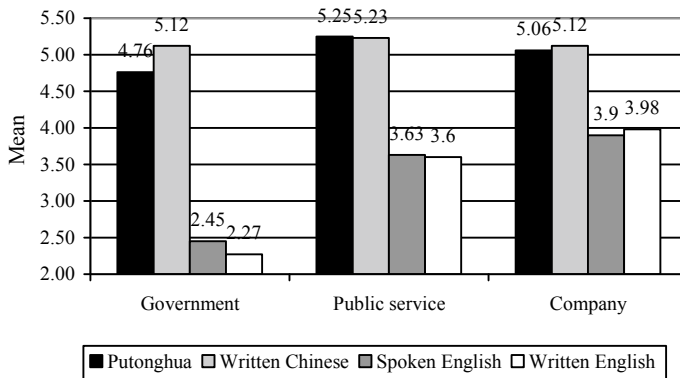


Fig. 4.3 Importance of languages by types of organization (N = 2,247), Scale: 1 = Completely unimportant, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Of some importance, 4 = Important, 5 = Very important, 6 = Extremely important

Table 4.6 The changes in the importance of languages in the professional workplace (N = 2,247)

	Less important	More important	About the same
Putonghua	6.9	30.5	62.6
Written Chinese	5.3	34.0	60.7
Spoken English	15.6	57.3	27.1
Written English	16.5	55.8	27.7
Spoken form of another language/dialect (please specify: _____)	2.5	8.1	6.2
Written form of the language you specified (if applicable)	0.9	2.5	1.6

4.4.2 *The Changes in the Importance of Languages Used in China's Workplace*

As demonstrated in Table 4.6, there were far more participants having noticed that English (57.3% for spoken English and 55.8 for written English) had become more important than Chinese (30.5% for Putonghua and 34.0% for written Chinese) had since they started work. Meanwhile, there were also more participants believing that English (15.6% for spoken English and 16.5% for written English) had become less important than Chinese (6.9% for Putonghua and 5.3% for written Chinese) had. It would be very interesting to find out the reason behind more participants noticing that English had become less important in their work than Chinese had. Consequently, there were significantly less participants arguing that the importance of English remained more or less the same than that of Chinese. Just like the importance of another language used in their workplace reported in Sect. 4.4.1, there were only about half (i.e., 8.1% out of 16.8% for the spoken form and 2.5% out of 5.0% for the written form) of participants had noticed that the third language/dialect other than Chinese and English used in their workplace had become more important.

As summarized and exemplified below, the findings of the interview questions were basically consistent with the questionnaire results. To Question 1: *Has English become more important in your work? Why or why not?* 29 (65.9%) of the 44 interviewees reported that English had become more important in their work. The reasons include: the need to communicate more with foreigners and English is the only lingua franca; English as a required medium for work (e.g., medium of instruction); English as a tool to access foreign knowledge and information; among others. Below are two examples:

[Example 65] I think English has become more important in my work, since I am working in a foreign-owned company, and I have both supervisors and colleagues who speak English and other foreign languages, and our work language is English. Besides, we have more business in foreign countries in recent years. (F-4-NE-F)

[Example 66] Yes, English has become definitely more important for my work, since the university has been asking us to offer some of our modules in English in recent years,

and we also need to publish in international academic journals, which means in English. (M-2-YeR-P)

Five (11.4%) of them answered ‘not sure’ since they thought the importance of English remained more or less the same in their work. The other ten (22.7%) claimed that English had become less important in their work because they usually did not use English, as shown in Example 67.

[Example 67] I think it is becoming less important since my colleagues and I seldom, if not ‘not at all’, use English in our work. I have almost forgotten all about English. (M-5-NW-G)

To Question 2: *Will English become more or less important in China? Why?* 42 (95.5%) of them believed that English would become more important (see Examples 68–70 for details) whereas two of them said they did not know or it was hard to say. The reasons given by these 42 interviewees were listed here (in decreasing order of mentions):

- English is the global lingua franca;
- At a personal level, English is a must to improve the outward and upward mobility;
- China is widening her Open Door Policy, so more foreigners will come to China;
- China is playing a more important role in the world than ever before;
- English is useful for the purpose of entertainment and leisure;
- More Chinese enterprises are establishing a business in foreign countries;
- There is an increasing need for mutual communication between Chinese people and foreigners, but Mandarin is much more difficult than English, so Chinese people feel obliged to learn English.

[Example 68] More important. Since China is becoming more open to the outside world and we can see more and more foreigners coming to China for sight-seeing and also experiencing Chinese culture. Besides, China is doing business with foreign countries all over the world. I even heard that my company is thinking about setting up a branch in the US. Some of my colleagues are re-learning English now, hoping to work in the US branch. (F-22-SW-C)

[Example 69] It will be definitely ‘more important’ to me. Take my company as an example, I am in a pharmaceutical company co-invested by companies from both China and New Zealand. Our company is growing well and we have opened 2 branches in Australia and our next target market is Europe, so our company is in need for more talents proficient in English. (M-7-YaR-J)

[Example 70] English will be more and more important because China is playing a more and more important role in the world and we need to let the world realize this. But how? By publicity in English as it is the most widely used global language. We also need to introduce a more prosperous and beautiful China to the outside world. How? Of course, through English publicity too. Chinese people are also watching more and more movies, TV series and variety shows in English. So I can see no way that English won’t become more important in China. (M-9-NC-G)

To find out the interviewees’ perceptions of China English, I also asked them Question 3: *Do you know about China English? If yes, do you think it is acceptable or unacceptable? Why or why not?* 24 (54.5%) interviewees had heard of or read about China English. Among them, 18 regarded it as acceptable because it is inevitable

that China English will bear some Chinese characteristics due to the linguistic and cultural influences from their mother tongue and culture (see Example 71). One interviewee even discussed China English in spoken form and written form, arguing that the former is acceptable but not the latter (see Example 72). All the other six considered China English unacceptable because they mistook it as Chinglish (Chinglish is ‘*Zhongshi Yingyu*’ in Mandarin whereas China English is ‘*Zhongguo Yingyu*’). After being explained about the difference between the two terms, five of them changed their opinion and thought of China English as acceptable (see Example 73), but one interviewee still held a negative attitude toward it.

[Example 71] Yes, I have heard of it. I think it is inevitable for us to speak English in the Chinese way, since we are using it in China, our own language will influence on the way we use it. Sometimes you can only express some ideas in China English, for example, when you wanna introduce a Chinese food to a foreigner, how can you do it without China English? (M-20-SC-P)

[Example 72] Yes, I know. I think it is acceptable in oral English but not in written English. In oral English, it doesn’t matter what kind of English you are speaking as long as you can get yourself understood by others. In written English, we have time to think about and read and even re-read our words, so we still need to follow standardized English if we are able to. (F-1-EC-F)

[Example 73] Yes, but I think Chinglish is poor English, and it may not be understood by foreigners.

Interviewer: Sorry for my interruption, but I need to clarify something. I am asking you about China English, not Chinglish. China English is a variety of English which has the standardized Englishes as its core but is colored with characteristic features of Chinese phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse pragmatics, and which is particularly suited for expressing content ideas specific to Chinese culture. For example, ‘long time no see’ is considered China English while ‘good good study’ [‘hao hao xuexi’ in Mandarin, literally means ‘study hard’] is Chinglish.

M-18-EC-C: Oh, in that case, I think it is acceptable. (M-18-EC-C)

Among those 20 interviewees who did not know about China English, 11 of them thought that they could accept it after being explained what China English is as shown in Example 73, four of them did not take side while the remaining five regarded it as nonstandard hence unacceptable. To sum up, 34 (77.3%) of all the interviewees agreed that China English is acceptable.

4.5 Language Ability in China’s Workplace

As shown in Table 4.7, most of the participants (89.6%) self-indicated their Putonghua as ‘good’ (15.7%), ‘very good’ (31.8%), or ‘excellent’ (42.1%) while only 10.5% of them self-rated their Putonghua as ‘poor’, ‘somewhat poor’, or ‘not good’. Similarly, even more participants (94.1%) self-reported their written Chinese as ‘good’, ‘very good’, or ‘excellent’. So we can see that a few more participants

Table 4.7 Language ability in the professional workplace (N = 2,247)

	Poor (%)	Somewhat poor (%)	Not good (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)	Excellent (%)
Putonghua	1.5	1.9	7.1	15.7	31.8	42.1
Written Chinese	0.9	2.2	2.8	22.7	31.2	40.2
Spoken English	24.1	12.7	19.6	18.1	18.1	7.5
Written English	24.3	12.8	16.5	20.2	17.4	8.7
Spoken form of another language/dialect (please specify: _____)	1.2	3.4	0.9	2.2	3.4	5.3
Written form of the language you specified (if applicable)	0.7	1.9	0.5	1.0	0.3	0.2

believed that their written Chinese is ‘good’ or above than those for their Putonghua, which is understandable because no matter whether these participants’ first spoken language/dialect is Putonghua or not, their written language of education is written Chinese.

On the contrary, most of the participants self-indicated their spoken English (56.4%) and written English (53.6%) as ‘poor’, ‘somewhat poor’, or ‘not good’ while, respectively, 43.6% and 46.3% of the participants self-rated their spoken English and written English as ‘good’, ‘very good’, or ‘excellent’. One reason for more participants regarding their written English as ‘good’ or above than those for spoken English is because English teaching in China has emphasized more on written than spoken. It should be pointed out that the difference between the participants’ self-indicated ability for their Chinese (i.e., ‘good’ or above and ‘not good’ or below) is significant while that for their English is not.

4.6 Implications for ELT Reform in China

Bolton and Botha (2015a, p. 207) have pointed out that “the effects of globalization are particularly felt in Asian societies” (see also Bolton, 2013), and therefore English as the most widely used global language is playing an increasingly important role nowadays in this part of the world, and China is no exception. What has been presented in this chapter resonates with this trend in some way. Although the overall percentages of people using English in their workplace do not seem to be high (with 25.5% and 20.9% for written and spoken communication, respectively), the prospect of the use of English in China and hence of China English as a developing variety is worthy of looking forward to, especially when considering the following facts.

