

ETiC

English Teaching in China

A peer-reviewed journal for teaching professionals

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Featured Article

- Chinese English...Andy Kirkpatrick

Research

- ELF or Interlanguage
- Academic Vocabulary

Reflections

- Academic Literacies
- Student Autonomy
- Discipline Specific English
- Student Speech Delivery

Reviews

- Books & Websites
- Conferences



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Welcome to our fifth issue of ETiC! The main difference between this and former issues is that some articles contain English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and/or Chinese English linguistic features. Hence 'errors', which would probably have been edited out in previous issues, have remained, provided intelligibility is not in doubt. Since ETiC is based in China, we feel that articles written with ELF features and/or in varieties of English other than Standard British or American English are wholly appropriate and we will continue to accept such submissions in the future.

Issue 5 contains an eclectic mix of articles. It opens with a feature by Andy Kirkpatrick, an expert in the field of English as a Lingua Franca in Asian countries. Following this is the Research section containing two articles covering macro (what variety of English) and micro (specific lexical) issues of learning English. The Reflections section meanwhile consists of a further four articles focusing on academic literacies, autonomous learning in groups, English for Specific Purposes, and Chinese students' speeches. We finish with our regular Reviews section featuring: a critique of a recent book on ELF; our experts' 'Insites' into critical thinking websites; a conference report; upcoming conferences; and a tongue-in-cheek Chinese Corner to wrap everything up.

Issue 6 will focus on topics related to the theme of Intercultural Communication, although of course other topics will be welcome (see the call for papers, p.55).

Please email submissions to etic@xjtlu.edu.cn. Author guidelines and past issues are available on our web site: etic.xjtlu.edu.cn. Please try to follow the guidelines as closely as possible. The provisional deadline for submissions for ETiC Issue 6 will be 31st October, 2014.

Thank you once again to each of the thirty or so people involved in producing this challenging issue of ETiC, and thanks as ever to our expanding circle of followers.



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Feature	<p>1 The Development of Englishes in Asia: Chinese English to Join the Family? <i>Andy Kirkpatrick</i> outlines the emergence of Englishes in Asia and cites recent evidence for the appearance of a Chinese variety</p>
Research	<p>7 Chinese Speakers' Attitudes towards their Own English: ELF or Interlanguage <i>Ying Wang</i> investigates whether Chinese English speakers perceive their English to be interlanguage or a legitimate variety of English</p>
	<p>13 The Use of Academic English Vocabulary in the Writing of Chinese Students <i>Marina Dodigovic, Hui Li, Yixiao Chen & Danni Guo</i> assess how well Chinese students use words from the Academic Word List (AWL) in their writing</p>
Reflections	<p>21 ELF and its Role in EAP: Lessons from Academic Literacies <i>Stuart Perrin</i> argues that an academic literacies approach to teaching EAP would be a better way to meet the needs of students in transnational higher education institutions</p>
	<p>26 Doing it for Themselves: The Impact of Learners in Organised Groups <i>Terry Greatrex</i> describes a successful student activity and proposes that there is untapped value in examining and understanding how learners behave in groups</p>
	<p>31 EAP Students Should Learn Discipline-Specific Writing Skills <i>Percival Santos</i> contends that learning to write in discipline-specific English should be incorporated into foundation programmes</p>
	<p>37 Why Do Chinese Students Often Deliver Speeches Perceived as Unoriginal at English Competitions? Interviews with Judges from English Speaking Nations and Possible Explanations <i>Matthew Farabaugh</i> examines the impact of cultural differences on foreign judges and Chinese student contestants during an English speaking competition in China</p>
Reviews	<p>44 Book Review: English as a Lingua Franca in the International University: The Politics of Academic English Language Policy <i>Jonathan Culbert</i> critiques the 'linguistic revolution', which ELF followers would seemingly be in favour of, and highlights some inconsistencies in Jenkins' recent book</p>
	<p>46 Insites <i>Jackie Hemingway, Glen Cotten and Anthony Fogarty</i> report on some useful websites which have practical applications for students trying to develop their critical thinking skills</p>
	<p>50 Conference Report <i>Anthea Tse</i> relays the highlights from Shantou University's conference on Intercultural Competence in April 2014</p>
	<p>53 Upcoming Conferences <i>Seth Hartigan</i> selects from the latest crop of conferences and calls for papers to put in your calendar</p>
	<p>56 Chinese Corner New Chinglish loanwords for the OED to consider - Chinese as a lingua franca?</p>

The Development of Englishes in Asia: Chinese English to Join the Family?

By Andy Kirkpatrick

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English has been spoken in Asia for several hundred years, with trade being the main vehicle for the introduction of English to the region. For example, when in December 1600, Queen Elizabeth the 1st of England awarded a trade monopoly with India to a group of English merchants, The East India Company, they naturally brought English with them to India (Ferguson, 1996). Trade also brought English to China. The first recorded contact between British and Chinese traders was recalled by one of the British traders, Peter Mundy in his account, *The Travels of Peter Mundy* (Bolton, 2003). As trade developed, so did contact between English speaking traders and their Chinese counterparts and from this contact developed a form of Chinese pidgin English (with 'pidgin' a local realisation of 'business'). Bolton (2003, p. 154ff) provides a fascinating account of the history of English in China and records several examples of early Chinese pidgin English, including :

The real stimulus for the development of varieties of English across Asia was however, colonisation. As the British Empire increased its colonial holdings, so did the English language spread to these colonies. Mufwene (2001) has

<u>Canton pidgin</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
Chop-chop	very quickly
Chow-chow	food, to eat
Cow-cow	to be noisy and angry; an uproar
Fan kwei	foreign devil

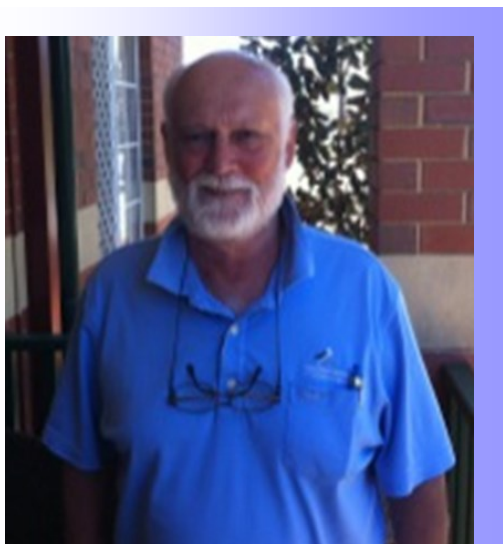
made an important distinction between types of colonies, differentiating between settlement and trade/exploitation colonies. Settlement colonies were typically characterised by small indigenous populations, and the British sent out people from their own shores to settle these lands. Australia is a good example of what was a settlement colony. Trade/exploitation colonies were typically countries which had a thriving local population, but which were also rich in natural resources which the British Empire needed to fund its expansion and create wealth. India is a good example of what was a trade/exploitation colony. Although varieties of English naturally developed in these colonies, following similar stages and phases (Schneider, 2007), there were some differences created by the relative numbers of

settlers/colonists and the indigenous population. Where the indigenous population was relatively small and the number of settlers high, then local languages had less influence upon the new varieties of English that developed. But this is not to say that the local languages and their speakers had no influence. Australian English, for example, is replete with words taken from Aboriginal languages. Indeed the three items most commonly associated with Australia – koalas, kangaroos and boomerangs – are all words from local Aboriginal languages.

On the other hand, where the local population represented the great majority and the colonists a tiny minority, then local languages and their speakers had more influence upon the varieties of English that developed. India is one of the most densely populated nations in the world, and its rich linguistic diversity has been described as a baffling mosaic of multilingualism (Mehrotra, 1998). It is not surprising then that it is possible to talk about varieties of Indian English, rather than a single Indian English. But as both Mufwene (2001) and Schneider (2007) have argued, “postcolonial Englishes follow a fundamentally uniform developmental process” (Schneider 2010, p. 380-381). These postcolonial Englishes typically pass through the following phases:

The foundation phase – when English is introduced.

The exonormative stabilisation phase – the local variety of English is closely modelled on the variety spoken by the English speaking settlers.



The nativisation phase – when the local varieties of English mix with the settlers/colonists’ varieties to produce a locally shaped variety of English.

The endonormative stabilisation phase – when the new local variety gradually becomes accepted as the local norm or model (and can be used as a classroom model, for example).

The differentiation phase – when the new variety, reflecting local identities and cultures has emerged and when more local varieties develop.

If we briefly look at some examples of Indian English, we can see how its speakers have adopted and then adapted the language to suit their own cultural needs and experiences. As Raja Rao, the Indian writer and poet, (cited in Srivastava & Sharma, 1991) pointed out more than 50 years ago:

We shall have English with us and amongst us, and not as our guest or friend, but as one of our own, of our castes, our creed, our sect and our tradition (p. 190). We cannot write like the English. We should not. We can only write as Indians (p. 205).

The examples below of Indian English illustrate a range from vernacular ill-educated to highly formal written varieties (see Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 85ff for a full discussion). The first example is taken from a teenager’s journal and shows how code-mixing between local languages and English becomes a natural part of a new variety in certain contexts. *Dhamal* is a Sanskrit word which meant a traditional type of dance, but now means dance more generally. *Beechara bakra* is Hindi for ‘poor goat’.

Two rival groups are out to have fun...you know, generally indulge in *dhamal* and pass time. So what do they do? They pick on a *beechara bakra* who has entered college (D’Souza, 2001, p. 152).

The second example is taken from an Indian novel and shows the traditional use of Sikh greetings. *Sat Sri Akal* means ‘God is truth’. ‘Live in plenty. Live a long age’ is also a

traditional wish.

She bent her head to receive her mother-in-law's blessing. 'Sat Sri Akal'.

'Sat Sri Akal' replied Sabhrai lightly touching Champak's shoulder.

'Sat Sri Akal' said Sher Singh.

'Live in plenty, live a long age' replied Sabhrai taking her son's hand and kissing it.

'Sleep well' (From *I Shall Not Hear the Nightingale Sing*, quoted in Kachru, 1991, p. 301).

The final example is taken from an academic text, a book reviewing and describing the literature published in English in India over a twenty year period. This excerpt itself describes the development of English in India, and is characterised by the use of extended metaphor, a highly respected Indian rhetorical style.

Years ago, a slender sapling from a foreign field was grafted by 'pale hands' on the mighty and many-branched Indian banyan tree. It has kept growing vigorously and now, an organic part of its parent tree, it has spread its own probing roots into the brown soil below. Its young leaves rustle energetically in the strong winds that blow from the western horizon, but the sunshine that warms it and the rain that cools it are from Indian skies; and it continues to draw its vital sap from 'this earth, this realm, this India' (Naik & Narayan, 2004, p. 253).

The presence of Indian varieties of English is not in doubt. It is possible to argue, indeed, that the use of English in India has reached Schneider's differentiation stage with the emergence of different varieties. Established varieties of English have also emerged in other Asian settings, typically in post-colonial situations. Thus Bruneian, Malaysian, Filipino and Singaporean English have all been grammatically described. The question that is now being debated is whether Englishes in countries that were not colonised, or were not colonies of English speaking empires, are developing in the same way. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) provides an excellent opportunity to study this, now that

English has been made the sole official working language of the ASEAN group. Thus Asian multilinguals from ASEAN countries which were once British or American colonies (Brunei, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines and Singapore) now use English alongside multilinguals from countries which were colonies or dependencies of France and The Netherlands (Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam and Indonesia), and from Thailand, the only one of the ten ASEAN nations never to have been colonised. There is not space here to consider this question in any depth, but recent findings from the Asian Corpus of English, a corpus of some one million words of naturally occurring English used as a lingua franca among Asian multilinguals, suggest similar developmental patterns (see Kirkpatrick, 2010, Kirkpatrick and Sussex, 2012 for detailed discussion). Here I move on to consider the question in the context of the development of English in China.

Adamson (2002, 2004) has given a useful summary of the history of English teaching in China, and of the government's and people's changing attitudes towards English. While there have been times in the past where English and English speakers were viewed with suspicion, today the demand for English means that there are probably more learners of English in China than there are native speakers of it. Indeed, Bolton and Graddol (2012) suggest that there may be as many as 400 million English learners in China, but also caution that 'English learners' include all those learning English in school, and that we have no reliable figures of the number of Chinese who actually use English as part of their working lives. Nevertheless, that there are currently many millions of Chinese learning and using English is beyond doubt. The rapid growth of kindergartens which teach English is further evidence of the exponential increase in demand for English in China, especially in the wealthier urban areas (Bolton and Graddol, 2012, p. 5). This demand has taken place over a relatively short period of time, with the first new push for English being seen in the late 1970s and early 1980s. At around this time, Chinese scholars started to debate the existence of a Chinese variety of English (Du and Jiang, 2001). An early pioneer into the study of Chinese English was Wang Rongpei, and he offered this definition of Chinese English as, "the English used by the Chinese

people in China, being based on standard English and having Chinese characteristics" (1994, p. 7).