First of all, there is an astonishingly large number of people learning English in China and this number is still increasing. For example, statistics show that there were more than 183.97 million students receiving formal classroom English instruction in the country in 2018.³ Graddol (2010, p. 14) also argues that “China may already have more people who speak English than India”. Take the professional world, for example, the use of English has become more common over the past two decades. As shown by the results of the present study, the participants used English frequently in professional communications like external email messages, promotional materials, letters, formal meetings/negotiations, seminars, professional journals/magazines, and websites. The ‘company’ group in this study exhibited a clear tendency to use English quite frequently in their work and attached significant importance to English in their professional communications. Professionals working in companies, especially in foreign-capital enterprises and joint ventures, tend to be the major users of English in China’s professional world and to play a leading role in shaping the future of English in China.

Second, as reported earlier, more than half of the participants held the opinion that English is important. This will naturally lead to the continuing booming and promotion of learning and using English in China. Specifically, about 52% of the participants in this study believed that English is important while only about 36% of them considered it unimportant. The interview findings confirmed the importance of English in that most (65.9%) of the interviewees considered that English had become more important in their work, and nearly all (95.5%) of them believed it will become more important in China. In addition, the majority (77.3%) of the interviewees perceived China English as acceptable. The interview data also provided evidence about the sociolinguistic need and basis for the use and development of China English.

Third, English is not only being learnt but also used in many domains in China, to name a few, business and trade, hotel and tourism, research and development, and media and communication. Many participants in this study who reported to use English frequently in their workplace were also from diversified industries, as mentioned earlier in the previous section. Take academic research as an example, China is now the third-largest producer of international research articles, after the EU bloc and the US. ‘The number of papers authored by Chinese scientists grew an average of more than 15% annually between 2001 and 2011, rising from three percent of global research article output to 11% over the decade’ (Morrison, 2014). Bolton and Botha (2015b, p. 173) also stated that “China’s increasing spending on research, and the growing proportion of research articles in leading journals ... entails a proficiency in English as the international academic lingua franca”.

Last but not least, China is in great shortage of professionals proficient in English, especially in fields like finance, trade, engineering, chemical industry, information technology, international laws, media and communication, and tourism (Zhang,

³Ministry of Education. (2019). Geji gelei xueli jiaoyu xuesheng qingkuang [Number of students of formal education by type and level]. http://www.moe.gov.cn/s78/A03/moe_560/jytjsj_2018/qg/201908/t20190812_394239.html.

2007). The results and findings from this chapter also showed that these industries (except for international laws) were those where English was frequently used. Ever since 2004, China's economy has developed very fast and become increasingly influential in the global economy. China's nominal gross domestic product was US\$1.93 trillion and positioned number six globally in 2004 (Chen, 2005) and was US\$14.14 trillion and number two in 2019 (Wikipedia, 2019). With the economic development, more Chinese enterprises have invested in other parts of the world. China's overseas direct investment was more than her foreign direct investment for the first time in 2014 (Lu, 2015). China is practicing her influence not only in the economic field but also in many other fields such as culture and education. China has now become the third-largest cultural product exporting country after the UK and the US (Wan, 2011) and the third most favored nation of international students after the US and the UK (Chhaphia, 2014). However, if the nation intends to keep on her development and internationalization, the practical need for English promotion in China cannot be ignored, especially among people working for the government and public service units as suggested by the results and findings from this chapter. The enhancement of the English proficiency of these two groups of people will undoubtedly help to improve their overall service and support for the development of the country. What has been found here helps to explain why most of the interviewees in the current study believe that English has and will become more important in their workplace in China.

To conclude, on the basis of a large-scale questionnaire investigation and interviews, this chapter has reported the language choice and use pattern in China's professional world. Although the use of English by the participants from various domains in China is not so prevalent, the significant importance they lay on the language cannot be ignored. What is more, the percentages, though not high, of people using English in workplace do indicate a very large English-using population considering the tremendous number of English learners in China. The findings highlight China's great need for professionals with sound English proficiency and also suggest that China English is still at its developing stage. There surely will be a long way to go before it develops into a well-codified, well-promoted, and well-accepted variety. As one motive behind this investigation, the findings from this chapter provide some empirical support for the necessity and practicality of the development of China English as a new variety from the perspective of its use in the professional world. If English promotion is a must in China as discussed previously, in the long run it will be necessary and practical to recognize the legitimacy of China English on a par with standardized Englishes since it is believed that English learners and users in China will develop a stronger sense of ownership of English and feel more confident while using it (He, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2007b). The legitimacy and recognition may become a reality since English is already "being shaped, in its international uses, at least as much by its non-native speakers as its native speakers" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7) and "variation in English is inevitable in any society where it is widely used" (Deterding & Salbrina, 2013, p. 7). In reality, "various cultures throughout the world have adopted and re-invented English" (Davis, 2010, p. 26). While China English contains irreplaceable local characteristics, it is a more suitable choice rather than

other English varieties in the context of China (Yun, 2013). All these will have great implications for the ELT teaching and reform in China as ELT and the development of China English will influence each other.

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Chapter 5

China English and the Use of English in China: Present and Prospects



The last chapter concludes that China English has become an eye-catching social phenomenon in China and may influence Asia, if not the whole world, since Professor Andy Kirkpatrick (2007b, p. 151) predicted more than 10 years ago that China English “is soon likely to become the most commonly spoken variety of English in Asia” due to China’s rapid economic growth and global influence. Therefore, for the purpose of ensuring students’ better upward and outward mobility as well as enhancing their learning effectiveness, the present native-speaker based teaching model should be supplemented with salient, well-codified, and properly implemented features of China English and World Englishes. As for the curriculum design, it is also suggested that some teaching materials focused on Chinese culture and society should be included into the new curriculum in addition to the cultural content of English-speaking countries. With the globalization of English, more and more nativized varieties of English have/will come into existence, and native speakers of English are already outnumbered by non-native speakers. Just like China, other Outer and Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1985) might also face similar problems as discussed in this book (e.g., the pedagogic model, curriculum design, and use of English in the professional world). Therefore, it may be a fruitful endeavor to undertake similar studies in any of these countries (e.g., Korea, Indonesia, and Egypt). Such studies can be very meaningful and important for yielding more empirical findings in the field of World Englishes and accordingly in the teaching of English as a Lingua Franca in the world.

5.1 China English and the Use of English in China: Present Situation and Current Issues

The main purpose of this book is to study some aspects of China English and the use of English in China. Specifically, this book intends to identify Chinese university students’ and their teachers’ perceptions of China English and the ideal pedagogic

model for university English in mainland China and to explore the professional use of English in China's workplace. Based on previous research, a definition for China English is developed in Chap. 2. The results and findings of this book show that this definition is acceptable, at least to most of the teachers and learners of university English sampled in this book, and that China English is still a promising and developing variety of English.

In addition, it is found that the use of the current pedagogic model (i.e., the exonormative native-speaker model) is not a perceived reason for Chinese students' less-than-satisfactory English learning effectiveness and it is still necessary to go on adopting the standard British (e.g., Received Pronunciation) or American (e.g., General American) English as the teaching model for university English in China. However, for the purpose of ensuring students' better upward and outward mobility as well as enhancing their learning effectiveness, this teaching model should be supplemented with salient, well-codified, and properly implemented features of China English.

As for the curriculum design, the findings of this book suggest that some well-codified characteristics of China English and World Englishes should be incorporated into the present curriculum for university students in China in spite of the participants' strong preference for Standardized English. Furthermore, it is also suggested in this book that some teaching materials focused on Chinese culture should be included into the new curriculum in addition to the cultural content of English-speaking countries.

Following that, it is revealed that non-English majors prefer to be taught by both the local English teachers and the native-speaking English teachers, since they need to benefit from the strong points of these two types of teachers. In addition, for the purpose of providing students of university English a better English learning environment, this study suggests that more LETs should have a chance to be trained in English-speaking countries and that more NETs with appropriate qualifications should be recruited to teach them.

Moreover, various and considerable differences regarding the conceptions of the items mentioned above (i.e., the ideal teaching model, the curriculum design, and students preference of NETs vs. LETs for university English in China) are identified among multiple groups of participants (i.e., between students of the key university and those of the second-tier universities, among students of different disciplines, between teacher and student participants, between students of Year-1 & Year-2 and those of Year-3 & Year-4, and between male and female participants). However, further studies are recommended to ascertain as well as address the underlying reasons for these differences.

Last but not least, it has also been reported that English has been used in more and more domains (e.g., finance, manufacturing, media and communication, information technology, internet) in China in addition to the traditional areas like education, international trade, hotel, and tourism. Although English is not used so frequently in some of these domains, it is believed that English will be more important in the future with the continuing internationalization. In addition, it is found that China English is believed to be acceptable in China's workplace and that ELT in China should be reformed in line with the professional development and need in the workplace.

To sum up, the findings of this book are, on the whole, consistent with those of previous research (e.g., Bolton & Botha, 2015a; Deterding, 2006, 2017; He, 2007, 2015, 2017b, 2017c; He & Li, 2009; He & Miller, 2011; He & Zhang, 2010; Hu, 2004, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2006b, 2017a; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Li, 2006b, 2007b, 2018; Liang, 2015; Liang & Li, 2017; Xu, 2005, 2010a, 2010b; Xu, Deterding, & He, 2017a, 2017b). Nevertheless, some main differences between this book and the previous studies are also identified. They are briefly recapped below:

- The evidence from the present study suggests that Hu (2004) might be too optimistic about the possibility for China English to be accepted as an independent variety of English in the future;
- Compared with previous research, the findings of this book also indicate that it is better for teachers and students of university English themselves to be more tolerant of university students' Chinese accents in English learning so as to encourage them to speak English more, and consequently improve their communicative competence in English; and
- Additionally, the results and findings in this book suggest that the desirable curriculum is the one based on Standardized English but supplemented by salient features of China English when considering the need to foster Chinese university students' listening and speaking skills. This is a little different from the 'Standardized English plus' curriculum proposed by Li (2006b).

On the basis of the results and findings from this book, two issues concerning the present situation of China English needing attention are the participants' preference for the pedagogic model to be adopted and the curriculum to be implemented for university English in China in the context of World Englishes. As reviewed in Chap. 1, with the globalization and indigenization of English, there are increasing doubts about the necessity and possibility of continuing to adopt Standardized English as the teaching model in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries (e.g., Alptekin, 2002; He & Li, 2009; He & Li, in press; He, Nur Raihan, Deterding to appear; He & Zhang, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2006b; Li, 1998, 2006b, 2007b; Li & He, 2020; Medgyes, 1994; Prodromou, 2006). Although there have been some attempts to address the issues of the desirable teaching model and curriculum for university English in China, empirical studies, to my best knowledge, are minimal. Therefore, the ideal pedagogic model and curriculum design for teaching of university English in China proposed in this book provide a gap-filling empirical clarification of these issues.