Since then, many scholars have debated the existence of Chinese English. For example, Jiang (2003) has proposed that "English is indeed becoming a Chinese language" and that "the Chinese variety of English will become more and more distinctive as an independent member of the family of world Englishes" (2003, p. 7). These studies have been supported by research into the distinctive linguistic features of Chinese English. The most complete and first book-length account of Chinese English is Xu (2010), from which the following examples are taken. It is one of the great strengths of Xu's book, that his examples are all drawn from 'real' data.

The most fruitful source of data for Chinese English comes from vocabulary items. Xu identifies categories of Chinese English lexis, using Kachru's classification of inner and outer circles of English as an analogy (see Hilmarsson-Dunn, 2013, p. 17-18). Inner circle Chinese English words comprise Chinese loanwords and loan translations. Examples of loanwords include: *yamen*; *dazibao*; *fengshui*; *ganbei*; *Pinyin*; *pi-pa*; and *Putonghua*. Examples of loan transliterations include: *birds' nest*; *dragon boat*; *Cultural Revolution*; *the reform and opening up*; and *the Four Books and Five Classics*.

'Outer circle' words of Chinese English comprise words whose original meanings have shifted to reflect Chinese culture and society. Examples include the concept of 'face', which has a very specific meaning in Chinese English. Further examples of words that have shifted in meaning are *Puke*, meaning card games in general in Chinese English, but a specific card game in American English, and 'migrant workers', which, in Chinese English, refers to people who have migrated from the countryside to the town, but which in British English, means workers who have come from overseas.

Xu also identifies and describes in detail a number of syntactic constructions which are representative of Chinese English (2010, p. 60-106). These include the co-occurrence of connective pairs ("*though* I've been busy for a long time, *but* I got no time"), subject-pronoun copying ("*one of my roommates*, he found it"...) and a preference for topic-comment sentence structure ("I think being a teacher, the life will

be too busy"). He also identifies the frequent use of complex nominalisations in Chinese English with examples such as "*A just concluded two-day rural work conference....*" and "Hu's remarks demonstrate a *down-to-earth evaluation of the current generally bright picture for the nation's development*".

Xu also considers the discourse and pragmatic features of Chinese English. Again using real and authentic data, he shows how Chinese cultural values such as 'politeness', 'face' and 'hierarchy' are realised in Chinese English. He discusses in-depth the concept of *guanxi*, and illustrates how the desire to *zhao guanxi* (seek relations), *la guanxi* (pull relations) and *gao guanxi* (manipulate relations) are reflected in a short story of Ha Jin, the Chinese writer who writes in English. Xu also notes that, on first meeting, Chinese, unlike the English, who tend to make comments about the weather, ask and answer questions on their home towns. He calls this "ancestral hometown discourse" (2010, p. 127-133) and gives a series of examples of how this is managed in Chinese English.

Xu's work provides strong evidence that it is possible to talk sensibly about the existence of a Chinese variety of English. In addition to linguistic features of the type illustrated above, a key feature of varieties of English is their frequent use of code-mixing, as we saw in the examples of Indian English above. In this, Chinese English proves no exception. Wei Zhang shows how a "mixed code variety of Chinese English" (2012, p. 40) is becoming increasingly popular, especially among users of social media. Indeed she even cites one on-line group who insists that every sentence posted on the site "should be mixed with English" (2012, p. 42). This use of mixing by speakers of Chinese English reflects the development of multicultural identities by these speakers. Similar uses of mixed codes, especially in popular culture and the social media, can be seen in the English used by Asian multilinguals across the region.

At the same time, however, as China is seeing the rapid rise in the use of English and the simultaneous development of Chinese English, one scholar has sounded the alarm concerning the apparently paradoxical demise of English departments in Chinese universities. Even as more and more people are learning and using English, there has been a steep decline in students taking English as a major at

university level (Qu, 2012). The demand from students has shifted away from traditional aspects of English study, such as literature. Students now see English as a tool that they need “in order to facilitate their participation in international business activities” (Qu, 2012, p. 16). As a consequence, the Ministry of Education has revised the syllabus for English majors to ensure it meets the “demands of the socialist market economy” (2012, p. 17). As Qu notes, few academics in English departments are either interested in or qualified in teaching professional English, and he thus predicts an unhappy future for English departments in Chinese universities, despite the increasing demand for the language.

As noted above, the development of English in post-colonial societies tends to follow similarly sequenced phases. As Schneider (2007, 2010) points out, it is not until phase 4 – the endonormative stage – that the local indigenous variety becomes accepted as the norm and classroom model. While it is beyond the scope of this article to consider whether the development of Chinese English will follow stages similar to those identified by Schneider for post-colonial Englishes, similar processes of nativisation can be seen. It is also probably true to say however, that Chinese English has yet to be accepted as a socially acceptable norm and potential classroom model. A number of scholars have conducted studies into the acceptability of Chinese English (e.g. He and Li, 2009) that suggest that attitudes towards Chinese English are becoming more positive. Further studies are needed in this field to see to what extent, for example, Chinese English is acceptable at the increasing number of universities in China that are teaching courses through the medium of English. In other words, does the ‘E’ in English medium of instruction (EMI) refer only to native speaker varieties of English, or does it also include different varieties of English, such as Chinese and/or English as a lingua franca (Kirkpatrick, 2014)?

In a recent article in *English Teaching in China* (ETiC), Fan and Tong (2014) suggest that English remains seen as owned exclusively by native speakers, as they lament that even in Shanghai, “there are ...relatively few foreigners. As a consequence, Chinese people rarely have the opportunity to communicate

with native speakers” (2014, p. 9). But as the Chinese themselves have adequately proved, there are now many more multilinguals using English for whom English is a learned or additional language, than there are native speakers of it. The majority of those foreigners in Shanghai are likely to be multilinguals for whom English is an additional language, and who use English as a lingua franca. As such, they represent excellent opportunities for speakers of Chinese English to engage in intercultural communication and develop their use of English as a lingua franca (ELF). Chinese learners of English do not need to rely solely on native speakers for their practice. The major use of English in today’s world is as a lingua franca and speakers of Chinese English are likely to become a vital and vibrant part of the international ELF community. Chinese English is here to stay.

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Chinese Speakers' Attitudes Towards Their Own English: ELF or Interlanguage

By Ying Wang

The globalisation of English has motivated the research into English as a lingua franca (ELF) and the debate concerning non-native English speakers' (NNEs') own English. Despite the scholarly justification of NNEs' variations from native English, how users of non-native Englishes perceive their own English is crucial in the discussion of linguistic pluricentricity. This paper sets out to investigate Chinese speakers' perceptions of their own English in order to offer insights into this issue. The findings reveal a positive sign of the consciousness of ELF in the participants' language attitudes and indicate that further efforts are needed to raise awareness of the changing role of English in the on-going process of globalisation.

Introduction

The globalisation of English highlights the role of English as a global lingua franca. An increasing consensus that English belongs to all those who use it (Cogo, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2009, p. 236) poses challenge to the presumption that native English is "the final basis of correctness judgements" (Ammon, 2000, p. 113) and questions the relevance of English as a native language (ENL) for ELF speakers (Jenkins, 2000). Research into ELF offers insights into non-native English speakers' (NNEs') Englishes in terms of their linguistic regularities, pragmatics and functions as well as situational process of intercultural communication via their Englishes, suggesting that English is shaped by NNEs (Cogo and Dewey, 2012; Mauranen, 2012). Yet, language users' attitudes serve as a principal factor for linguistic legitimacy (Jenkins, 2007; Bamgbose, 1998). It is thus a pressing task to investigate NNEs' own perceptions of English as used by them in intercultural communication. This paper proceeds to find out whether Chinese speakers see their own English as an interlanguage within the traditional framework of reference to ENL or an autonomous

language equal to ENL in line with the new research paradigm known as ELF.

English as a lingua franca

The discussion of ELF inevitably touches upon its distinction from English as a foreign language (EFL) (see e.g. Jenkins, 2006, Jenkins, 2014, Swan, 2012, Seidlhofer, 2011, Widdowson, 2013). According to Jenkins (2014), EFL relates to the discourse in the system of modern foreign languages, which highlights the origin of English among NESs and implies NESs' authority over those who have other first language backgrounds. By contrast, ELF follows the paradigm of global Englishes, which acknowledges the pluricentricity of English and highlights linguistic equality among speakers from all over the world using English in different ways.

The two paradigms point to different perspectives on NNEs' variations from ENL (Jenkins, 2014, Seidlhofer, 2011). While EFL is associated with a deficit perspective, ELF is linked with a difference one. The former follows the presumption that the closer NNEs' English is to ENL the better (Jenkins, 2006), taking NNEs' variations as errors. In a

difference perspective, NNESSs' performance is evaluated with the focus on the function of their linguistic output, whether native-like or non-native-like. Correspondingly, some variations considered as unacceptable on the EFL paradigm take new lives on the ELF paradigm. For example, L1 transfer/interference is conceived as NNESSs' identity marker, code-switching/code-mixing as part of bilingual resources.

However, ELF does not suggest that 'anything goes'. While formulaic correctness is irrelevant in ELF communication, appropriateness is an important indicator of successful ELF performance. NNESSs adopt certain forms of English according to communicative contexts and their interlocutors so that they can achieve their purposes of communication. In this regard, empirical research has uncovered some functions of NNESSs' variations from ENL, such as identification, communicative efficiency and a sense of humour (see e.g. Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2011). The findings challenge the traditional judgement on NES variations as indicators of a lack of control in English proficiency and reinterpret them as alternations of NES repertoire in ELF users' performative resources (Jenkins, 2000; Wang, 2013). Here are a few examples of the patterns of NNESSs' Englishes (e.g. Cogo and Dewey, 2012):

- 'Dropping' the third person present tense – s
- Inserting 'redundant' prepositions, as in *We have to study about...*
- 'Overusing' certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*

The acknowledgment of the value of NNESSs' variations touches upon NNESSs' linguistic rights. Widdowson's (1994) discussion of the ownership of English challenges the exclusive control of English by NESs and lends support to NNESSs' right to English. As Widdowson (2003, p. 35) points out, English in its spread is "seeded" among NNESSs, but not "ceded" to them. That is, while NNESSs are not passive receivers of ENL that is passed over to them, it is wrong to think that NESs should passively conform to what "belongs" to NESs. Instead,

NNESSs actively make English their own and they are entitled to do so.

In addition, the centrality of NESs in use of English vis-à-vis the neglect over NNESSs' active role in the spread of English is problematic in that it treats *the* English, i.e. ENL, as a decontextualized entity, which seems to be a one-for-all solution in spite of differences between ELF contexts and NES contexts and, in turn, the speakers' responses to different settings. To borrow Mair's (2003, p. xi) point, the entity is sanctioned through the form of "decontextualized structural systems which can be described by listing their phonetic, grammatical and lexical features". The focus on formulaic conformity to ENL thus reifies the entity view, which clearly conflicts with the nature of language. As Garrett (2010) notes, the intention to fix a sociolinguistic phenomenon which is changeable in itself is implausible.

In short, the notion of ELF highlights the flexibility of language, the context of language use and linguistic equality among different users, highlighting the meaning of language in its interactive process and in its social contexts.

The data

This paper draws on the data retrieved through semi-structured interviews with 35 Chinese speakers of English. Twelve of them were university students who majored in English and included both undergraduates and postgraduates; another 12 were university students who were non-English majors and comprised of only postgraduates; the rest 11 were professionals who used English in daily jobs to different extent. As the purpose of the qualitative research was to investigate language attitudes among Chinese speakers, the sample was drawn with the intention to be informative rather than representative.

Some prompts were prepared but no specific questions were stipulated for the interviews, so as to let the participants lead the flow of conversation. The prompts included: their linguistic experience, their attitudes/perceptions/views related to English/their own English/native speakers' English/Chinese speakers' English, whether they were aware of different Englishes, whether they were aware of the function of English as a global lingua franca, their anticipation related to English

teaching/learning activities. All interviews were conducted in Chinese to create free and easy atmosphere for the conversation with the participants. The excerpts used in this paper are thus translations from Chinese conversations.