The third issue on the current situation of China English and the use of English in China is related to the construction of the two questionnaires: (1) *Towards an ideal English pedagogic model for university students in mainland China* (see Appendices C and D), and (2) *Language use in the professional world* (see Appendix I). These two questionnaires were designed based on the findings of previous research and suited to accommodate the purposes of this book. They are believed to be handy instruments that adopt mainly a Likert scale for the participants to select their responses by evaluating their extent of agreement to each statement. The triangulation of various sources of data using the match-guise technique and interviews shows these two

questionnaires to be comparatively valid and reliable instruments. Therefore, they might be adapted and employed in other similar research on teaching model or use of English in the workplace in China and other cultures as well (especially in Asian regions).

The fourth issue related to the study of China English and the use of English in China is that we are short of literature published in English on the features of China English as well as the adoption of the pedagogic model, curriculum design, and students' preference of NETs vs. LETs for university English in China, and especially on the professional use of English in China's workplace. What is more, some of the previous studies used a single data collection method, without the cross-validation from other data source (e.g., Hu, 2004, 2005; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Zhang, 2003), and some were based on data obtained from a relatively small number of informants (e.g., Jin, 2005; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002). As is different from the previous research, the present study directly looked into Chinese participants' perceptions of the desirable teaching model, curriculum design, students' preference of NETs versus LETs for the teaching of university English in China and the professional use of English in China's workplace based on both quantitative and qualitative data collected from relatively large participant samples with three research instruments. As a result, I believe that this book could add more well-justified empirical findings to the existing literature on the issues mentioned above.

5.2 China English and the Use of English in China: Implications for ELT Reform

The results and findings of this book tend to provide insightful implications for various stakeholders in China's higher education system in terms of ELT reform, such as the policy-makers of university English education, developers of English teaching model and curriculum, trainers and recruiters of teachers of university English, tertiary institutions across China, textbook publishers, examination providers, and the forefront teachers of university English and their students. These findings also give insights that may illuminate other similar educational settings (especially in the region of East and Southeast Asia) where decisions would be made on the adoption of the pedagogic model, curriculum design, and teacher selection (NETs, LETs, or both) for English teaching within the context of World Englishes.

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications

This book has significant theoretical implications for teaching of university English in China. There is a need to rethink the current teaching model and curriculum design in the context of English becoming World Englishes and the wider use of English

in China's workplace. For the past few decades, Chinese teachers and students of university English have considered Standardized English as the ultimate target of English study and thus shown keen efforts to pursue this level. However, following increasing globalization and indigenization of English, many new varieties of English have come into being, and with this trend is the development of the features of China English. This raises doubts about the necessity of going on adopting Standardized English as the teaching model. Such doubts, on the other hand, are intensified by Chinese students' inability to achieve the Standardized English level, thus the current teaching model seems unrealistic too.

Although the majority of participants in this study still advocate Standardized English as the teaching model, the results and findings also reveal the necessity of incorporating salient and well-codified features of China English into the future pedagogic model. In this sense, the concerned stakeholders (such as the policy-makers, teachers, students, and so on) need to be able to perceive the prospect of the development of English varieties, including China English, and they need to adapt the current university English curriculum to best suit the demands of Chinese society, especially in terms of the professional use of English in the workplace.

This book also calls for the reflection of the goals of and the limitations associated with teaching of university English over the past few decades. At the initial stage of China's Open Door Policy (i.e., about the first ten years), university graduates with English knowledge were needed to read and translate English materials in workplaces or to teach English in schools, and these people could simply satisfy the needs of the society where little oral communication in English was ever needed. As China's economy develops and its contacts with the rest of the world increase, graduates with good listening and speaking skills in English in addition to the reading and translation skills are in rapidly increasing demand.

Nonetheless, due to various reasons (see Sect. 3.2.2 for some details), university graduates' English learning effectiveness, especially their oral English, are far from being satisfactory. This underscores the importance of oral English competence, which requires a new teaching curriculum and a new way of teacher selection based on an ideal pedagogic model. It will probably do students more good if teaching of university English shifts its main focus from reading and translation skills and preparation of tests to the comprehensive development of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation. In short, university English educationists should reflect on and adopt a desirable pedagogic model for teaching of university English, thus making English study purposeful and effective with regard to the development of Chinese society, especially the use of English in the workplace.

5.2.2 *Practical Implications*

5.2.2.1 For Pedagogic Model

The pedagogic model that should be followed in English classrooms in Outer and Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1992a) has been a subject of debate for some time (e.g., Bamgbose, 1998, 2001; Conrad, 1996; Davies, 1999; He, 2015; He & Zhang, 2010; Kachru, 1995, 1992c; Kirkpatrick, 2006b; Seidlhofer, 1999; Starks & Paltridge, 1996; Widdowson, 1997; Xu et al., 2017). On the whole, three models are suggested in previous research:

- A native-speaker model;
- A nativized model; and
- A Lingua Franca model.

However, Kirkpatrick (2006b, p. 72) argues that “unfortunately the real consumers, the learners and the teachers, are seldom consulted about which model of English to learn and teach”. This book is such an attempt to consult the real consumers. It is found that most of the teachers and students of university English in China chose to adopt an exonormative native-speaker model as the teaching model. Considering the specific circumstances of teaching of university English in China (e.g., university graduates with good communicative competence in English are in great demand in workplace, China English is easier to acquire for Chinese learners comparing to Standardized English), it is suggested that this NS-based model should be supplemented with select and well-codified features of China English if Chinese learners’ listening and speaking skills are to be enhanced.

This book suggests that more than half of the participants do not mind (their students) speaking English with some Chinese accent in spite of their preference for Standardized English. Therefore, following a teaching model based on Standardized English and supplemented by features of China English, university students might feel more at ease while practicing their oral English and consequently improve their communicative competence in English. Such a model will also empower local Chinese teachers of English in the sense that they themselves are not representatives of a complete NS-based model and thus are regarded as ‘second-class’ teachers (Kirkpatrick, 2007a).

5.2.2.2 For Curriculum Design

In a world with English as its global language, it is very common that English teaching curriculum is oriented to English native-speaking norms and hence teaching materials are dominated by English cultural content. What is more, most of these materials are published in Inner Circle countries (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). However, the content and methodologies prescribed in these teaching materials are, as believed by Kirkpatrick (2002, p. 214), inappropriate for ELT in the contexts “where the great

majority of English language teachers are local non-native-speaker teachers, and the great majority of English language learners are local school children learning English primarily because it is part of the national curriculum". English language teaching in mainland China is exactly such a case. If there is any difference, it is that most of the present English teaching materials are published in China, but based on NS norms and cultural content (Zhang & Ma, 2004).

Taken into consideration the professional use of English in workplace, the results and findings of this book suggest that the new curriculum design should be focused on Standardized English but supplemented by salient features of China English concerning the training of listening and speaking skills. Under this curriculum, university students will no longer worry too much about making phonological 'mistakes'; consequently, they will practice oral English more and their communicative competence in English will be improved in the end. In addition, the results and findings of this book indicate that English teaching materials with multicultural content, particularly in regard to Chinese culture, should be incorporated into teaching of university English in China. This is supported by the argument that the curriculum and teaching materials of English as an international language should also reflect the pragmatic norms and cultural values of its learners and users rather than just those of the NSs (cf. He, 2017b; Kirkpatrick, 2002; Li, 1998; McKay, 2002; Prodromou, 2007). To sum up, a new curriculum including features of China English and Chinese culture will provide students with a more conducive environment to acquire English and communicate cross-culturally, especially for their future use of English in the workplace.

5.2.2.3 For Teacher Selection and Training

It was once believed and maybe it is still held that the native-speaking English teachers are somewhat intrinsically better than local English teachers (cf. Kirkpatrick, 2002, 2017a). However, many well-argued studies have shown that this is no more than a fallacy (e.g., Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; He & Miller, 2011; Phillipson, 1992b; Rajagopalan, 1997; Xu, 2017). The results and findings of this book seem to reaffirm that NETs are not necessarily superior to LETs since most of the student informants still preferred to be taught by both of these two types of teachers instead of completely by the former.

On one hand, university students need LETs' help for the following reasons, among others. First of all, they must prepare for some national tests like CET-4 and CET-6. Although some previous research (e.g., Han, Dai, & Yang, 2004; He & Miller, 2011; Niu, 2001; Sheng & Zhou, 2005; Wang, 2002; Xu, 2017) have shown that such high-stakes national exams have produced considerably more negative than positive 'backwash effects' (Dahlin, Watkins, & Ekholm, 2001; Hughes, 2003) on non-English majors' learning of university English, these tests are still there and university students still have to pass them for the sake of obtaining a diploma and standing out in competitions for the job. LETs, when compared to NETs, are experts in helping students to prepare for these tests because they know much better about

the Chinese testing system. Secondly, LETs share the same mother tongue with Chinese university students, which enables them to “use the linguistic resources available in the classroom” (Kirkpatrick, 2002, p. 221) so that they can produce more successful teaching by maximizing L1 advantages if students find it difficult to follow their L2 instruction. Thirdly, LETs have once been EFL learners like their students. This experience helps them know Chinese students much better than NETs in China. Nevertheless, it was also found in this study that LETs’ English (particularly their English pronunciation) is not so perfect compared to NETs. Therefore, if given enough training of Standardized English in English-speaking countries and the updated knowledge of ELT, the large number of LETs in China will be a valuable resource for the development of ELT in the country.

On the other hand, many students also hope that after their English has reached a certain level (e.g., after they have passed CET-4) they will be provided with some courses taught by NETs, like oral English and English culture, so as to equip themselves better for their future use of English in the workplace. They believe that NETs’ teaching will create a more conducive and lively atmosphere for English learning and communication. In other words, universities in China should think about employing more NETs to teach non-English majors if possible. What is more, the students emphasized that the NETs should make an effort to understand the Chinese way of teaching, Chinese students’ learning habits, and more or less Chinese language and culture. This finding is consistent with what has been repeatedly emphasized that mutual learning and negotiation seem to be essential in any multicultural society with regard to language learning and culture (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, 1997, 2002; Jin & Cortazzi, 1995, 1996, 1998). All these have great implications for the organizations that are in charge of recruiting NETs for China’s tertiary education. After employing the NETs, the host-universities should offer them some guidance and support (e.g., some training about Chinese culture and language) which will facilitate their teaching of Chinese students.