All participants received a research information sheet explaining that this project was focused on their views of English used by Chinese speakers (Wang, 2012). While the term of ‘English as a lingua franca’ was not included in the information sheet, the data provided by the participants was interpreted by the researcher with the focus on whether their view of Chinese speakers’ English reflected a traditional Second Language Acquisition (SLA) perspective or an ELF perspective.

Most participants expressed their views of Chinese speakers’ English, which were coded as either interlanguage or successful language. A few participants reported to have difficulties in making comments on Chinese speakers’ English. For them, Chinese speakers’ English could not be considered as ‘a’ describable English. They seemed to be cautious about making comments on Chinese speakers’ English in general. Given this, I asked them about their feelings of their own English or their friends/peers/colleagues’ English. Their evaluation pointed to either interlanguage or successful language.

An interlanguage

A common theme was that NNEs were in the process of approaching the ultimate goal for native-like English. To put it differently, Chinese speakers’ English was associated with the concept of interlanguage. Various metaphors were used to describe Chinese speakers’ English. For example, LJ compared Chinese speakers’ English as 副产品 (a by-product derived from a manufacturing process), (电影)花絮 (outtakes and bloopers which will be removed in the final cut for a film) and (发展)瓶颈 (development bottleneck), suggesting that Chinese speakers will eventually break through the ‘bottleneck’ and

reach the goal. By using the metaphors 副产品 and (电影)花絮, LJ emphasized that Chinese speakers’ English was not *the* desired “product” or successful “take” but an unwelcomed outcome, which would eventually be abandoned, in Chinese speakers’ way to their target, that is, native English as the desired product and successful “take” in LJ’s view. With the metaphor 夹生饭 (undercooked rice), TR argued that Chinese speakers’ English was not disastrous but neither was it desirable. CZ described it as 婴儿的英语 (baby’s English), suggesting that Chinese speakers should work hard to develop their proficiency in English in order to reach near-native English competence. All these metaphors were used to suggest that Chinese speakers’ English would eventually be replaced by native-like English if they made more efforts. Moreover, some participants made clear that “native Englishes” were set to be the “ultimate goal”. As JF assumed, “everyone is working towards the same ultimate goal”, i.e. native Englishes. In ZB’s words, the more you were close to native Englishes, the better your English was.

Whereas the participants gave favourable comments on native Englishes, the negative views prevailed and implied that Chinese speakers’ English was bad. For example, JF felt frustrated with the belief that an NNEs “might not be able to reach the goal in the end”. ZL, another participant, associated Chinese speakers’ English with “anything goes”. It is therefore not surprising that some participants felt unhappy with their own English although they reported to have experience of communicating successfully with foreigners.

A successful language

Despite the widespread perception of Chinese speakers’ English as an interlanguage, a few participants saw Chinese speakers’ English as a successful English. For example, TR made unprompted comments on some Chinese speakers’ English as follows:

Extract 1

- | | | |
|---|----|---|
| 1 | TR | Their English might be, if we compare their English with the standard, I mean |
| 2 | | the authentic English, their English is very bad. But they have no problem in |
| 3 | | communication at all. |

While TR realised the gap of Chinese speakers' English in "authenticity view", he shifted his focus by using "but" and stressed the

achievement of Chinese speakers with the phrase "no problem ... at all". A similar view was found in WB's interview:

Extract 2

- 1 WB Around me, those who can speak quite well are those who often work with
2 foreigners. They can express themselves smoothly, either when they are on
3 the phone, or when they talk face to face with foreigners. For example,
4 when we are in exhibition fair. They speak English fluently. But if you ask me
5 how accurate their pronunciation or something is, few of them can qualify.
6 R So, would you, en, feel, say, admire those (who speak native-like English), or
7 would you feel, this is nothing special?
8 WB I cannot say I would admire them. Everybody has different jobs and meets
9 different customers, and therefore needs different skills. There's nothing
10 special.
11 R So you mean you won't-
12 WB -speaking of English, such a thing, you know, in Saige Plaza in Guangdong, a
13 well-known electronic market in China [...]You would see the market full of
14 foreigners, who are doing business with the Chinese dealers there. Most of the
15 time, they only use a few simple English expressions. You know how to say
16 the product in English. Then, when they negotiate prices, they used the
17 calculators. They just press the numbers. How much is the annual turnover in
18 Saige? Massive.

WB talked about his observation of successful ELF communication between Chinese businessmen and foreigners. He disagreed to link good users of English exclusively with native-like users of English. He first gave examples of his colleagues who did not have "accurate" pronunciation (line 5) but spoke English "quite well" (line 1). When the researcher pushed him with the question whether he would admire people who could speak native-like English, he gave more examples of business dealers. His focus was on the achievement of Chinese speakers who, in his view, did not speak native-

like English. To put differently, Chinese speakers' English was evaluated as to whether it helped to achieve communicative purpose and to get things done. Chinese speakers' English was not connected with the idea of interlanguage but a successful language which helped to realise business transaction.

Apart from the examples of common people, ZB, a non-English major, used the examples of Chinese celebrities and governmental officers to illustrate his view that non-native-like use of English helped to achieve communication:

Extract 3

- 1 ZB But do you think Shui Junyi's English is good? His pronunciation is not
2 correct at all. It is actually very bad. But his communications with
3 foreigners are very fluent. This is what I meant.

Notably, all of the participants who acknowledged the achievement of Chinese speakers of English used seemingly negative words, for example, “bad” and “incorrect”, to describe the achievers’ English. This might suggest that different evaluation criteria co-existed in the commenters’ mind. One criterion, as pointed out by TR (see Extract 1), is the traditional view of authentic English. Another criterion was the achievement of ELF communicative purposes. Importantly, however, those participants were likely to give emphasis on the achievement of Chinese speakers in intercultural encounters. In this sense, their focus seemed to undermine the traditionally SLA based view of ‘deviant’ English as used by Chinese speakers and challenge the label of ‘interlanguage’. This supports Seidlhofer’s (2011) argument that ELF is functionally motivated.

Conclusion

Since Chinese people’s first contact with English language in 1637 when the first British mercantile ships arrived in Canton and Macau (see Bolton 2003), the role of English has changed from a foreign language to a lingua franca for Chinese speakers, with the expansion of English into their life and their domains of English use day by day. This study, however, demonstrates a gap between the sociolinguistic reality of English and Chinese speakers’ perception of this language. The data presents not only a traditional view of Chinese speakers’ English as an interlanguage but also fresh perspective on their English as a successful language in Chinese speakers’ perspective. While the widespread aspiration for ENL and negative attitudes towards Chinese speakers’ own English combine to suggest the need to boost the understanding of English in its sociolinguistic reality, the focus on communicative effects was a positive sign of the influence of the changing English on Chinese speakers’ perceptions of this language. This suggests the need for language teachers to help learners of English to develop their language competence related to the use of this language that fits in the real life situation. The dilemma emerged in this paper about ‘bad’ but ‘useful’ English suggests the need to raise language awareness of Chinese learners/speakers of English through explicit explanation

of ELF concept so that they can see the difference between interlanguage and ELF and, further, develop their confidence in using their own English for intercultural communication.

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The Centre for Global Englishes at the University of Southampton has expanded the Centre to China and established a partnership with China Three Gorges University. The expansion brings together European and Chinese researchers and creates new opportunities for collaborative research on English as a lingua franca and global Englishes with particular focus on Chinese speakers of English. Please visit our website: cge.ctgu.edu.cn.

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The Use of Academic English Vocabulary in the Writing of Chinese Students

By Marina Dodigovic, Hui Li, Yixiao Chen & Danni Guo

Academic Word List (AWL) comprises 570 words, which cover approximately 10% of most academic texts. The success of students of non-English speaking backgrounds in English medium education depends on the command of these words. This study investigated the level of command over AWL of Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University (XJTLU) final year students. Overall, the students' writing was similar in profile to native speaker academic writing, with an approximately 12% AWL coverage. A total of 233 AWL-related errors found in the 453,801-word electronic corpus were mostly related to word form, its part of speech and context, with *analysis*, *focus* and *affect* being the most difficult words.

Introduction

The last decade has witnessed a growing awareness of the importance of academic vocabulary in university studies. It is widely acknowledged nowadays that foreign language students need to acquire a core of high frequency academic vocabulary in order to successfully engage in academic studies, and actively participate in various learning activities at English medium universities. Much research has been conducted in light of the compilation of academic vocabulary lists (Coxhead, 1998; 2000; 2002), vocabulary learning and teaching strategies (Cobb & Horst, 2001; Hiebert & Lubliner, 2008; Nagy and Townsend, 2012), and the usefulness of a generic academic word list across disciplines (Hyland & Tse, 2007; Sutarsyah, Nation & Kennedy, 1994). In contrast, only a handful of studies focuses on how students use those words (McCarthy & Odell, 2008; Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010). With a purpose of improving our understanding of students' repertoires of academic vocabulary, this study investigates final year university students' dissertations to gauge how well

academic words are used. It is hoped that this research could shed light on the learnability of academic vocabulary in English as a foreign or second language, and the implications of academic vocabulary teaching at university level in particular.

Academic vocabulary is also called 'sub-technical vocabulary' (Cowan, 1974), which refers to words that are frequently used in a wide range of academic disciplines, but not commonly in texts of other genres (Coxhead & Nation, 2001). Following Coxhead's (2000) general academic vocabulary list, this paper tries to answer the following research questions:

1. How well are academic words used in XJTLU students' writing?
2. What salient errors can be identified in the use of academic words by Chinese learners?

Literature review

The list of 570 words, also known as AWL or Academic Word List, compiled by Coxhead

(2000), is a significant milestone in English vocabulary research. The words on this relatively short list cover approximately 10% of most academic texts and are deemed crucial to comprehension of such texts (Nation, 2006) and hence to the success of ESL (English as a Second Language) students in English medium education. Although the need for an ESL pedagogy based on such a list has been called into question as non-discipline specific (Neufeld, Hancioglu, & Eldridge, 2011), Li & Qian (2010) demonstrated that such a pedagogy is not only necessary, but can also be successful, especially in the Chinese context.

While research has mostly focused on the receptive needs of ESL students, e.g. the command of vocabulary sufficient for reading and listening, not much is known about the productive command of AWL, i.e. the use of such vocabulary in speaking and writing. Zhou (2010) noted that the receptive academic vocabulary of Chinese ESL learners was larger than their productive academic vocabulary, which is in line with the general receptive – productive vocabulary ratio of 2.2: 1 (Nation, 2001). Nagy & Townsend (2012) pointed out that productive knowledge of academic texts can enhance comprehension. Moreover, according to Coxhead (2012), productive command of AWL signifies that learners have become members of the academic community. A study by Storch & Tapper (2009) as well as the one by Deng, Lee, Varaprasad & Leng (2010) tracked the development of AWL in the writing of ESL students over the duration of an academic English course finding evidence of significant improvement. Therefore, productive command of AWL in a student population could be an important indicator of both their English learning success and the level of their integration into the international academic community.

For all of the above reasons, it is important to understand the level of productive command of academic vocabulary in an ESL English medium higher education environment, such as XJTLU. Since the use of AWL is more common in written academic prose than it is in spoken academic communication (Zhou, 2010), the writing produced by XJTLU students in their final year would be a good indicator of their English learning and their membership in the international academic community. It was

therefore the aim of this project to profile the vocabulary of final year projects (FYP) of XJTLU students and compare the frequency and accuracy of AWL use with that found in native speaker written academic prose.

The lack of accuracy, otherwise known as language error, is significant in three respects: it informs the teacher about what should be taught; it informs the researcher about the course of learning; it is an outcome of the learner's target language hypothesis testing (James, 1998). The sources of error are deemed to be the redundancy of code (intralingual), various sources of interference (interlingual) and unsuitable presentation (George, 1972). Similarly, James (1998) distinguished between a slip, an odd mistake or a systemic error. A slip is expected to result in self-correction, a mistake calls for feedback, while error requires full correction of the erroneous utterance.

In the language of Chinese English learners, Chang (1987) and Yip (1995) found several types of structural errors. Thus, Chang (1987) identified part of speech confusion in addition to verb form error, including time, tense and aspect. These were seen as negative transfer from Chinese, which is not an inflected language (Chang, 1987). Negative transfer occurs when learners introduce features unique to their first language into their second language (Selinker, 1972). Thus, Chinese learners for example, may show a tendency toward not inflecting words in English, in cases in which inflection would be required. Yip (1995) on the other hand claimed that Chinese learners mainly have problems with verb transitivity, as they use pseudo-passives (These sentences can analyse many ways), ergative construction (What is happened with these verbs?), tough movement (Never easy to be learned...) and existential construction (There are sentences cause learnability problems). Yip's (1995) conclusions are less revealing regarding the causes of the above errors.