5.3 China English and the Use of English in China: Future Directions

Against the background of China English as a developing variety of the family of World Englishes, this book mainly aims to identify the conceptions of the ideal pedagogical model, a more desirable curriculum design based on this model, the pref-

erence of teacher selection (i.e., LETs or NETs) for teaching of university English in China as held by Chinese tertiary EFL teachers and students, and the professional use of English in China's workplace. Therefore, a lot of areas of China English and the use of English in China still need further empirical studies, for example, the features of China English at different linguistic levels, which can be partially supported by Kirpatrick's (2017a, p. 268) argument that "[c]ertainly more research into the intelligibility" of China English is needed.

As mentioned earlier, the acceptance of China English depends largely on the well-codification and promotion of its features at various linguistic levels. Although we have got some suitable corpora (e.g., the China English Corpus compiled by Li Wenzhong at the Beijing Foreign Studies University), the study on China English still "tends to be piecemeal and unsystematic, making it difficult to proceed to the important and logical next step, codification" (Liang & Li, 2017, p. 63). After all, for a specific feature of China English (e.g., a lexical item specific to China English) to be formally included into a China-English-informed "national ELT curriculum, we need solid evidence that such an item or feature is actually used by a significant percentage of members" of the China English community at large (Liang & Li, 2017, p. 64). Therefore, one future direction of China English study is to make use of corpus-based methodologies to codify some of its linguistic features.

Even to the questions explored in this book, further investigation can be a direction for future research. For instance, a research question like the identification of an ideal teaching model for English teaching in China involves investigating diversified stakeholders, such as teachers and students at different levels, government policy-makers, the parents of language learners, the prospective employers of university graduates, and so on. They may all have different opinions on the ideal pedagogic model and other related issues investigated in this research. Nevertheless, due to various constraints, such as time and financial support, it is by no means possible for me to carry out such a large-scale study. As a result, this will be an interesting area for future research to obtain more justified and richer empirical findings from more representative participants toward a holistic picture of the ideal teaching model for English teaching in China.

As reported in Sect. 3.5, there exist various differences in the perceptions concerning the focus of this book (e.g., the ideal pedagogic model, a more desirable curriculum design, the preference of teacher selection for teaching of university English) pertaining to different groups of participants. However, the reasons behind these differences are largely left untouched, since they do not constitute the focus of this book. Therefore, another attempt worth making for future researchers is to identify these reasons, which might be of great practical importance for teaching of university English in China. For example, a proper English teaching model and curriculum might be suggested for the business majors if the reasons for the differences among them and the students of other disciplines were found.

With the globalization of English, more and more nativized varieties of English have come into existence, and NSs of English are already outnumbered by NNSs. Just like China, other Outer and Expanding Circle countries might also face similar problems as discussed in this book (e.g., the pedagogic model, curriculum design, teacher selection for English teaching, and the professional use of English in their workplace). Therefore, it may be a fruitful endeavor to undertake similar studies in any of these countries. Such studies can be very meaningful and important for yielding more empirical findings in the field of World Englishes and accordingly in the teaching of English as a Lingua Franca in the world.

As reported in this Chap. 4, with 2,247 participants from 35 industries, the results and findings yielded have provided a window for understanding and contextualizing the use of English in the professional workplace in China. However, in spite of the fact that the participants came from a variety of industries and all regions in China, the sample was not so representative of the whole English using population in the professional world of the country due to the method of participant selection, which is like other empirical studies of the snowballing nature. Therefore, the results and findings might be relatively tentative. Considering the vast number of English learners and users and complex linguistic landscapes in China, an authentic picture of the use of English in China's workplace would be available from a more representative sample of participants in a national-scale investigation on broader issues concerning China English and the professional use of English in China. These issues may include linguistic features, cultural conceptualizations, and identity construction, among many others.

To wrap up this book, I would like to draw my readers' attention to a roadmap from a master student's recent coursework for the module *World Englishes*. Although this roadmap (see Fig. 5.1) is not from a well-acknowledged study and has its own problem, for instance, it inappropriately applies Schneider's (2007, 2014) Dynamic Model to China English, my point in referring to it here is: we cannot be too optimistic about the future of China English with more people knowing more about China English.

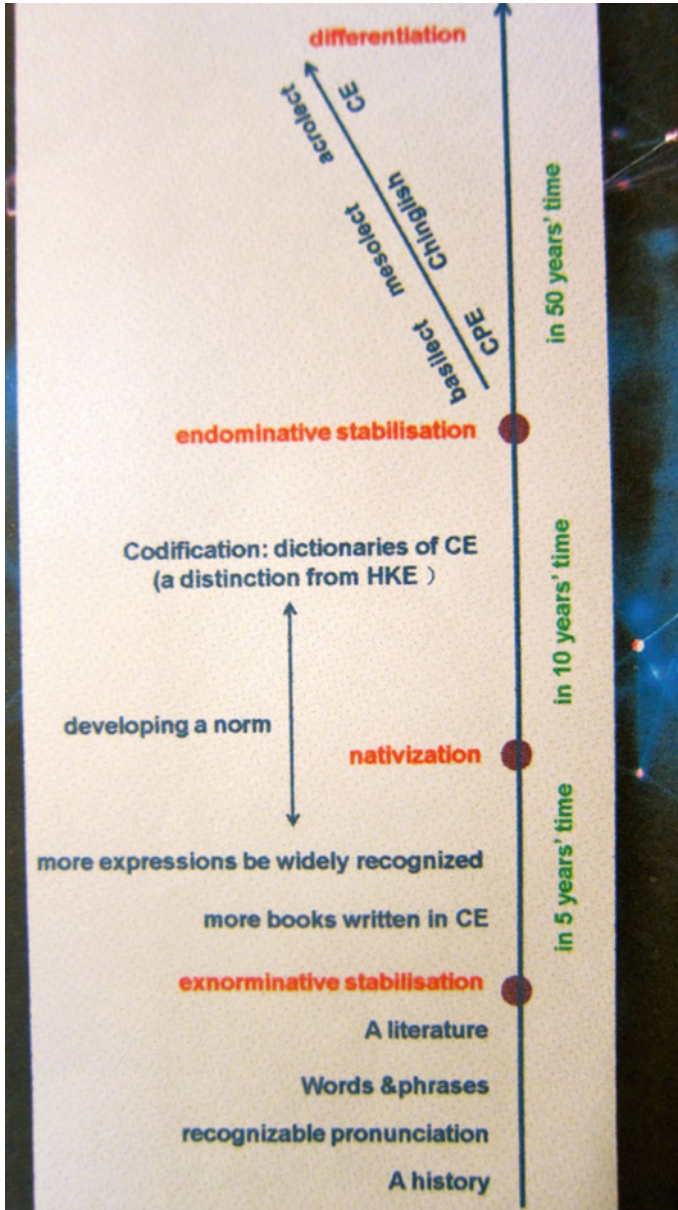


Fig. 5.1 A roadmap for the development of China English CE: China English; HKE: Hong Kong English; CPE: Chinese Pidgin English

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Appendix A

Explanation and Justification Concerning Research Methods

In line with the anonymous book series reviewers' comments and the editorial board's suggestion, some explanation and justification concerning research methods of the book are presented in this appendix so that readers may have a better understanding of the methodology.

First of all, as mentioned in the first paragraph of Sect. 3.1, the reason that English majors were not included in the population sample in Chap. 3 is because they are expected to graduate with near-native English proficiency while China English is still considered as a developing variety, which means English majors's expected English proficiency is higher than China English.

Secondly, "empirical study" and "scientific sampling" (please see Paragraph 1 of Sect. 3.1) are used in the social sciences paradigm rather than pure sciences in this book.

Thirdly, by using both quantitative data (via questionnaire survey and MGT) and qualitative data (via interviews), the data analysis methods adopted in this book are also a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches although it might seem to be more toward the quantitative approach.

Fourthly, while analyzing the questionnaire data (please refer to Chaps. 3 and 4), I used some statistics like MANOVA, and I also reported the Mean of the questionnaire items so that readers may have a fuller picture of all values of the related data. However, the data analysis would be improved if a more in-depth study of the data involved was carried out.

Fifthly, to triangulate the results and findings from questionnaires and interviews, match-guise technique is also employed as a way of data collection so that some indirect data on China English can be obtained. Please refer to Paragraph 3 in Sect. 3.1.2 for more reasons to make use of this research method and Sects. 3.1.3.2 and 3.5 for details of how the MGT data were analyzed.

Sixthly, it should be pointed out that both thematic and content analysis were combined while analyzing the interview data in this book.

Last but not least, as argued by one of the reviewers, “there is a misconception, even among social science researchers, that unless a study is backed by numerical values and analysis in the nature of the pure sciences, it is less reliable and valid. There are, however, sound systemic and descriptive statistics and methods of analyses from the social sciences which provide for just as reliable and valid results”. In this book, I am trying to combine some “pure sciences” data analysis into my sociolinguistically natured research, which may or may not be as successful as I have expected, but it is a try anyway and may be some reference for future research.

Appendix B

(Questionnaire for Students Before Piloting)

Toward an Ideal English Pedagogic Model for University Students in Mainland China: A Questionnaire Survey

关于中国大陆大学生英语学习之理想目标模式的问卷调查

Dear students,

On the following pages are a number of statements with which the researcher is attempting to identify your opinions about *the more practical and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China*. It is hoped that your views will provide useful information for improving teaching and learning of university English in the future. Your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence and used only for research purposes.

Thank you for your help!

Sincerely,

Researcher: He Deyuan

亲爱的同学，本问卷旨在探讨中国大陆大学生认为以哪种英语变体作为自己英语学习的终极目标模式更为可行并实用。你提供的信息将有助于提高未来的中国大学英语教学质量。你的答案和个人资料将只用于个人研究并受到最严格的保密。多谢合作!