Most of learner error research has focused on grammar or structure (Dodigovic, 2005; 2013), while relatively little attention has been paid to lexical errors. According to Agustin Llach (2011), despite the fact that lexical errors emerge as the most numerous in the available studies, the research in this area is still scarce. One of the most contentious issues in this kind

of research is the question of error taxonomy (Agustin Llach, 2011). Carrio Pastor (2004, cited in Agustin Llach, 2011), following James (1998), distinguished six lexical error types: 1) confusion of similar words, 2) wrong word formation, 3) lexical distortions, 4) use of a more or less specific word, 5) collocation error, 6) semantic choice error. Hemchua and Schmitt (2006) on the other hand, subdivided lexical errors into two large groups, based on form and meaning. Both of these taxonomies however, fail to account for the impact of lexical error on utterance structure. The taxonomy used in this study therefore relates to what is known about vocabulary command. Thus, proper command of a word requires the learner to know a number of facts about it. These include the possible contexts in which it can occur, other words that often accompany it, the idiomatic expressions in which it is used, the connotations that it can have, the spelling conventions and variations, the pronunciation and its variations, the sentence structure required to accommodate this word, and its part of speech and possible functions in an utterance (Schmitt, 2001; Folse, 2004; Nation, 2006).

Methodology

Data collection

In this study, 60 academic texts were collected as source for a small learner corpus, which contained the FYP of year four Chinese students studying in the Department of English, Culture and Communication at Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University in China. While some of the participants were majoring in English, others were studying toward double majors in English and Finance or International Business. Prior to inclusion in the corpus, the texts were stripped of identifying information (name, ID number, supervisor, department etc), quotations, citations, page headers, abstracts, table of contents, proper nouns, translation, characters of other languages, references, graphics and appendices. However, commonly used abbreviations (e.g. EAP) were retained, whereas the authors' own creations (e.g. 'CE' for 'College English') were deleted. Finally, all of the edited samples were integrated into the electronic corpus by using the Corpus Builder software found at the

Compleat Lexical Tutor website (www.lextutor.ca).

Data analysis

In the process of analysis, the corpus was profiled and all AWL words were identified using the Vocabprofile component of the Compleat Lexical Tutor software. Each instance of academic word usage was assessed for accuracy by four independent raters. Erroneous uses of AWL vocabulary which were confirmed as such by native speakers were then categorized using a six-type taxonomy. The six types of errors are Context, Collocation, Word Form, Structure, PS (Part of Speech) and spelling. They are explained and exemplified in Table 1.

Results

In the corpus containing 453,801 words or tokens (single instances of word use) there were 12,656 types (different words). Out of the 570 AWL words, 555 were used by student writers with an 11.88% distribution. In total, 233 instances of AWL related errors involving 152 different academic words were identified. The frequency of AWL use in the corpus was found to be 1.88% higher than the expected 10% (Nation, 2006). The 233 errors were sorted both on error type and word to identify the most salient errors types committed by Chinese learners. The results are displayed in Figures 1 and 2 (page 17).

As can be seen in Figure 1, the 233 errors were classified using the six categories: Word Form, PS (Part of Speech), Context, Structure, Collocation and Spelling. Among the six error types, Word Form was found to occur most frequently, with a total of 96 occurrences. Consequently, Word Form error type alone makes up approximately 41% of the total AWL misuse. PS error follows with the raw frequency of 43 (approximately 18.5% of all AWL errors). Furthermore, the frequencies of Context, Structure and Collocation errors are 35, 31, and 24 respectively. Interestingly, only 4 errors were found in the category of Spelling (2%).

The results shown in Figure 2 revealed the most commonly misused academic words. Overall, 152 different words were misused. Seven of these stood out due to their relatively

Table 1: Error taxonomy with examples

Criteria	Explanation	Example	Correction
Context	Wrong word (e.g. “learn” instead of teach)	“writers will allocate the explanation part in an independent paragraph”	Allocate>>>>provide
Collocation	Words used together (e.g. “compelling reason”)	“Researchers study translation in perspective of social-linguistics/pragmatics and functional grammar”	In perspective of>>>>from the perspective/point of view
Word Form	The form of the word (e.g. “put” vs. “puts”)	“how movie titles are affect by cultural factors”	Affect>>>>affected
Structure	Sentence structure required by a particular word (“give something to somebody”)	“there may be other expressions which are polite in Chinese but impolite in English occur in daily life”	Occur>>>>occurring
PS	Part of speech	“it will use questionnaire and case study to analysis the direction of Employment Company”	Analysis>>>> analyze
Spelling	Correct or incorrect	“the brand names can also be used to simulate consumption”	Simuate>>>>stimulate?

frequent occurrence compared with other words. The following is the list of the most frequently misused academic words: analysis (frequency: 14), focus (10), affect (8), analyse/analyze (7), consist (5), emphasize (4), and emphasis (3).

Discussion

Overall, XJTLU students used over 97% of listed academic words in their final year projects, signaling their familiarity with this vocabulary list. The analysis of their AWL use suggests that the students had relatively good productive mastery of this vocabulary group, as the number of erroneous uses does not appear to be proportionally large. On the average, each word was used erroneously less than twice. Lexical error analysis indicates that almost one half (41%) of all

errors are errors of form, which raises the question whether these are real errors of word knowledge or just slips of pen (James, 1998). The fact that these were the final paper drafts would suggest that they were possibly edited and proofread with some care, potentially meaning that any inaccuracies identified are more likely to be errors proper (James, 1998). Another piece of evidence supporting such conclusion is the fact that less than 2% of all AWL related errors were in the spelling category. However, this may be an outcome of concurrent spell-checker use rather than that of careful proofreading and editing.

Majoring in English or having a substantial component of English in their major could have made a difference. It must be noted, however, that XJTLU is an English medium university, with all programmes being delivered in English.

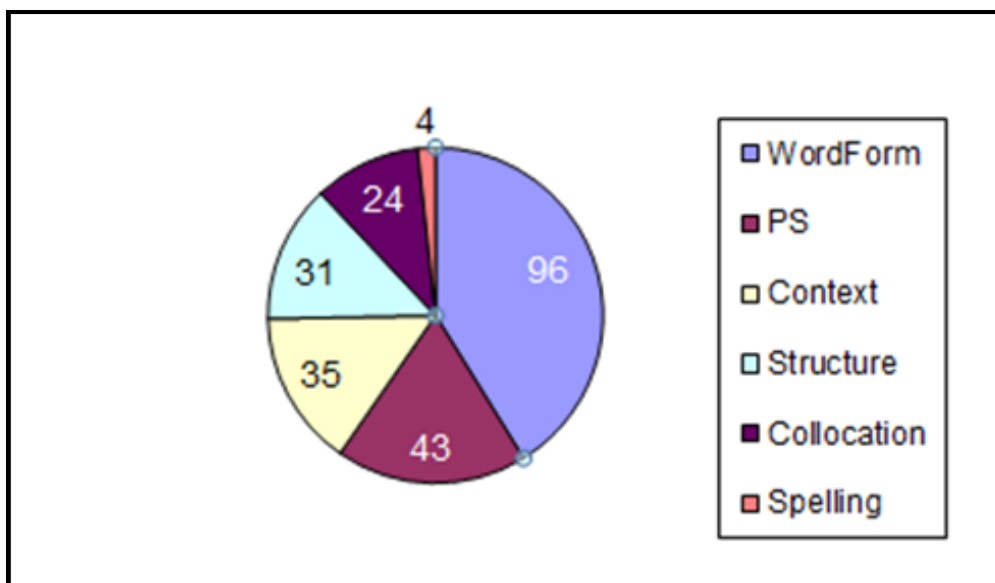


Figure 1: Error Type Distribution

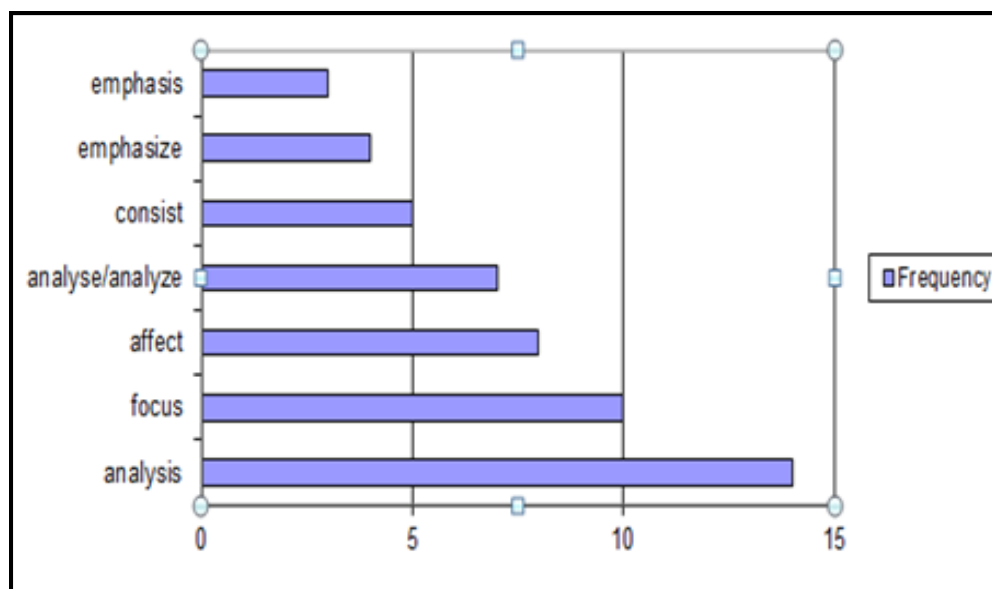


Figure 2: Most Frequently Misused Words

Therefore, there may be some grounds for the assumption that the results are representative of XJTLU population at large. In any case, the errors found in the population of English majors would seem to be errors proper (James, 1998), most likely identifiable in Chinese learners of English at every level and therefore worth analysing.

According to Chang (1987), word form errors would be indicators of first language (L1) interference or negative transfer, since Chinese

as the students' L1 is less inflected than English as their target language (L2). Based on Chang (1987), the same claim could be made regarding PS errors, which were the next most frequent category. Almost one fifth (18.5%) of all AWL errors were classified as PS, which is consistent with previous research (Dodigovic, 2005; 2013). What is surprising is the fact that only 15% of AWL errors had any bearing on sentence structure, although previous research (Yip, 1995) would suggest that structure errors are both

frequent and significant. A possible reason for the underrepresentation of structure-related errors could be the fact that only approximately 12% of the corpus vocabulary was investigated. The reason for this is the focus of the study on AWL, which generally accounts for approximately 10% of academic texts (Nation, 2001). In the learner corpus used in this study, the percentage of AWL was just under 12%. Lexical errors concerning vocabulary other than AWL are not the subject of this study. The same applies to structural errors of more general nature. The small size of corpus is another variable possibly contributing to the small size of the pool of errors.

Another unexpected outcome was the low percentage of collocation errors (10%). Literature identifies collocation, especially in EFL contexts (Yamashita & Jiang, 2010), as relatively difficult to master. Therefore, the low frequency of collocation errors may be indicative of a specific emphasis on AWL and collocation in English instruction at XJTLU. On the other hand, anecdotal evidence seems to suggest that academic words may not have been explicitly taught to the students. Rather, incidental acquisition of AWL words might have occurred through multiple encounters in everyday learning activities, involving extensive as well as intensive reading and writing tasks. Literature suggests that incidental learning may result in only partial mastery of words (Schmitt, 2010), and having an impact mainly on the receptive dimension of word knowledge (Brown, Waring & Donkaewbua, 2008). Therefore, failure to master all aspects of AWL vocabulary suggests that incidental learning may be a probable cause. One possible implication of this is that in addition to incidental learning of academic words, EAP instruction should facilitate deliberate learning of academic vocabulary, with a reasonable regard for word form, especially in Chinese contexts. This recommendation is echoed by Kirchner (2013), who studied the vocabulary size of a different group of students in a similar context.

Conclusion

This study has investigated academic vocabulary used in the final-year students' writing in the Department of English, Culture and Communication at XJTLU. Two research questions were addressed: 1) How well are

academic words used in XJTLU students' writing? 2) What salient errors can be identified in the use of academic words by Chinese learners? In response to the first question, the fact that only about a quarter of the identified AWL were used erroneously, less than two times each on the average, would suggest that relative mastery of AWL has been achieved. With respect to the second question, it appears that the large majority of all AWL related errors are word form errors. Based on previous research (Chang, 1987; Yip, 1995; Dodigovic, 2013), the salience of word form errors seems to point to the negative transfer from the students' first language, while the partial mastery of words suggests that these might have been acquired incidentally. The combined impact of negative L1 transfer and the possible incidental acquisition of vocabulary might best be countered by the provision for raising language awareness and increased opportunities for deliberate vocabulary learning within the context of EAP instruction.

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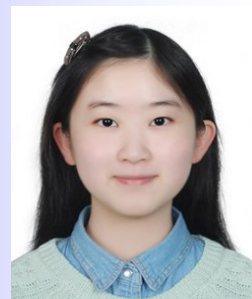
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ELF and its Role in EAP: Lessons from Academic Literacies

By Stuart Perrin

Introduction

Over the last ten years or so, there has been a noticeable change in higher education (HE) globally, with the 2000s being characterised by the rise of the phenomenon of Transnational Education (TNE), which is predominantly associated with English speaking education (and educational models) being exported overseas. McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) describe TNE as education delivered by an institution which is based in one country to students who are located in another country. As education becomes more globalized, higher education systems have gone through restructuring processes to enable themselves to be positioned both within their local and regional contexts, and also in the global market. Asia, and especially China, has been particularly active in TNE (Huang, 2007), with the British Council (2013) identifying China as a country with TNE opportunity. As TNE is associated with English speaking education, the importance of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) becomes clear (Graddol, 2006). This creates a real demand for English language support at HE institutions globally in the form of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) provision, but one key question that needs to be addressed is what is the (language) standard that this provision should be aiming for. This paper argues that the traditional reliance on English native speaker norms as the target language that EAP provision should be aiming for is now redundant and that an academic literacies approach (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006) better meets the needs of today's TNE HE students.

English as a Lingua Franca in academic settings

Classifications of types of English speakers and the English language variety being used need to be treated with some caution, as they often fail to take into account the complex multiple identities of the language user (Norton, 2013). This is especially true in TNE situations where the majority of English speakers are not likely to be English first language speakers. Whilst classifications are often used in attempting to identify the perceived language requirements of the language users, who can be assumed to be students in this article, they may not take into account the requirements of the students' various 'communities of practices' (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and the power invested in certain forms of English. However, some discussion is important in order to get a fuller understanding of how English may be used in (global) academic settings.

Graddol (1997, p. 10) identifies three types of English speakers: first language speakers or what are often called 'native speakers (NSs)', second or additional language speakers, and foreign language speakers. First language speakers usually live in countries where the main culture is predominantly English, though as Graddol does highlight, these countries are themselves becoming increasingly multilingual. Second language speakers "have English as a second or additional language, placing English in a repertoire of languages where each is used in different contexts" (Graddol, 1997, p. 10). The third type is the increasing numbers learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). These

second two groups are also often referred to as 'non-native speakers (NNSs)'. Kachru (1985) uses these three categories in his three circles of English theory, placing first language speakers as the 'inner circle', second language speakers as the 'outer circle', and foreign language speakers as the 'expanding circle'. This model does show quite nicely the relationship between the three different types of speakers of English, being conceived as a way of showing the (chronological) geographical spread of the language away from the initial native speaker core. Brumfit (2001) suggested that "the English language no longer belongs numerically to speakers of English as a mother tongue," suggesting that responsibility for "language change, language maintenance, and the ideologies and beliefs associated with the language" (p. 116) now rests with speakers of English as an additional language.

The growth of globalisation has changed the way that English is perceived (Graddol, 2006), highlighted by the decline of EFL and native speaker proficiency as the dominant model for language learning; educational reforms in NNSs countries, especially with regard to young learners and English medium degrees at university; and the loss of a separate identity of English as a discipline, which Graddol (2006) suggests have all contributed to what he calls "the era of Global English" (p. 106). Jenkins (2000, p. 9) adds to the debate by raising the issue of not only who learns English, but also what form of English is being learnt. English is increasingly the main language in business meetings, conferences, political and educational settings. Communication is taking place in English between speakers from different first languages, or putting it another way, English is acting as a lingua franca (ELF) between these speakers.

Seidlhofer (2011) defined ELF as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (p. 7). The native speaker is not excluded from ELF communication, but as Jenkins (2013) highlights they participate as equals, not as norm providers. Phillipson (2008) recognises the importance of English for learning in HE in referring to "English as a lingua academica" (p. 250). Referring specifically to TNE contexts, Mauranen (2007, cited in Jenkins, 2013) in a letter to the Times Higher Education

Supplement, highlighted that international academic communities communicate in largely non-native groups, where clarity, effectiveness and contextual appropriateness of communication are required to high academic standards, but not to high, native-like English standards.

Unpacking English for Academic Purposes

With the growth of English as the lingua franca in TNE institutions, and questions being raised as to what English is the standard to aim for, there is a need to unpack what should be delivered in an EAP classroom within these institutions. EAP can be defined as "teaching English with the aim of facilitating learners' study or research in that language" (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 8). Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) suggest that EAP "refers to language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts" (p. 2). EAP is not just about learning English, rather it aids learners in equipping them with the communicative (both written and spoken) skills to participate in particular academic and cultural contexts. However, EAP provision in many institutions around the world shows a heavy reliance on native speaker standards being the target to attain, and can often be one of the main marking criteria when grading is involved. EAP provision varies between institutions and countries, but typically is likely to be either through in-session courses, or part of pre-university courses such as foundation/access programmes, or summer pre-session courses, usually provided by the university writing centre or (English) language centre. A cursory glance at many UK institutions' websites shows that there is a relationship between assessment levels for EAP courses and IELTS or other internationally recognized exams, which is not surprising as the entry requirements for academic study, and by implication the exit levels of many EAP (pre-session) courses for study are benchmarked to these exams. Turner (2011) summarises rather well academia's approach to English as "the relentlessly remedial representation of language issues in the institutional discourse of higher education" (p. 3) forefronting clearly how language related discourse uses deficit language (see Wang's article, this issue) in

relation to attainment of native speaker levels.

Academic writing is one of the main focuses of EAP courses, and it is in the teaching and delivery of academic writing programmes that arguably the greatest challenges can be found. Writing needs to be understood as the crucial process by which students make sense of not only what they have been 'receiving' through their studies but also how they can make it mean something for themselves. However, when student writing as such is discussed, it is usually in the context of a student 'problem', something that needs to be fixed by a study skills centre, with lecturers viewing their role as divorced from language and only focusing on academic content (Street, 1999). In an ELF academic environment, it is perhaps too easy to see student writing as being a technical and surface level skill, and problems with student writing as being purely linguistic in nature. Boughey (2000) sees the change (in student writing) needed as being at the affective level, though acknowledges that this may be difficult to achieve as it requires the student to be comfortable in the academic discourse they are studying in. For a student to be comfortable they need to feel that they are accepted (in the discourse), which is unlikely to happen unless the student is shown or understands the values and rules in that field or genre. As Boughey (2000) highlights, the irony is that those best placed to provide enlightenment are often those who see student writing as problematical.

Subject teaching and knowledge must be embedded with writing about knowledge so that students can see how their own opinions form within their subject area. Lea and Street (1998, 1999) argue that EAP and academic writing be seen from one of three conceptual models, a 'study skills model' an 'academic socialisation model' and an 'academic literacies model'. The first assumes student writing as a technical/cognitive skill. It focuses very much on the surface level, making the assumption that students can transfer skills learnt between courses or subjects, without problem. The second approach sees student writing as a transparent medium of representation. It assumes 'one' university culture and that students acquire how to talk and write in a subject area, and that once learnt they have no problem in reproducing these skills. The third (academic literacies) model sees literacies as social practice, and subsumes aspects of the

other two models (Turner, 2012). It aims to facilitate reflexivity/language awareness and provides an alternative which considers the process of writing at the level of epistemology (or knowledge), social/disciplinary practices and discourses (Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2007). The institution is seen as a site of discourse and power (Street, 2007) and students need a range of linguistic skills that may change with each different situation they encounter (in the place of learning). They also need to be comfortable with the "social meanings and identities that each situation provokes" (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159), which may challenge students' own concepts of what academic writing means. Indeed one rationale for student writing related issues may be a mismatch between the expectations of academic (and by definition EAP) staff and what students think academic writing is (Lea, 2004; Lea & Street, 1998).

Implications for EAP in an ELF Environment

As highlighted in the preceding paragraph, an academic literacies model goes beyond EAP, subsuming elements of it and therefore providing a framework within which one can "embed a focus on the myriad processes and practices associated with reading and writing" (Turner, 2012, p. 18) within Higher Education. An academic literacies approach to writing at university can enhance an ELF academic learning environment. As is the case with any learning environment, each student has in common the need to learn the academic literacies within their individual institutional and discipline settings regardless of linguistic background. Students can usually master the process of writing, but they can struggle with the interplay between the process and subject knowledge. By changing the focus of writing away from the traditional 'technical skills' approach, an alternative embedded approach is therefore provided which means that it is possible to see how teaching academic knowledge and teaching writing integrates student writing within the course structure itself. Literacy is therefore seen as social practice, rather than just working at the textual level. This is a move away from the traditional study skills model of student writing, with its focus on surface skills such as spelling, punctuation and grammar and a feeling of going back to basics,

and where the students can feel that they are in remedial or deficit classes.

By taking an academic literacies approach to EAP support the student becomes empowered, as language distinction is refocused to disciplinary related discourse, with each student being able to draw on their own resources and beginning from the same initial position. With such a learning model, that empowers all students to develop their writing, there is a change in the role of the tutor or educator. Academic teaching staff need to re-evaluate their own role in the student learning process, as well as the role of the language professional, so that writing becomes an integral part of class time, making students comfortable in the discourses of the specific disciplines. The language professional also needs to look at the changing role, with a movement towards providing more support with (and within) the main student classes.

As Seidlhofer (2004) alludes, the conceptualization of ELF as a legitimate form of English, which is not tied to its native speakers and ideas of deficit if native speaker norms are not attained, empowers its users. An adoption of an academic literacies approach to student EAP learning only adds to that empowerment and offers new and exciting directions for teaching and research within ELF environments.

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Doing it for Themselves: The Impact of Learners in Organised Groups

By Terry Greatrex

Introduction

The study of language teaching and learning focuses on the behaviour and gains of individual learners. Recent work in applying Socio-Cultural Theory (Langolf & Beckett, 2009), Dynamic Systems Theory (Larsen-Freeman, 1997) and others, which integrate the context in which language learning occurs, still place the individual learner at the centre of the learning process. It is suggested in this paper that a deeper understanding of how groups of learners behave may also be helpful, not only to the learners themselves, but to their teachers and administrators. As a case study, a university student group activity is examined and it is proposed that an extension of the concept of autonomy from the individual to the group may be useful in understanding how to respond to the efforts of language learners in some situations.

The context and the activity

The University of Nottingham in Ningbo, China (UNNC), has taught a number of degree courses to a largely Chinese student body since 2006. The students at UNNC, as do students in domestic Chinese universities, take an active

part in clubs and societies over a range of interests including sport and performance, study, volunteering and self-help. In 2008, a student group (SG), one of whose purposes was to help new students adjust to life at UNNC, approached the Self Access Centre (SAC) to see if there was a way that the group could work with the SAC. They had identified a need among Year 1 students for help with spoken English and were investigating how this need could be addressed.

After a series of meetings between the SG and the SAC, it was decided to form a number of discussion groups comprising six Year 1 students, each led by a senior student. The groups would come together at the start of a semester and meet once a week throughout. The SG would recruit the senior students (called Mentors) and the Year 1 students (Members), and the SAC would find Tutors to provide training and support for the Mentors, each Tutor being responsible for 4 Mentors. The administrative tasks – promotion, room booking, attendance, liaison with the university – were divided between the SG and the SAC. The initial structure of the project, called Passport to Autonomy in Collaboration with Tutors (PACT), is presented in Figure 1.