调查人: 贺德远

How to answer

There are *no right* or *wrong* opinions concerning this topic. It all depends on what you think is the more desirable model of English for university students in mainland China. Please *circle* the number which can best indicate your opinion on each of the following statements. The numbers stand for the following responses:

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 1 - strongly disagree | 2 - disagree |
| 3 - slightly disagree | 4 - slightly agree |
| 5 - agree | 6 - strongly agree |

如何回答

答案无对错之分,一切取决于你认为中国大陆大学生英语学习的理想目标模式是什么。请圈出最能代表你对下列每一个项目的观点的数字。它们所代表的观点如下:

- | | |
|-----------|----------|
| 1 - 很不同意 | 2 - 不同意 |
| 3 - 有些不同意 | 4 - 有些同意 |
| 5 - 同意 | 6 - 很同意 |

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----|----|-------------------|----|----------------|---|-----|
| 1. I have heard of World Englishes.
我听说过 World Englishes. | Yes | No | | | | | |
| 2. I have heard of China English.
我听说过 China English. | Yes | No | | | | | |
| 3. I have heard of 'Chinese English'.
我听说过'Chinese English'. | Yes | No | | | | | |
| | | | strongly disagree | ←→ | strongly agree | | |
| | | | 很不同意 | | 很同意 | | |
| 4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks.
我们教材中以英式英语和美式英语为主。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 5. I am satisfied with my English learning effectiveness.
我对我英语学习的效果感到满意。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 如果第 5 题你选了 4, 5 或 6, 请直接跳到第 7 题。 | | | | | | | |
| 6. One reason for my low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the pedagogic model.
我对我的英语学习效果感到不满意的原因之一是现行的教学以英式英语或美式英语作为目标教学模式。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British/American English) for teaching.
我们应该以 native-speaker 的模式 (如英式或美式英语) 作为目标教学模式。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 8. University English should be taught by English teachers from China.
大学英语主要应该由中国英语老师来教。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 9. University English should be taught by native speakers.
大学英语主要应该由 native speakers 来教。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 10. University English should be taught by both English teachers from China and native speakers.
大学英语应该由中国英语老师和 native speakers 共同来教。 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 11. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker.
当我说英语时, 我希望自己听起来像是 native-speaker. | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |

- | | strongly
disagree ← | ← | → | strongly
agree | |
|---|------------------------|---|---|-------------------|-----|
| | 很不同意 | | | 很同意 | |
| 12. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.
当我说英语时，我希望别人能清楚地听出我是中国人。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 13. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English.
在国际交流中，我们可以接受带有口音但对方能理解的英语口语。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 14. The non-native speakers can also speak standard English.
Non-native speakers 也能说标准的英语。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 15. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with native English speakers.
大多数中国人需要英语，主要是用来跟 native English speakers 进行交流。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 16. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with other non-native English speakers.
大多数中国人需要英语，主要是用来跟其它的 non-native English speakers 进行交流。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 17. There are many Standardized Englishes.
标准的 Englishes 有许多种。
请举例：_____ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 18. There will be a variety of English in China one day.
有朝一日中国也会有自己的英语变体。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 19. Like “Indian English” or “Singaporean English”, China should have its own variety of English.
像印度或新加坡一样，中国应该有她自己的英语变体。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |
| 20. If there will be a variety of English in China like “Indian English” or “Singaporean English”, it should be called China English
如果中国像印度或新加坡一样有她自己的英语变体，那么这种变体应该叫 China English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 |

strongly disagree ← strongly agree
 很不同意 很同意

- 21. If there will be a variety of English in China like “Indian English” or “Singaporean English”, it should be called ‘Chinese English’
 如果中国像印度或新加坡一样有她自己的英语变体，那么这种变体应该叫‘Chinese English’.

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 22. ‘Chinese English’ and China English are the same.
 ‘Chinese English’ 和 China English 是一样的。

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 23. The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language.
 中国的英语变体难免要受汉语的影响。

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 24. The variety of English in China should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse.
 中国的英语变体在语音、词汇、句法及语篇等四个语言学层面上应该有它自己的特色。

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 25. Only the variety of English in China can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately.
 只有中国的英语变体才能最到位地表达出有中国文化特色的内容。

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 26. Well-defined features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing pedagogic model.
 中国英语变体中那些已经得到很好定义的特征应该被吸收进现行的目标教学模式。

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 27. The variety of English in China can replace the existing pedagogic model.
 中国的英语变体可以替代现行的目标教学模式。

1 2 3 4 5 6
- 28. Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in University English
 大学英语中除了讲授英美英语以外，也应该讲授一些中国英语及其他英语变体的知识。

1 2 3 4 5 6

29. Student A: 'I can pronounce English just like a native speaker now. Sometimes people think I am a native speaker.'

学生 A: '现在我的英语发音就像 native speaker 一样标准。有时候人们认为我就是 native speaker.'

Student B: 'I can pronounce English clearly now. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I still have the accent of my country.'

学生 B: '现在我的英语发音很清楚。不论我走到哪里, native speakers 和 non-native speakers 都能听懂我的英语; 但是我的英语还是带有我本国的口音。'

Please fill in the blank with A or B; I would prefer to be like Student _____.
请在后面的空格中填上 A 或 B, 我想成为学生_____。

30. Student C: 'I can say everything that I want to say. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I use English my own way and sometimes I say things which native speakers think are grammar mistakes.'

学生 C: '现在我能用英语表达任何我想表达的内容。不论我走到哪里, native speakers 和 non-native speakers 都能听懂我的英语; 但是我以自己的方式说英语, 所以有时候 native speakers 认为我的英语有语法错误。'

Student D: 'I know all the grammar rules I need so that I can say anything I want. I use these rules correctly, but sometimes English people use grammar that isn't in the grammar books and I don't want to learn this.'

学生 D: '我了解我所需要的所有语法规则, 所以我能用英语表达任何我想表达的内容。我正确地运用这些规则, 但有时候 English people 会用一些语法书上没有的语法, 我不想学习这些语法。'

Student E: 'I use all the grammar rules that native speakers use, even the informal grammar native speakers use when they speak to each other.'

学生 E: '我会用 native speakers 所用的所有语法规则, 甚至包括他们彼此之间交谈所用的那些非正式的语法。'

Please fill in the blank with C, D or E; I would prefer to be like Student _____.
请在后面的空格中填上 C, D 或 E, 我想成为学生_____。

Please provide the following information (请提供以下信息):

Major (专业): _____

Grade (年级): Freshman (大一) Sophomore (大二)
Junior (大三) Senior (大四) (choose one, 选一)

Gender (性别): Male (男) Female (女) (choose one, 选一)

Age (年龄): _____

I started learning English at the age of _____, I have it for _____ years and _____ months.

(我从_____岁时开始学习英语, 至今已学习了_____年_____月。)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR KIND COOPERATION!

Appendix C

(Questionnaire for Students)

Toward an Ideal English Pedagogic Model for University Students in Mainland China: A Questionnaire Survey

关于中国大陆大学生英语学习之理想目标模式的问卷调查

Dear students,

On the following pages are a number of statements with which the researcher is attempting to identify your opinions about *the more practical and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China*. Generally speaking, there are three types of pedagogic model of English (i.e., the standard to which the ELT is referring and against which the ELT is evaluated): 1. native-speaker models (e.g., British English, American English, etc.); 2. nativized English models (e.g., Indian English, Singaporean English, etc.); 3. Lingua Franca model (which has Standardized English as its core and meanwhile incorporates the well-defined features of the varieties of English used in different nations and regions). It is hoped that your views will provide useful information for improving teaching and learning of university English in the future. Your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence and used only for research purposes.

Thank you for your help!

Sincerely,

Researcher: He Deyuan

亲爱的同学, 本问卷旨在探讨中国大陆大学生认为以哪种英语变体作为自己英语学习的终极目标模式更为可行并实用。一般来说, 英语教学的目标模式(也就是英语教学和评估所参照的标准)有三种: 1. *native-speaker* (以英语为母语的人) 模式(如英式英语、美式英语等); 2. 本土化的英语模式(如印度英语、新加坡英语等); 3. 以英语作为全球共同语的模式(这种英语以标准英语为核心, 同时兼顾英语在全球各国及各地区发展历程中已获得很好认可的那些特征)。你提供的信息将有助于提高未来的中国大学英语教学质量。你的答案和个人资料将只用于个人研究并受到最严格的保密。多谢合作!

调查人: 贺德远

How to answer

There are *no right* or *wrong* opinions concerning this topic. It all depends on what you think is the more desirable model of English for university students in mainland China. Please *circle* the number which can best indicate your opinion on each of the following statements.

如何回答

答案无对错之分,一切取决于你认为中国大陆大学生英语学习的理想目标模式是什么。请圈出最能代表你对下列每一个项目的观点的数字。

- | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|-----|----|----------------------|---|-------------------|--|--|--|--|
| 1. | I have heard of World Englishes.
我听说过 World Englishes. | Yes | No | | | | | | | |
| 2. | I have heard of China English.
我听说过 China English. | Yes | No | | | | | | | |
| 3. | I have heard of 'Chinese English'.
我听说过'Chinese English'. | Yes | No | | | | | | | |
| | | | | strongly
disagree | ← | strongly
agree | | | | |
| | | | | 很不同意 | | 很同意 | | | | |
| 4. | British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks.
我们教材中以英式英语和美式英语为主。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| 5. | I am satisfied with my English learning effectiveness.
我对我英语学习的效果感到满意。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| 如果第 5 题你选了 4 或 5, 请直接跳到第 7 题。 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. | One reason for my low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model.
我对我的英语学习效果感到不满意的原因之一是现行的教学以英式英语或美式英语作为目标教学模式。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| 7. | We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British/American English) for teaching and learning.
我们应该以 native-speaker 的模式 (如英式或美式英语) 作为目标教学模式。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| 8. | University English should be taught by: | | | | | | | | | |
| | (a). English teachers from China; | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| | (b). native speakers; | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| | (c). both (a) and (b).
大学英语应该由: a. 中国英语老师来教;
b. native speakers 来教; c. 上述两类老师共同来教。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| 9. | When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker.
当我说英语时, 我希望自己听起来像是 native-speaker. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |
| 10. | When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.
当我说英语时, 我希望别人能清楚地听出我是中国人。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | | |