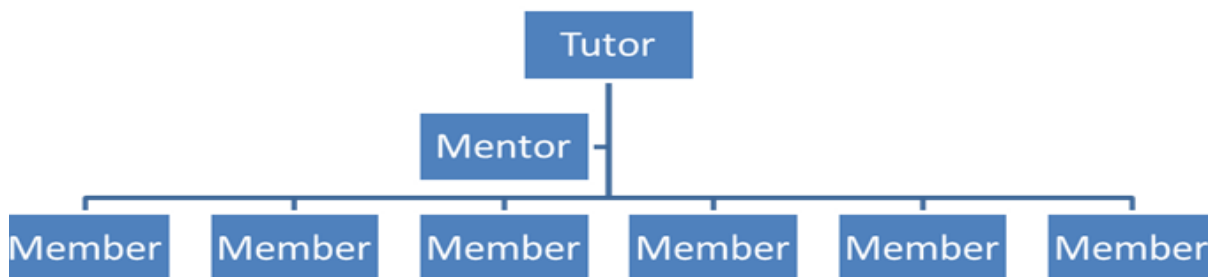


Figure 1: The Initial Structure of PACT

In the first year, PACT involved five Tutors, 20 Mentors, and 120 Year 1 Members. The activity proved to be popular with both Year 1 and senior students and by 2012, numbers had grown to 24 Mentors and 144 Members with a new level of six Senior Mentors to take over some of the training and administrative tasks of the Tutors. In Semester 1, 2012, 89 students applied for the 24 Mentor positions and 342 students applied for the 144 Member positions.

Initial reflections

As PACT developed and the groups and sub-groups involved addressed and solved various logistical, training and other issues, it was not clear how best to view it. Which theoretical perspective on learning or human behaviour would best explain the impulses that initiated and grew the project? The author became the Lead Tutor in 2010 and was immediately impressed by the imagination and determination of participating students to make the activity succeed. There seemed to be something happening beyond the usual dynamics of an active Chinese university society. A number of theoretical frameworks were considered:

- “Learner involvement is fundamental to developing learner autonomy” (Little, 2007, p. 1). The students were heavily involved in the project and undertook much of the management of it themselves so it could be viewed in terms of individual learner autonomy.
- “Motivation may lead to autonomy or be a precondition for it” (Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002, p. 262). Why were the students so interested in helping themselves learn? Perhaps the concept of learner motivation was applicable.
- “Peer tutoring [is] training and resourcing successful, more experienced students to tutor novice students in a collaborative learning experience in which both parties richly benefit” (Beasley, 1997, p. 21). But it was not only a matter of students helping themselves learn; they were helping each other learn. Was it a student-initiated version of peer tutoring?
- “In order for SALL [Self-Access Language Learning] to be successful, teachers must

prepare their students to accept more responsibility for their learning than they may be accustomed to” (Gardner & Miller, 1999, p. 43). When the Student Group approached the SAC, they were looking for access to resources, human and material, to help them achieve the language goals they had already identified. So was it an example of Self Access Language Learning? “Each self-access center should know its users, their culture and educational background, and allow this knowledge to influence the design of facilities and services” (Jones, 1995, p. 233). Then again, this was China and a particular campus with a particular history and particular students. Whether viewed as an instance of Holliday’s (1999) small culture or of larger national culture, was the activity largely an expression of culture?

- “Some generic skills and abilities (notably communication skills, problem solving, analysis and teamwork skills) lend themselves to development at university” (Crebert, Bates, Bell, Patrick, & Cragolini, 2004, p. 161). Or was it, more pragmatically but not more simply, an effort by students to increase their employability?

It did not seem that any of these approaches fully captured the collective, collaborative aspect of the activity where groups and sub-groups of students developed a system to achieve an agreed language learning goal for some of them. Certainly, there were benefits for every student involved; gains in spoken English fluency for Members, experience in managing and leading discussion groups for Mentors, experience in administering a campus wide project for those in the Student Group. The two distinguishing features of the activity, however, appeared to be that this was a language learning activity managed to a significant degree by a student group, albeit involving some teachers, and that it had continued to grow and evolve over a number of semesters. PACT now appeared to be a largely independent and self-regulating, or autonomous, entity.

Learner group autonomy

The idea of individual learner autonomy is an established concept in the research into and teaching of English as an additional language (Benson & Reinders, 2011; Benson, 2007). Benson (2001, p. 105) concluded, after reviewing the current research, that “the assumption ... that autonomy is beneficial to learning does ... appear to be supported by convincing arguments”. If autonomy can be characterized as the capacity to take control of one’s own learning (Benson, 2001), then perhaps a *group* of learners can also be autonomous. Could a group with learning as its primary purpose be considered in terms of learner autonomy? Little (2009, p. 223), referring to the research, summarized various characteristics or criteria of language learner autonomy, stating that in formal educational contexts, autonomous language learners

- are able to take charge of their own learning;
- develop a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action;
- can manage the affective dimension of their learning experience to their motivational advantage;
- become more autonomous in language learning in proportion as they become more autonomous in language use, and vice versa.

If these are the criteria of autonomous individual learners, can they also be applied then, in formal educational contexts, to *groups* of language learners? And if so, are these criteria met by PACT?

It should be remembered that the object of study here is the group, not the individuals that compose the group. We are looking at collective characteristics in the anthropomorphic way we use the terms ‘a learning organization’ or ‘organizational memory’. Just as there may be individuals in a learning organisation who do not themselves learn, there may be individuals in an autonomous group of learners who are not themselves autonomous learners. We are looking at the learning gains of the group represented by changes in whole group behaviour towards a group goal.

Applying the criteria

The four criteria identified by Little (2009) above were applied in retrospect to PACT to test whether the activity could be seen as an instance of learner group autonomy.

- Was PACT able to take charge of its own learning? Learning for PACT would be the growing ability to self-regulate and re-structure in order to better achieve its goals and to present itself as a persistent entity to other groups such as the SAC and the university as a whole. Once formed, PACT tested various discussion activities, retaining those that worked and discarding those that did not. At the end of each semester the group conducted surveys of Mentors and Members for feedback which they incorporated in planning for the following semester. PACT became a student body with a growing presence on campus and with which at least two university offices regularly corresponded. PACT appeared to have taken significant charge of its own learning.
- Did PACT develop a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action? This is perhaps less clear but supportable. When detached views were taken and decisions made they were often done so by individuals or committees acting as members of the Student Group or the SAC, particularly when involved in managing PACT functions such as Mentor and Member recruitment or corresponding with offices of the university. However, even in these capacities, the individuals acted nominally in their roles within PACT. They would have identified themselves as participants of PACT. Habits of critical reflection and independent action were also observed that became part of group culture over time.
- Could PACT manage the affective dimension of its learning experience to its motivational advantage? PACT Mentors were supported by a team of Tutors who held several training meetings each

semester and were available at any time. Mentors themselves formed groups of four for mutual support and the sharing of ideas. After discussions with the university, official recognition of PACT activities was recorded on Mentor graduate transcripts as non-academic credit, which provided added motivation to succeed as a PACT Mentor.

- Did PACT become more autonomous in language learning in proportion as it became more autonomous in language use, and vice versa? This criterion refers to the mechanism of feedback and asks, more or less, if autonomy bred further autonomy. After being formed by the Student Group and the SAC, PACT became more autonomous in achieving its group goals. From being an activity run by the SG and the SAC, it evolved to become a group to which representatives of the SG and the SAC were assigned to take particular roles. An 'organizational memory' developed based on records of meetings and correspondence and on semester reviews. It was mentioned on the university website as a group which students can join. It became more autonomous over time and it would be reasonable to attribute part of this to the positive experience of previous autonomy.

Discussion

Although this application of the attributes of individual language learner autonomy to a group of language learners is not conclusive, there are indications that such a group can learn, and that it can do so with increasing autonomy to the benefit of its members. If this is so, there are implications for the teaching and management of groups of language learners in formal educational contexts.

PACT was a group situated in a university in China populated largely with Chinese students. There is evidence (Wang, 2009) that Chinese high school graduates do not enter university with as much experience of individual learner autonomy as Western students. This suggests that, while encouraging individual autonomy among Chinese university students, there is value in providing them also with opportunities to join more-or-less autonomous student groups

whose aims include individual learning. There may be a cultural dimension (Jones, 1995) to autonomy in which senior and junior Chinese students feel comfortable in a peer tutoring relationship within the structure of a student group. If so, teachers could offer training to students in how best to act as peer tutors. As mentioned above (Spratt et al., 2002), if motivation leads to or is a precondition for autonomy, teachers and institutions could consider how to provide further motivation to groups of learners to become more autonomous.

Conclusion

These are initial reflections on fostering the autonomy of groups of language learners but the underlying idea that is proposed here is that the constitution and behaviour of learners acting in groups is worthy of study. In considering PACT, only the language learning literature was canvassed. The behaviour of groups is of central interest in a number of other academic fields – organizational behaviour in business, for example, and, of course, in sociology and related disciplines. A greater theoretical focus within language learning on how groups of learners behave and influence individual gains may yield insights into how teachers and institutions can better relate to and support them as a potentially important element in individual student learning.

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EAP Students Should Focus on Discipline-Specific Writing Skills

By Percival Santos

Introduction

Undergraduate students majoring in a discipline pass through four phases in their development as writers: non-academic writing skills in the first phase, generalized academic writing in the second one, novice disciplinary writing in the third part, and finally expert insider writing occurs in the final phase. Foundation programs for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students traditionally teach generalized academic writing and these students will only start to learn discipline-specific writing once they enter their majors programs.

This paper will argue that novice disciplinary writing should be introduced in EAP foundation programs because it is important for students to write like disciplinary insiders by their senior year. They need to be able to write like expert insiders if they are to succeed in their major. For students to write expert insider prose they need to view disciplines as discourse communities. Academic publications are a product of a discourse community and literature reviews are an important element of that.

The paper is based on my experience teaching Academic Writing at an EAP Foundation Programme at the Dongbei University of Finance and Economics (DUFE) in Dalian, China. DUFE in partnership with the University of Surrey jointly offer an undergraduate degree in either Business or Tourism Management. These are popularly

known as the '2 + 2 Dual Degree Programme' following a British or Chinese track. In both tracks, students spend the first two years in an EAP Foundation Program. After leaving EAP they can take the British track whereby they transfer to Surrey University for their final two years. If they choose the Chinese track they stay in DUFE for the full duration of their undergraduate studies majoring in business or tourism in English. Students in both tracks will receive degrees from both institutions upon graduation.

This paper will focus on high-proficiency learners, those students who are at an acceptable, even high level of linguistic proficiency when they enter the EAP foundation program. Such students are believed to already possess good non-academic writing skills, and are thus able to acquire academic writing skills without too many difficulties. It will not address the issue of low-proficiency students who enter the EAP foundation program.

The Four Developmental Phases of Academic Writing

American university students go through four phases of writing. They enter university with non-academic writing skills in the first phase. They go on to the second one, which is generalized academic writing, when they take freshman composition courses. The third phase, novice

disciplinary writing, occurs when they start to take early courses in their major. And finally, they acquire expert insider writing skills as they take advanced courses in their senior year (Macdonald, 1994).

These four phases of writing skill development also apply to Chinese undergraduate students doing a foundation year EAP program with the intention of pursuing a degree in an English-speaking environment such as the Dual Degree currently jointly offered by DUFE and Surrey University. High-proficiency Chinese students at DUFE who already possess non-academic writing skills, the first phase, enter our two-year EAP foundation program with a view to acquiring generalized academic writing skills, corresponding to the second phase. The third phase, novice disciplinary writing, occurs when our students leave EAP to take early courses in their major either at DUFE or Surrey. Finally in phase four, they should acquire expert insider writing skills as they progress toward the senior year in their chosen discipline.

The existence of freshman composition courses for native speaker students rests on the assumption of a common core of academic lexis and discourse between generalized and disciplinary writing. Likewise, the assumption of “generic academic practices that can be applied anywhere on campus” sustains the English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) approach in many foundation programs (Hartigan, 2013, p. 27). But little of what native English-speaking students learn in first-year composition transfers directly into disciplinary courses (Macdonald, 1994). In the same manner, there is little empirical evidence that much of the generalized academic writing skills students learn in foundation EAP programs are directly transferable to their post-EAP coursework. Although some generic skills like skimming, scanning, paraphrasing etc. are shared by all disciplines (Jordan, 1997), students can learn these generic skills at the same time as they start learning novice disciplinary writing skills. In addition, there is no need for EAP students to master a “common core” of General English before they learn discipline specific English as it is already a part of specific Academic English (Hartigan, 2013, p.27).

Hyland (2002) proposes teaching discipline-specific EAP early on. According to Hartigan (2013):

More specificity in subject vocabulary earlier in a foundation program will aid lexical development, save time by being more efficient, and allow for more recycling of subject-specific vocabulary and more retention of that knowledge. Using subject-specific genre for writing opportunities will also increase student motivation, as students will be able to see the usefulness of their work. Students also will have more opportunities to practice writing (and reading) in genres specific to their discipline. Finally, more specificity might be a way to balance mixed ability classes so that higher-level students do not lose interest, while lower-level students are supported (p. 30).

Following this line of reasoning, I will argue that the second phase, generalized academic writing, should be considerably reduced or even eliminated altogether. I propose that we introduce novice disciplinary writing, or stage three, in the freshman year. I am well aware that this proposal has its share of critics, who believe that all students must have a solid grounding in ‘the basics’ before embarking on discipline specific skills. However, this gradual approach from General to Specific English is “not supported by current research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). SLA research indicates that students acquire language features, including lexis, as needed, rather than in the order instructors teach them” (Hartigan, 2013, p. 26).

Insider Prose

When both native speakers and EAP students enter their chosen majors at stage three, they essentially start over as writers, producing novice approximations of disciplinary discourse. This is because they have not yet learned how the new discipline poses questions, analyses evidence, applies theories, or produces arguments in conversation with other scholars. It is important for students to reach stage four by their senior year. To be able to write like an insider means they can write like historians, chemists, psychologists, etc. They need to be able to write like expert insiders if they are to succeed in their major.

Expert insider prose requires six different

kinds of knowledge or skill sets (see Figure 1). Four of these are practiced in first-year writing courses, specifically, writing process knowledge, entry-level information literacy, some rhetorical knowledge, and some introductory knowledge about different genres. The other two, which are discourse community and subject matter knowledge, tend to be taught when students take content courses in a discipline.

I propose that students start learning about the discourse community knowledge of at least one or more disciplines during the foundation program. That is, they first start their novice apprenticeship learning about discourse community knowledge while in EAP. This would mean that students learn five out of six kinds of

knowledge or skill sets needed to write expert insider prose during the foundation year. They can later learn subject matter knowledge, the sixth and last skill set, when they specialize in their chosen disciplines.

Discourse Communities

A particular discipline should be understood as a discourse community. It often has a different view of knowledge, a different research practice, and a different way of seeing the world. The term community does not necessarily mean that all members of these intellectual and discourse groups agree on everything. Nor does it mean



Figure 1: Six Skill Sets of Insider Prose (Beaufort, 2007)

that they have to be geographically close to one another to form such a community. For Barton (1994):

A discourse community is a group of people who have texts and practices in common, whether it is a group of academics, or the readers of teenage magazines. In fact, discourse community can refer to the people the text is aimed at; it can be the people who read a text; or it can refer to the people who participate in a set of discourse practices both by reading and writing (p. 57).

Belonging to a discipline implies learning to use language in disciplinarily approved ways and

becoming a member of a discourse community. Being a member of a discipline means knowing how to pose questions, analyse evidence, apply theories, and produce arguments in conversation with other members.

For the sake of simplicity and pedagogical expediency, I will gloss over some of the complexities of the concept of the discourse community. I shall present a simplified version of it with the purpose of facilitating student understanding and eventual development of disciplinary writing skills.

Disciplines can be one of two general types; those that are in broad agreement on many basic issues in their field, and those that are not. The first kind of discipline shares a surprising

uniformity of views. There are no major controversies regarding the nature of study, the questions they ask or problems they pose, and the data and analytical tools they use.

EAP students should acquire disciplinary writing skills during the foundation program because the third phase, novice approximations of disciplinary discourse, is when they start to think of disciplines as discourse communities. These students should be encouraged to view themselves as members, or at least future members, of a particular discipline and its discourse community as early as the foundation year. According to Hyland (2006), learning a discipline implies:

learning to use language in disciplinarily approved ways. It involves learning a specialized discourse for reading and writing for presenting orally, for reasoning and problem solving, and for carrying out practical research activities (p. 38).

Literature Reviews

When academics write, they join a conversation. To show they understand this they refer to what others have already written about their subject. By referring to what others have said about a topic, writers accomplish two things: they show that they are addressing an issue that matters, and they establish that there is more to be said about it. It is with this goal of treating students as future apprentices of a discipline in mind whereby I will describe the literature review's place in academic writing. The literature review is arguably the purest expression of a discourse/disciplinary community. To be members of a discipline, in particular to be consumers and producers of knowledge of a discipline, students must be able to comprehend its fundamental role and function.

I shall now describe three basic kinds of literature review. The first two, Gap in Knowledge and State of the Art, are examples of literature reviews in disciplines that share a broad consensus on theoretical, epistemological, and methodological issues. The third one, aptly named Establishing a Controversy, pertains to those that have less consensus on major issues (Bean, 2011, p. 243).

Gap in Knowledge

This kind of literature review is common in the physical sciences and in some social sciences. It shows what is known and not known about an empirical problem and aims to fill the gap through new research (Bean, 2011, p. 244). It has four parts:

1) Orientation or introduction

Issue x has been a prominent subject of much research.

Issue x has attracted a lot of attention in the field of y.

2) Previous studies

Author A was concerned with topic y.

Several authors (D, E, F) addressed problem y.

Authors A and B examined problem z.

Author A studied issue y with a view to accomplishing z.

Work by author A researched topic y.

3) Establishing a gap

Nevertheless, aspect x still needs to be addressed.

However, question x remains unanswered.

However, a solution to the issue of x still has not been found.

4) Gap to be filled

This paper will propose a solution to issue x.

This essay will address problem x by doing y.

State of the Art

This kind of literature review often appears in professional disciplines where "experts apply their knowledge and skills to clients' problems". The writer's goal is to present the "state of the art" view of experts on an issue or question and then to come up with a new solution to it (Bean, 2011, p. 244). It has three parts:

1) Orientation or introduction

Issue x has been a prominent subject of much research.

Issue x has attracted a lot of attention in the field of y.

2) Present the 'state of the art'

Research in the area of x has followed several avenues.

Early work by Authors A, B and C was concerned with y.

Authors D and E compared x and y.

Additional work by Author F deals with z.

Several researchers addressed the problem x.

Authors G, H and I studied various aspects of this subject. Author G has demonstrated that X. Y was developed by Author H. The general results are similar to those reported by Author I.

3) Present a solution

In this paper, we present an analytical framework for x.

In this paper, we propose a new solution for x.

Establishing a Controversy

This kind of literature review is common in the humanities. The writer typically summarizes scholarly works that take competing points of view on a problem or controversy and then stakes out a claim that either supports one side but adds something new, or reframes the debate (Bean, 2011, p. 243). It has the following parts (a combination of either 1 and 2, or 1 and 3):

1) Establish a controversy

The literature on issue x falls broadly into two camps/sides. Camp A states that...camp B asserts that...

There is a difference in opinion regarding issue x. Author A believes..... Author B asserts that...

2) Reframe the debate

Issue x has been overlooked in this debate.

The literature has not sufficiently addressed the importance of issue x.

3) Support one side

It is my belief that author A's opinion regarding issue x is more valid/convincing/persuasive/etc.

Incorporating Literature Reviews in EAP

There are many ways to incorporate the teaching of literature reviews in a foundation program. One possible way would apply to those foundation programs where most students will

eventually major in one single field such as business studies, science and engineering, medicine, etc. It would have the following stages:

- introduce the idea of a disciplinary or discourse community
- identify the kind of discourse community a discipline in question belongs to
- describe the function and structure of the relevant literature review
- read a literature review and identify the previous studies, areas of agreement and disagreement, solution, etc.
- write a literature review

Foundation programs in a multi-faculty institution that function more like feeder courses for a diverse range of majors and specializations may use a slightly different way:

- introduce the idea of a disciplinary or discourse community
- identify the kind of discourse community a discipline in question belongs to
- describe the function and structure of the relevant literature review
- read a literature review and identify the previous studies, areas of agreement and disagreement, solution, etc.
- write a literature review on a topic within a discipline

Conclusion

This paper has described the four phases of development that Chinese undergraduates go through as they pursue a degree taught in English. It has argued for the teaching of novice disciplinary writing skills in EAP because students need to be able to write like expert insiders if they are to succeed in their major. Undergraduates are already a part of a discipline's discourse community because they are expected to read texts written by experts in that discipline. Knowing how to read and write literature reviews like a disciplinary insider will further consolidate their status as members of their discourse communities.

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Why Do Chinese Students Often Deliver Speeches Perceived as Unoriginal at English Competitions? Interviews with Judges from English Speaking Nations and Possible Explanations

By Matthew Farabaugh

Introduction

This article explores cultural factors which might cause Chinese students in an English speech competition to deliver speeches considered unoriginal by judges from English speaking nations (ESNs). Interviews with some of the judges of last year's China Daily 21st Century-Lenovo Cup (the Cup) revealed that students as a whole recited speeches with very similar subject matter, a small number of personal experiences and a small, poorly chosen set of references. Hall's (1976) cultural factors and primary research from various fields are used to explain these outcomes.

Background

The Cup is an annual English competition in China wherein students deliver speeches. According to Qian Wang of China Daily, in Suzhou in 2013, in Jiangsu Province alone, the Cup drew over 10,000 contestants and across China several other major cities participated (personal communication, April 21, 2014). Although Chinese students up to age 21

competed, only students in junior high school (12-15 years old) are considered in this study, since each judge assessed this age range. The four judges interviewed were all English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers in Suzhou from ESNs and their time teaching in China ranged from one year to eight, with a combined total of over 20 years' ESL experience in China. Any university ESL instructor was eligible to judge. All contestants were assessed by a team of two ESN judges and one Chinese judge, and each team judged about 200 students. Contestants recited a speech of about two minutes on the topic of "growing pains." This idiom roughly means "emotional difficulties that occur during adolescence" (The Free Dictionary, 2014). Finally, composite scores were derived from three categories of performance: Speech Content, Language Quality and Delivery (see Table 1).

The scoring guidelines in Table 1 were to be considered holistically. A score out of 40, 40 and 20 was given for each category and judges were trained to score by reading the "Handbook for the Panel of Judges" (China Daily, 2013).

Table 1: Breakdown of the Composite Score

Speech Content (40%)	Language Quality (40%)	Delivery (20%)
persuasiveness	pronunciation	manner
organization	articulation	poise
statement of purpose	stress	eye contact
logical coherence	intonation	facial expression
relevance	fluency	gestures
scope	speech flow	
appropriate use of humour	pause	
appropriate use of examples	clarity	
focus	pitch	

Literature Review and Definitions

Edward Hall's Cultural Factors

Hall (1976) distinguished a spectrum of communication styles. Those with high context dependence (HCC) are more listener-centred,

where communications use fewer words and rely on shared experience, history, and familiar metaphors. Those with low context dependence (LCC) are more speaker centred and do not hinge on vast shared experience. Figure 1 indicates China is highly context dependent, whereas North American and most northern European countries are far less

<- Low Context Communication (LCC) Examples		High context Communication (HCC) Examples ->	
Germany	United States	Saudi Arabia	Japan
Switzerland	Canada	Kuwait	China
Denmark	Australia	Mexico	South Korea
Sweden	United Kingdom	Nigeria	Vietnam

Figure 1: Countries Arranged by Context Dependence (Countries further down a given column are more dependent on context).

Hall (1976) also discovered that context dependence correlates with several cultural factors, as shown in Table 2. Further evidence suggests that all ESNs are roughly the same in terms of context dependence, as are East Asian nations (Schwartz, 2004).

Important dichotomies for the purposes of this paper are conformity/difference, tradition/change, hierarchy/equality, elder/youth and covert/overt communication. Hall (1976) argues

that a high-context culture like China is necessarily conformist, since its language requires a great deal of shared experience to be comprehended fully. This is explained by Kim (2005) who traces the urge for conformity back to Confucius. For Hall (1976), particular traditions are an outcome of conformity, as are how strongly they influence the culture in the country of origin. A strong hierarchy is therefore deemed necessary since it maintains

Table 2: Cultural Differences between East Asian and English Speaking Nations

East Asia High Context	English Speaking Nations Low Context
Conformity encouraged	Difference encouraged
Tradition oriented	Change oriented
Inclined to accept hierarchy/status/rank	Inclined towards equality
Covert/spiral/indirect/implicit communication	Overt/plain/direct/explicit communication
Non-verbal signals highly meaningful	Non-verbal signals have limited meaning
Elder focused	Youth focused
Inheritance/family	Self-help
Cooperative	Competitive
Formality	Informality
Constrain disagreement	Express disagreement
Distinction between in-groups and out-groups	Flexibility between in-groups and out-groups

tradition, the upper echelons being occupied by older people, i.e. they have been involved with those traditions longest and therefore understand them best.