- | | strongly
disagree | ← | → | strongly
agree | |
|---|----------------------|---|---|-------------------|---|
| | 很不同意 | | | 很同意 | |
| 11. In international communication, intelligibility with accent is acceptable for oral English.
在国际交流中, 我们可以接受带有口音但对方能理解的英语口语。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. The non-native speakers can also speak standard English.
Non-native speakers 也能说标准的英语。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with: (a). native English speakers.
(b). other non-native English speakers.
大多数中国人需要英语, 主要是用来跟:
a. native English speakers;
b. 其它的 non-native English speakers 进行交流。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. There are many Standardized Englishes.
标准的 Englishes 有许多种。
请举例: _____ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. There will be a variety of English in China one day.
有朝一日中国也会有自己的英语变体。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Like "Indian English" or "Singaporean English", China should have its own variety of English.
像印度或新加坡一样, 中国应该有她自己的英语变体。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. If there will be a variety of English in China like "Indian English" or "Singaporean English", it should be called: (a). China English;
(b). 'Chinese English'.
如果中国像印度或新加坡一样有她自己的英语变体, 那么这种变体应该叫: a. China English;
b. 'Chinese English'. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. 'Chinese English' and China English are the same.
'Chinese English' 和 China English 是一样的。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language.
中国的英语变体难免要受汉语的影响。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix D

(Questionnaire for Teachers)

Toward an Ideal English Pedagogic Model for University Students in Mainland China: A Questionnaire Survey

关于中国大陆大学生英语学习之理想目标模式的问卷调查

Dear teachers,

On the following pages are a number of statements with which the researcher is attempting to identify your opinions about *the more practical and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China*. Generally speaking, there are three types of pedagogic model of English (i.e., the standard to which the ELT is referring and against which the ELT is evaluated): 1. native-speaker models (e.g., British English, American English, etc.); 2. nativized English models (e.g., Indian English, Singaporean English, etc.); 3. Lingua Franca model (which has Standardized English as its core and meanwhile incorporates the well-defined features of the varieties of English used in different nations and regions). It is hoped that your views will provide useful information for improving teaching and learning of university English in the future. Your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence and used only for research purposes.

Thank you for your help!

Sincerely,

Researcher: He Deyuan

亲爱的老师, 本问卷旨在探讨中国大陆大学英语老师认为以哪种英语变体作为自己教学的终极目标模式更为可行并实用. 一般来说, 英语教学的目标模式(也就是英语教学和评估所参照的标准)有三种: 1. *native-speaker* (以英语为母语的人) 模式 (如英式英语、美式英语等); 2. 本土化的英语模式 (如印度英语、新加坡英语等); 3. 以英语作为全球共同语的模式 (这种英语以标准英语为核心,同时兼顾英语在全球各国及各地区发展历程中已获得很好认可的那些特征). 您提供的信息将有助于提高未来的中国大学英语教学质量. 您的答案和个人资料将只用于个人研究并受到最严格的保密. 多谢合作!

调查人: 贺德远

How to answer

There are *no right* or *wrong* opinions concerning this topic. It all depends on what you think is the more desirable model of English for university students in mainland China. Please *circle* the number which can best indicate your opinion on each of the following statements.

如何回答

答案无对错之分, 一切取决于您认为中国大陆大学生英语学习的理想目标模式是什么. 请圈出最能代表您对下列每一个项目的观点的数字.

- 1. I have heard of World Englishes. Yes No
我听说过 World Englishes.
- 2. I have heard of China English. Yes No
我听说过 China English.
- 3. I have heard of ‘Chinese English’. Yes No
我听说过‘Chinese English’.

strongly disagree ← → agree
很不同意 很同意

- 4. British English and American English are the major varieties of English used in our textbooks. 1 2 3 4 5
我们教材中以英式英语和美式英语为主。
- 5. I am satisfied with my students’ English learning effectiveness. 1 2 3 4 5
我对我学生的英语学习效果感到满意。

如果第 5 题你选了 4 或 5, 请直接跳到第 7 题。
- 6. One reason for my students’ low learning effectiveness is the adoption of British English or American English as the teaching model. 1 2 3 4 5
我对我学生的英语学习效果感到不满意的原因之一是现行的教学以英式英语或美式英语作为目标教学模式。
- 7. We should adopt a native-speaker model of English (e.g., British/American English) for teaching. 1 2 3 4 5
我们应该以 native-speaker 的模式 (如英式或美式英语) 作为目标教学模式。
- 8. University English should be taught by:
(a). English teachers from China; 1 2 3 4 5
(b). native speakers; 1 2 3 4 5
(c). both (a) and (b). 1 2 3 4 5
大学英语应该由: a. 中国英语老师来教; b. native speakers 来教; c. 上述两类老师共同来教。
- 9. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker. 1 2 3 4 5
当我说英语时, 我希望自己听起来像是 native-speaker.
- 10. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese. 1 2 3 4 5
当我说英语时, 我希望别人能清楚地听出我是中国人。

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disagree
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agree
很同意 | |
|---|------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------|---|
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在国际交流中, 我们可以接受带有口音但对方能理解的英语口语。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
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| 13. Most Chinese need English to communicate mainly with: (a). native English speakers.
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大多数中国人需要英语, 主要是用来跟:
a. native English speakers;
b. 其它的 non-native English speakers 进行交流。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. There are many Standardized Englishes.
标准的 Englishes 有许多种。
请举例: _____ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. There will be a variety of English in China one day.
有朝一日中国也会有自己的英语变体。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Like "Indian English" or "Singaporean English", China should have its own variety of English.
像印度或新加坡一样, 中国应该有她自己的英语变体。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. If there will be a variety of English in China like "Indian English" or "Singaporean English", it should be called: (a). China English;
(b). 'Chinese English'.
如果中国像印度或新加坡一样有她自己的英语变体, 那么这种变体应该叫: a. China English;
b. 'Chinese English'. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. 'Chinese English' and China English are the same.
'Chinese English' 和 China English 是一样的。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. The variety of English in China is bound to be influenced by the Chinese language.
中国的英语变体难免要受汉语的影响。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

strongly ← strongly
disagree → agree
很不同意 很同意

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 20. The variety of English in China should have its own linguistic features at the levels of phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse.
中国的英语变体在语音、词汇、句法及语篇等四个语言学层面上应该有它自己的特色。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 21. Only the variety of English in China can express content ideas specific to Chinese culture adequately.
只有中国的英语变体才能最到位地表达出有中国文化特色的内容。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 22. Well-defined features of the variety of English in China should be incorporated into the existing teaching model.
中国英语变体中那些已经得到很好定义的特征应该被吸收进现行的目标教学模式。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 23. The variety of English in China can replace the existing teaching model.
中国的英语变体可以替代现行的目标教学模式。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 24. Students should learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in university English
大学英语中除了讲授英美英语以外, 也应该讲授一些中国英语及其他英语变体的知识。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 25. Student A: 'I can pronounce English just like a native speaker now. Sometimes people think I am a native speaker.'
学生 A: '现在我的英语发音就像 native speaker 一样标准。有时候人们认为我就是 native speaker.' | |

Student B: 'I can pronounce English clearly now. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I still have the accent of my country.'

学生 B: '现在我的英语发音很清楚。不论我走到哪里, native speakers 和 non-native speakers 都能听懂我的英语; 但是我的英语还是带有我本国的口音。'

Please fill in the blank with A or B; I would prefer my students to be like Student _____.

请在后面的空格中填上 A 或 B, 我想让我的学生成为学生_____。

Please indicate the reasons for you to choose so (请简述您如此选择的原因):

26. Student C: 'I can say everything that I want to say. Native speakers and non-native speakers understand me wherever I go, but I use English my own way and sometimes I say things which native speakers think are grammar mistakes.'

学生 C: '现在我能用英语表达任何我想表达的内容。不论我走到哪里, native speakers 和 non-native speakers 都能听懂我的英语;但是我以我自己的方式说英语, 所以有时候 native speakers 认为我的英语有语法错误。'

Student D: 'I know all the grammar rules I need so that I can say anything I want. I use these rules correctly, but sometimes English people use grammar that isn't in the grammar books and I don't want to learn this.'

学生 D: '我了解我所需要的所有语法规则, 所以我能用英语表达任何我想表达的内容。我正确地运用这些规则, 但有时候 English people 会用一些语法书上没有的语法, 我不想学习这些语法。'

Student E: 'I use all the grammar rules that native speakers use, even the informal grammar native speakers use when they speak to each other.'

学生 E: '我会用 native speakers 所用的所有语法规则, 甚至包括他们彼此之间交谈所用的那些非正式的语法。'

Please fill in the blank with C, D or E; I would prefer my students to be like Student_____.

请在后面的空格中填上 C, D 或 E, 我想让我的学生成为学生_____。

Please indicate the reasons for you to choose so (请简述您如此选择的原因):

_____。
_____。

Please provide the following information (请提供以下信息):

Gender (性别): Male (男) Female (女) (choose one, 选一)

Age(年龄): _____

Teaching Experience (教龄): _____ year(s) (年) _____ month(s) (月)

Below please √ the appropriate alternative or nearest equivalent (请在适当的或最接近的选项前加√)

_____ Bachelor's degree (学士)

_____ Master's degree (硕士)

_____ Doctorate degree (博士)

_____ Others (please specify: _____) [其它 (请注明)]

Academic rank (您现在的职称):

_____ Teaching assistant (助教)

_____ Lecturer (讲师)

_____ Associate professor (副教授)

_____ Professor (教授)

Students you teach (您现在教的学生):

_____ Non-English majors (非英语专业学生)

_____ Both English majors and non-English majors (英语专业学生和非英语专业学生都有)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR KIND COOPERATION!

Appendix E

Reading Paragraph and Questionnaire for the Match-Guise Technique

Please call Stella. Ask her to bring these things with her from the store: six spoons of fresh snow peas, five thick slabs of blue cheese, and maybe a snack for her brother Bob. We also need a small plastic snake and a big toy frog for the kids. She can scoop these things into three red bags, and we will go meet her Wednesday at the train station.

Instructions to the Participants in the Course of Data Collection:

Dear students (teachers), thank you very much for helping to answer this questionnaire. The information you give today will be used only for academic purposes and your personal information will be kept confidential.

In this part, I will play two different voices to you, and then I would like you to tell me how you feel about them. Now, let us first look at one example. Is the speaker kind? If you think he is 'not kind at all', please circle 1; if you think he is 'not very kind', please circle 2; if you do not know whether he is kind or not, please circle 3; if you think he is 'kind', please circle 4; if you think he is 'very kind', please circle 5. Please pay attention to the different meanings of the five numbers and do not mix them up, otherwise the result will be totally opposite.

In a minute, I will play the voices of Speaker 1 and Speaker 2, please circle the numbers on all of the 17 traits after each voice. The aim of this part is to see how you feel about the two voices; so if you think the speaker speaks very fast or you cannot follow what he is saying, this is totally not important at all. Based on your direct impression of the voice, make a guess of how friendly this person is, how intelligent he is, and how educated he is; you can simply follow your intuition. Now, please use 30 seconds to go over the 16 adjectives on the answer sheet (Pause). Now, I will first play the voice of Speaker 1, you can circle the numbers while you are listening (the recorded speech is played and then pause till students finish circling the numbers). Now here comes Speaker 2 (*ibid*).

Now, we have come to the end of this questionnaire. I would like you to check again if all questions have been answered. If yes, please return the questionnaire to me.

- 1 = the voice does not match with the given trait at all (完全不匹配)
 2 = the voice does not match with the given trait so well (不太匹配)
 3 = I do not know whether the voice matches with the given trait or not (不知道)
 4 = the voice matches with the given trait well (匹配)
 5 = the voice matches with the given trait very well (非常匹配).

Traits	Speaker 1					Speaker 2				
	①	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	⑤
e.g., kind (友善的)										
1. Friendly (友好的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Intelligent (聪明的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Educated (有教养的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Arrogant (自大的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Competent (能干的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Industrious (刻苦的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sincere (真诚的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Aggressive (霸道的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Approachable (亲切的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Considerate (体贴的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. Trustworthy (可靠的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. Wealthy (富有的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Trendy (时尚的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Patient (耐心的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Powerful (强有力的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. Confident (自信的)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU AGAIN FOR YOUR KIND ASSISTANCE!

Appendix F

Interviewing Questions for the Students

Directions: Just like the questionnaire we have done, this interview also attempts to identify your opinions about the more practical and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China. Your opinions will provide useful information for improving teaching and learning of university English in the future. Your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence and used only for research purposes. Please just tell me your real thoughts on the following questions. I hope you will not mind that our interview will be audio-recorded.

1. Are you satisfied with your English learning effectiveness?
2. If not, what are the reasons for your unsatisfied learning effectiveness?
3. Is pedagogic model a reason for your low learning effectiveness? Why or why not?
4. Is it necessary and practical if we go on adopting British or American English as the model for teaching of university English in China? Why or why not?
5. If you can choose the pedagogic model for teaching of university English in China, which one(s) would you choose: China English, the standard British/American English, or the Lingua Franca English? Why?
6. What would be a more desirable model of English for students in mainland China in your opinion?
7. Should University English be taught by LETs or by NETs or by both of these two types of teachers in mainland China? Why?
8. Should we learn the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in teaching of university English? Why or why not?

Please write down your email address in case I might need to contact you in future and thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix G

Interviewing Questions for the Teachers

Directions: Just like the questionnaire we have done, this interview also attempts to identify your opinions about the more practical and desirable pedagogic model of English for university students in mainland China. Your opinions will provide useful information for improving teaching and learning of university English in the future. Your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence and used only for research purposes. Please just tell me your real thoughts on the following questions. I hope you will not mind that our interview will be audio-recorded.

1. Are you satisfied with your students' English learning effectiveness?
2. If not, what are the reasons for their unsatisfied learning effectiveness?
3. Is pedagogic model a reason for their low learning effectiveness? Why or why not?
4. Is it necessary and practical if we go on adopting British or American English as the model for teaching of university English in China? Why or why not?
5. If you can choose the pedagogic model for teaching of university English in China, which one(s) would you choose: China English, the standard British/American English, or the Lingua Franca English? Why?
6. What would be a more desirable model of English for students in mainland China in your opinion?
7. Should University English be taught by LETs or by NETs or by both of these two types of teachers in mainland China? Why?
8. Should we teach the characteristics of China English and other varieties of English in addition to American and British English in teaching of university English? Why or why not?

Please write down your email address in case I might need to contact you in future and thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix H

Participants' Reasons for Items 25 and 26 in the Questionnaire

Among the 795 students who answered the questionnaire, there are altogether 660 students who wrote some reasons for Item 25, and 648 students for Item 26. Some of them wrote more than one reason for their choices to one or both of the two items.

25A:

1. For better communication: 181 students thought Native-like pronunciation means good/perfect/standard pronunciation, and thus it can ensure free/better/wider communication, or it becomes their target of pronunciation acquisition for various purposes (e.g., to communicate with NSs freely, to learn English culture).
2. Pronounce English like NSs: 119 students believed they should speak English like NSs for the following reasons:
 - (1) They are learning NSs' language;
 - (2) They thought Native-like pronunciation sounds comfortable/beautiful/cool, therefore, they wanted to pronounce English in this way;
 - (3) As a global language, English should have only one standard pronunciation, or else, different varieties of English would make communication difficult/inconvenient;
 - (4) It will prove that they have acquired excellent English and they will feel proud/confident if their English pronunciation is like NSs'.
3. 46 students chose A for some other reasons:
 - (1) For better jobs after graduation (15);
 - (2) Speaking English with accents suggests that their English is poor and might be laughed at or be considered strange (24);
 - (3) China is different from India and Singapore since English is only used internationally not intranationally, hence, there is no room for the existence of China English (5);
 - (4) They did not want others to know where they are from by their accent (2).

25B:

1. English is a tool for communication: 247 students thought it is unnecessary for them to speak English like NSs as long as both NSs and NNSs can understand them.
2. Language identity: 189 students argued that they wanted to be identified as Chinese while communicating with foreigners in English.
3. Cross-linguistic influence: 84 students argued that English learners' pronunciation cannot be free from the cross-linguistic influence of their mother tongue (in this study, Chinese).
4. Necessity and possibility: 45 students considered it either unnecessary or impossible or both for them to speak English like NSs because of following factors:
 - (1) Chinese do not use English so often in everyday life;
 - (2) Student B's accent will not be a barrier for communication;
 - (3) It is too hard to be Student A;
 - (4) They are lack of chance/environment to practice with NSs, etc.
5. Cultural factors: 28 students thought that speaking English with a Chinese accent can help spread Chinese culture or at least they did not want to give up Chinese culture while learning English.
6. The necessity for China English: 24 students argued that China English should have its own traits, which might be easier for Chinese learners to acquire; besides, there are so many English learners in China.
7. Other reasons: 18 students expressed some other reasons, such as
 - (1) It is quite normal that some cultural difference might influence language learners' English pronunciation (8);
 - (2) Pronunciation with Chinese accent might be helpful to communicate with NNSs (especially Asian English users) (6);
 - (3) They wanted their English pronunciation to be special (2);
 - (4) She was used to speaking English with a Chinese accent (1);
 - (5) Student B was his target (1).

26C:

1. A tool for communication: 113 students responded that English is a tool of communication, hence, it is unnecessary for them to command grammar so well like Student E as long as they can communicate well with others in English.
2. Necessity and possibility: 85 students declared that it is either impossible or unnecessary for them to learn grammar very well. Specifically, their reasons are like

No one can be perfect at grammar;
 They did not have the environment to acquire Standardized English;
 Oral English should not be constrained by standard grammar rules;
 Not all of the grammar rules will be needed in communication;

Grammar itself is always changing;
 Even NSs speak English ungrammatically;
 Chinese people will not use English frequently;
 They were not English majors;
 He did not want to be a grammarian;
 Grammar is not so important in communication.

3. 'China English': 19 students argued that Chinese people should speak English in their own way.
4. Other reasons: 18 students listed some other reasons:
 - (1) They wanted to be different/special/attractive (8);
 - (2) Speaking English like Student C will make English learning easier/simpler comparing to Student D and E (6);
 - (3) They were used to Student C's way of English speaking (2);
 - (4) She believed that paying too much attention to English grammar will do harm to her Chinese (1).

26D:

1. Learn just what they need: 82 students argued that they wanted to learn grammar well because they did not want to make grammar mistakes; however, they did not want to learn grammar very well like Student E because they thought learning those informal grammar rules might either get them confused, or waste their time, or is not so useful in communication; besides, they also insisted that grammar rules are always changing and they had no plan to live in English-speaking countries, so it is unnecessary for them to learn grammar too well.
2. Better communication: 25 students considered it necessary for them to know enough grammar so as to ensure better communication.
3. Other reasons: 25 students chose D for Item 26 because of the following reasons:
 - (1) They did not consider grammar as the most important factor for good communication (14);
 - (2) They did not like grammar rules since it confines them a lot in communication (7);
 - (3) It is too hard to be Student E (2);
 - (4) Grammar rules are necessary for a language to be used internationally (1);
 - (5) He would learn all the grammar rules that are in the grammar books, but he would only learn grammar like Student E except he had an English-speaking wife or he was a spy (1).

26E:

1. For better communication: 219 students believed that speaking English like Student E can guarantee free/better/more effective communication, besides, some of them thought knowing more informal grammar is very necessary/important/useful/interesting because it helps them avoid misunderstanding or embarrassment in certain conditions.

2. Standardized English: 67 students argued that they wanted to learn standard/perfect/good English if they had to learn it.
3. Cultural factors: 32 students argued that speaking English like Student E can help them know every side of English societies, such as their politics, economy, especially their culture.
4. Do in Rome as the Romans do: 25 students thought that they should observe NSs' grammar rules since they are learning their language.
5. Other reasons: 33 students preferred to be Student E for some other reasons:
 - (1) Speaking Standardized English may have better adaptability (5);
 - (2) It was their target to speak English like Student E (4);
 - (3) It indicates that their English is excellent (4);
 - (4) As a Chinese, they would feel confident and proud if they could speak English like Student E (3);
 - (5) It is very popular to speak English like Student E (3);
 - (6) They wanted to learn English well for future job and life since the world is becoming a global village and its lingua franca is English (3);
 - (7) It is bad to make grammar mistakes (2);
 - (8) They wanted to travel in English-speaking countries (2);
 - (9) As a Chinese, they would get more respect from the world if they could speak good English (2);
 - (10) As a global language, English should have only one unified grammar, or else, different varieties of English would make communication difficult/inconvenient (1);
 - (11) We might need to understand the conversation between/among NSs (1);
 - (12) Language can also be an art so we should learn it to the best (1);
 - (13) He thought good English can help make him outstanding (1);
 - (14) She hoped to improve her English level and keep pace with the world (1).

Altogether 43.9% (N = 83) of the 189 teachers who answered the questionnaire wrote some reasons for Items 25 and 26. Some of them wrote more than one reason for their choices to one or both of the two items.

25A:

1. For better communication: 41 teachers thought Native-like pronunciation means good/standard pronunciation, and thus it can ensure better communication, or it becomes their goal of pronunciation acquisition for their students.
2. Pronounce English like NSs: 25 teachers believed their students should speak English like NSs for the following reasons:
 - (1) They are learning NSs' language;
 - (2) They thought Native-like pronunciation sounds beautiful, therefore, they want their students to pronounce English in this way;
 - (3) As a global language, English should have only one standard pronunciation, or else, different varieties of English would make communication difficult;
 - (4) It will prove that their students have acquired excellent English.

25B:

1. English is a tool for communication: 26 teachers thought it is unnecessary for their students to pronounce English like NSs as long as both NSs and NNSs can understand them.
2. Cross-linguistic influence: 16 teachers believed that English learners' pronunciation cannot be free from the cross-linguistic influence of their L1 (in this research, Chinese).
3. Necessity and possibility: 8 teachers considered it either unnecessary or impossible for their students to speak English like NSs since it is too hard to be Student A, which requires very hard work or the experience of living abroad.
4. Language identity: 1 teacher argued that he wanted his students to be identified as Chinese while communicating with foreigners in English.
5. Other reasons:
1 teacher argued that accents can provide the interlocutor with more information.
1 teacher insisted that even NSs speak English differently.

26C:

1. A tool for communication: 20 teachers responded that English is a tool of communication, and grammar does not play an ultimately important role in language acquisition; hence, it is unnecessary for their students to command grammar so well like Student E as long as they can communicate well with others in English, besides, some teachers even believe that grammatical mistakes are unavoidable to English learners.
2. Necessity and possibility: 5 teachers believed that it is neither necessary nor possible for their students to learn grammar very well since they do not have the environment to acquire very good English and it is too hard to be Student E.

26D:

1. A tool of communication: 18 teachers argued that learning those informal grammar rules might either get their students confused, or waste their time, or is not so useful in communication.
2. Better communication: 3 teachers consider it necessary for their students to know enough grammar so as to ensure better communication.
3. Other reasons: 5 teachers chose D for Question 26 because of the following reasons:
 - (1) They do not consider grammar as the most important factor for good communication (1);
 - (2) It is too hard to be Student E (1);
 - (3) It is too hard to learn English like Student E in China (1);
 - (4) We need to communicate with not only NSs but also NNSs, while NNSs might not necessarily know the informal grammar; in this case, the communication will be affected (1);

- (5) Language is changing all the time; we do not have to follow the entire trend (1).

26E:

1. For better communication: 29 teachers believed that speaking English like Student E can guarantee more effective communication.
2. Standardized English: 7 teachers reported that their students should learn Standardized English if they must learn it.
3. Do in Rome as the Romans do: 9 teachers thought that their students should observe NSs' grammar rules since they are learning their language.
4. Goal: 3 teachers argued that it is their target to help their students speak English like Student E.

Appendix I

Language Use in the Professional World

This questionnaire is designed to provide information about language use in the professional workplace in China. The information you provide will enable us to better understand the communication needs of professionals in China and thereby enhancing teaching and learning. All data collected will be treated in the strictest confidence and be used only for research purposes without mentioning your name while reporting.

1. Personal Information

Please answer each item by ticking (✓) the appropriate number or filling in the blank.

1. Gender: (1) Female (2) Male
2. Age: (1) 24 or below (2) 25-29 (3) 30-34 (4) 35-39
(5) 40-44 (6) 45-49 (7) 50-54 (8) 55 or over
3. Years of English learning:
(1) ≤5 (2) 6-10 (3) 11-14 (4) ≥15
4. Highest academic level achieved:
(1) Senior high school or equivalent (2) Higher Diploma
(3) Bachelor's Degree (4) Master's Degree
(5) Doctoral Degree
5. Years of working experience:
(1) ≤5 (2) 6-10 (3) 11-15 (4) 16-20 (5) 21-25
(6) 26-30 (7) 31-35 (8) 36-40 (9) ≥41
6. Rank in current job: (1) Senior (2) Middle (3) Junior
7. Industry/Profession: _____
8. Job title: _____
9. City where you work: _____
10. Type of organization:
(1) Government (i.e. Civil Service) (go to **Q.13**)
(2) Public service unit (e.g. school) (go to **Q.13**)
(3) Company
11. Ownership of company:
(1) China-owned
(2) Foreign-owned (e.g. Japanese), please specify: _____
(3) China-foreign joint venture, please specify: _____
12. Size of company:
(1) Small (≤50 employees) (2) Medium (51-100) (3) Large (≥101)

2. Language use in the Professional Workplace

Please provide information about the roles of the English and Chinese languages in your professional life.

2.1 Written Communication

Please indicate which language(s) you use when **reading** or **writing** each text type at work by ticking (✓) the appropriate number on the scale.

Text type	Always English	Usually English	English & Chinese equally	Usually Chinese	Always Chinese
13. Letters	1	2	3	4	5
14. Memos (hard copy)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Faxes	1	2	3	4	5
16. Internal email messages	1	2	3	4	5
17. External email messages	1	2	3	4	5
18. Reports	1	2	3	4	5

(continued)

(continued)

Text type	Always English	Usually English	English & Chinese equally	Usually Chinese	Always Chinese
19. Minutes	1	2	3	4	5
20. Legal documents	1	2	3	4	5
21. Notices	1	2	3	4	5
22. Promotional materials	1	2	3	4	5
23. Circulars/Newsletters	1	2	3	4	5
24. Professional journals/magazines	1	2	3	4	5
25. Websites	1	2	3	4	5
26. Text message	1	2	3	4	5
27. Skype/QQ	1	2	3	4	5

2.2 Spoken Communication

Please indicate which language you are **most likely to speak** or **listen** to in the following speaking/listening situations at work by ticking (✓) the appropriate number on the scale.

Speaking/listening situations	Putonghua	English	Other (please specify)
28. Formal meetings/negotiations (i.e. with agenda, minutes)	1	2	
29. Informal meetings/discussions	1	2	
30. Staff training/development	1	2	
31. Presentations	1	2	
32. Conferences	1	2	
33. Seminars	1	2	
34. Job interviews (as interviewee/-er)	1	2	
35. Appraisal interviews (as appraisee/-er)	1	2	
36. Telephoning	1	2	
37. WeChat	1	2	
38. Skype/QQ	1	2	
39. Socializing with colleagues	1	2	

3. Use of English in the Professional Workplace

Please indicate **how often you use English** for various professional purposes by ticking (✓) the appropriate number on the scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	Seldom (once/twice a year)	Not very often (once/twice every 4 months)	Sometimes (once/twice a month)	Often (once/twice a week)	Always (almost every day)

3.1 Writing in English

Please indicate **how often** you write each text type in English.

Text type	Never	Seldom	Not very often	Sometimes	Often	Always
40. Letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. Memos (hard copy)	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. Faxes	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Internal email messages	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. External email messages	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Reports	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Minutes	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. Notices	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. Promotional materials	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. Text message	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. Skype/QQ	1	2	3	4	5	6

3.2 Reading in English

Please indicate **how often** you read each text type in English.

Text type	Never	Seldom	Not very often	Sometimes	Often	Always
51. Letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. Memos (hard copy)	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. Faxes	1	2	3	4	5	6
54. Internal email messages	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. External email messages	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. Reports	1	2	3	4	5	6
57. Minutes	1	2	3	4	5	6
58. Legal documents	1	2	3	4	5	6
59. Notices	1	2	3	4	5	6
60. Promotional materials	1	2	3	4	5	6
61. Circulars/Newsletters	1	2	3	4	5	6

(continued)

(continued)

Text type	Never	Seldom	Not very often	Sometimes	Often	Always
62. Professional journals/magazines	1	2	3	4	5	6
63. Websites	1	2	3	4	5	6
64. Text message	1	2	3	4	5	6
65. Skype/QQ	1	2	3	4	5	6

3.3 Speaking and listening in English

Please indicate **how often** you speak or listen to English in each situation.

Speaking/listening situations	Never	Seldom	Not very often	Sometimes	Often	Always
66. Formal meetings or negotiations (i.e., with agenda, minutes)	1	2	3	4	5	6
67. Informal meetings/discussions	1	2	3	4	5	6
68. Staff training/development	1	2	3	4	5	6
69. Presentations	1	2	3	4	5	6
70. Conferences	1	2	3	4	5	6
71. Seminars	1	2	3	4	5	6
72. Telephoning	1	2	3	4	5	6
73. WeChat	1	2	3	4	5	6
74. Skype/QQ	1	2	3	4	5	6
75. Socializing with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Views on professional language use

4.1 Importance of languages

Please indicate **how important** the following languages are in your current job.

	Completely unimportant	<	<	>	>	Extremely important
76. Putonghua	1	2	3	4	5	6
77. Written Chinese	1	2	3	4	5	6
78. Spoken English	1	2	3	4	5	6
79. Written English	1	2	3	4	5	6
80. Spoken form of another language/dialect (please specify:_____)	1	2	3	4	5	6
81. Written form of the language you specified (if applicable)	1	2	3	4	5	6

4.2 Language ability

Please indicate **your ability** in the following languages.

	Poor	Somewhat poor	Not good	Good	Very good	Excellent
82. Putonghua	1	2	3	4	5	6
83. Written Chinese	1	2	3	4	5	6
84. Spoken English	1	2	3	4	5	6
85. Written English	1	2	3	4	5	6
86. Spoken form of another language/dialect (please specify:_____)	1	2	3	4	5	6
87. Written form of the language you specified (if applicable)	1	2	3	4	5	6

4.3 Changes in the importance of languages

Please indicate **what changes** you have noticed in the use of the following languages since you started work.

	Less important	More important	About the same
88. Putonghua	1	2	3
89. Written Chinese	1	2	3
90. Spoken English	1	2	3
91. Written English	1	2	3

(continued)

(continued)

	Less important	More important	About the same
92. Spoken form of another language/dialect (please specify: _____)	1	2	3
93. Written form of the language you specified (if applicable)	1	2	3

Thank you very much for your participation!

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