Chinese Communication Style

The style of communication in a high context culture is relatively covert, or indirect. Hall (1976) argued that this follows from high context dependence: a single word or phrase may activate a constellation of other ideas. The language as a system need not be as linear as those in lower context cultures. One rhetorical style in Chinese discourse is *Qi-Cheng-Zhuan-He*, which roughly means Introduction-Interpretation-Alternative Interpretation-Conclusion (Tang, 2000, cited in Yang & Yang, 2010). This rhetorical style often omits a specific problem, as opposed to the rhetorical style typical in ESNs (Yang & Yang, 2010). This aligns with the information in Table 2 in so far as disagreements are constrained, since if there is no specific problem noted (only interpretations of a situation), then there is no direct conflict. Hall (1976) also argued that a high context culture omits evidence from

discussions, since the evidence may be redundant: The manner in which a person is traditionally meant to think about a situation is enough – all the speaker or writer needs to do is ‘remind’ a listener or reader of that way of thinking rather than provide a new, empirically supported or deductively sound argument. The suppression of empirical evidence or specific information can be seen even in young Chinese children, as per research by Han, Leichtman and Wang (1998, cited in Wang, 2011). They compared the frequency of personal opinions, preferences and direct sensory data in Chinese and American children under the age of four and found that Chinese children demonstrated significantly less of each.

Originality

For this paper, the definition of "originality" is "freshness or novelty, as of an idea, method, or performance" (The Free Dictionary, 2014). A concept central to originality is difference. Differences in subject matter are a legitimate way for a student to distinguish him or herself from competitors in a speech competition. Differences can come from variety in personal

experiences and second-hand knowledge or from a creative take on the prompt, as well as other ways not covered here.

Methods

Interviews

All interviews were face-to-face or by Skype. The format was semi-structured, with some questions asked in every interview and others

improvised in order to explore answers. Questions pertained mostly to student performance: what impressed them most, and what was underwhelming. Interviews lasted 21 to 52 minutes, averaging 38. The judges were encouraged to speak freely on whatever subject was at hand. Topics such as clothing choices, the timing of the event and favourite students were discussed alongside originality. Table 3 contains the questions which elicited discussions of originality:

Table 3: Interview Questions Related to Originality

After listening to hundreds of speeches, what cultural differences struck you?
What sort of content impressed you most?
Could a student score well with you even if their grammar and pronunciation were flawed?
How did originality affect your scoring?

Results and Analysis

Of all the themes in the interviews, judges were unanimously unhappy with the originality of contestants. Differences in subject matter between speeches were very rare. Most speeches could be classified as students bemoaning their homework and loss of free time, or shirking their homework, being made to feel guilty by their parents and teachers and then applying themselves more diligently. Students resorted to clichés ("no pain, no gain") or pop culture references frequently. References

to the TV series "Growing Pains," which aired from 1985 to 1992 (IMDb, n.d.), struck the judges more as lazy than illustrative, since they thought it unlikely contestants had any first-hand experience of the show. One sardonic judge described the experience as "a mind numbing blur." After hearing "no pain, no gain" enough times, he began keeping a tally which reached over 40 during a single day of judging, and every other interviewee emphasized the "endless repetition" of clichés. Table 4 displays general and particular criticisms judges made about originality.

Table 4: Shared Criticisms of ESN Judges Related to Originality

General Criticisms Related to Originality	Particular Details
Repetition of subject matter	Most contestants complained about school
Lack of particular, personalized details	Personal opinions and sensory descriptions were absent or poorly developed
References were poorly chosen	Clichés and obscure pop culture references

Discussion

This section attempts to explain Table 4 by arguing that cultural factors militate against Chinese students achieving originality. Hall's (1976) work and a range of primary research

offer support.

Table 2 indicates that Chinese culture encourages conformity and maintaining tradition. If a culture encourages conformity, then the parents in that culture enforce and encourage conformity for their children,

especially when the children are young and still financially dependent upon them. It follows that conformist parents will not insert their children in situations that fall outside the lines of tradition, nor encourage them to break tradition. Thus, the variety of first-hand experiences such children as a group would possess might be narrower than those in a less traditional culture. As one example, adolescents from ESNs often seek out part-time work and thus gain experience about the world not available at home or school, but this is rarely the case for Chinese adolescents (People's Daily Online, 2008). Their lives have been described as "three-pointed:" home-school-home (Kristofk, 2011, cited in Kirkpatrick and Zang, 2011). This helps explain why the subject of the speeches delivered by junior high students at the Cup was nearly always the same, as per Table 4. In fact, even if a student did have an unusual collection of first-hand experiences relative to traditional Chinese culture, they might be discouraged from sharing them in any setting, including a speech, especially if they were not told it would be well-received by an ESN judge. In this regard, judges also complained that personal opinions and sensory descriptions were rare, as might be expected following research by Han, Leichtman and Wang (1998, cited in Wang, 2011). Given that no two people sense the world in exactly the same way, this is a subset of subject matter which could have provided difference.

As per subject matter itself, Table 4 indicates that nearly every speech was about struggling with school. Table 2 shows that China focuses on elders and is inclined to accept hierarchy. It follows that children would tend to obey their parents to a larger extent in such a culture than in a less context-dependent one. Indeed, Nickerson and Kritsonis (2006) demonstrated how, at the behest of their parents, Chinese students spent much more time on their studies than other ethnic groups. It is therefore no surprise that competitors on the whole fixated on their education at the exclusion of other facets of life.

Second-hand knowledge gleaned from books, television, conversation and other means was another potential source of difference. As per Table 4, students resorted to clichés and proverbs very often in their speeches, which may be explained again by the emphasis on conformity and tradition in Chinese culture as per Table 2. It stands to reason that such a

culture would reinforce its conformity through institutions such as public education. Indeed, Chinese education emphasizes rote memorization over critical analysis and does not typically afford students choices in the courses they take or the materials they study (Pierik, 2003; Liu & Littlewood, 1997, cited in Zhenhui, 2001). In junior high school then, Chinese students might be unlikely to possess the skill necessary to recognize poignant secondary sources and apply them to their own autobiographical speeches.

The last source of difference which could have furnished originality in the subject matter was creativity. Creative interpretations of the prompt might have involved enlarging or shrinking its scope, e.g. the growth of the nation, or perhaps the growth of just their attitudes toward a concept or idea; they might have involved combining their personal growth with that of their parents, who were also aging alongside them; they might have reversed their growing pains, imagining their future if their attitudes became less mature with time. Students might have given elaborate metaphors for growth, such as a geyser building pressure and erupting. The possibilities were endless, but the reality was rather one-dimensional from the judges' perspectives in Table 4.

Table 2 shows that conformity characterizes Chinese culture. If breaking from a pattern is creativity (de Bono, 1990) then conformity is necessary, though not sufficient, for a creative act (Harman & Bohemia, 2007). Rather, creativity is a conscious choice that people make in response to situations, which is influenced by culture: research shows that conformist cultures like China fare less well than less conformist cultures in measures of creativity (Niu and Sternberg, 2001; Hu, Lin & Shen, 2003, cited in Qian, 2007; Goncalo & Staw, 2006; Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011). A conformist culture would perhaps produce students unlikely to make a creative effort if not prompted to do so, thus explaining Table 4.

Alternatively, it might be argued that diverging rhetorical styles caused Chinese contestants' speeches to be seen as unoriginal. There are significant differences between argument structure in China and in ESNs. The vagueness of Chinese rhetoric, with its lack of evidence, might lead to a lack of personal detail in an autobiographical speech. Perhaps if a single Chinese student using the *Qi-Cheng-*

Zhuang-He style were transplanted into an ESN speech competition, the student would gain in originality in contrast with her competitors. However, had all the students in the Cup met the criteria under Speech Content in Table 1, thus adopting a style native to ESNs, but were all very similar in subject matter, they would still be seen as unoriginal. Since context plays a large part in the perception of originality, rhetorical style *per se* cannot guarantee it.

Lastly, all judges admitted that when a student was original by not engendering all the complaints in Table 4, they scored very well, but that when students were unoriginal, it would detract from their scores substantially, even in other subsections.

Conclusions, Limitations, and Directions for Future Research

Without recourse to a wide variety of first-hand experience and second-hand knowledge, nor a proclivity for creativity, competitors at the Cup had little at their disposal to lend them originality. Since each ESN judge assessed about 200 students, it seems reasonable to conclude that a lack of originality might have been a problem for the vast majority of all the Cup's competitors. However, recent research (Talhelm et al., 2014) has uncovered large-scale psychological differences between the Chinese living north and south of the Yangtze River, likely owing to cultural differences stemming from rice versus wheat cultivation. Since all the competitors judged in the present study were from Jiangsu, at best a tentative conclusion about the originality of south Chinese competitors can be drawn. Future studies might compare outcomes of originality across this variable.

Equally, it would also be difficult to generalize about the ESN judges, since only four were interviewed. Moreover, differences in context dependence exist within ESNs, as seen in Figure 1. It could be the case that if all the ESN judges for the Cup were British, for example, the competitors would have garnered a more favourable opinion. It should be noted that the most tolerant judge in this study in terms of how negatively a lack of originality impacted his perception of students, was in fact from Northern Ireland whereas the rest were from ESNs outside the UK. Future research might seek out the impact of the country of origin of the ESN judge on the perception of originality in

Chinese speeches, as well as the factors affecting the perception of originality in general. While the judges were not the focus of this study, it might be noted that according to the official rules of the Cup, speech content was to be scored in terms of logical coherence, organization, persuasiveness and several other criteria, *without* mention of originality. The rules were clearly printed for judges to see, yet originality heavily influenced their scoring, and without Chinese contestants being prompted to be original, most of them failed to meet this expectation. Ironically, the Cup exposed cultural differences by failing to make them explicit. Future research might investigate how explicitly discouraging ESN judges from considering originality or explicitly encouraging Chinese students to consider originality might influence judgment outcomes.

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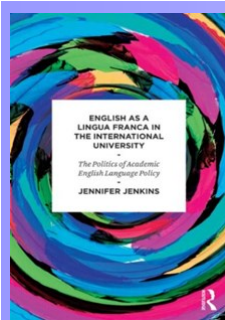


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Book Review: English as a Lingua Franca in the International University: The Politics of Academic English Language Policy

By Jonathan Culbert



Author: Jennifer Jenkins

Publisher: Routledge

Available: www.amazon.co.uk, £29.99

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Pages: 243

In her latest work on English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), Jennifer Jenkins examines its place in the international university. A discussion of ELF's relation to other approaches to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) precedes a report of her own empirical research into universities' language policies. Following Spolsky (2009), policy is largely understood not only as explicit language management, but also as the practices and underlying beliefs of those in authority. To examine these strands, Jenkins analysed universities' websites, conducted a written questionnaire among university faculty, and held interviews with students.

It may seem that the title of the book is to be taken as a rather dry piece of academic irony. For, as Jenkins demonstrates, at the level of policy there is barely any acknowledgement of ELF in international universities; ELF is nowhere to be seen.

And yet ELF is everywhere to be heard since it is the "sociolinguistic reality" (p. 2) of most students studying in English. For this reason, universities should renounce their adherence to native speaker norms and embrace, in everything from undergraduate entrance tests to PhD theses, the kind of English heard in student cafes.

Jenkins is pro-student, pro-majority. Far from detached irony, this book calls passionately for a democratic revolution in language policy as a response to "the exploitation ... of international students in many, if not all, Anglophone

institutions" (p. 80).

This central theme, between how the world is and how it should be, is played out in the macro-structure of the book. The opening three literature-based chapters advance Jenkins' view of ELF's importance. The remaining four chapters, which comprise noticeably more than half the book, report her empirical research into universities' language policies, emphatically showing that few within academia share her view. The force of this juxtaposition, however, is undermined by the predictable nature of the findings.

To a large extent, these are foreshadowed in the opening chapters, which attribute only a marginal role to ELF even within an EAP context. Furthermore, towards the end of the book Jenkins writes that she "already knew the answer" (p. 206) to her initial research question before she started.

In this light it is especially difficult to accept the suggestion of exploitation mentioned earlier. The "sociolinguistic reality" Jenkins identifies is a relatively new one facing universities while the faculty who answered her questionnaire, which asked about their and their institution's linguistic expectations of students, were mostly from non-linguistic disciplines. Interestingly, of the international students she interviewed "all 34 participants subscribed at least to some extent to the 'native English is best' ideology" (p. 201).

However, Jenkins' concept of exploitation is

closely tied to accusations of hypocrisy and greed. Universities claim to be international, but do little more than bank the considerable tuition fees of international students. With respect to this notion of commodification, it seems that Jenkins misses the point slightly. If, on the one hand, higher education is a commodity, on the other, students are agents, free to make choices in a market-based system. This scenario is actually alluded to, but only to the extent that it would benefit ELF-orientated universities. There seems to be little realisation that international students may wish to study at institutions where there is an emphasis on native speaker norms. For example, in the discussion of off-shore campuses, it is noted that the aim of some universities may simply be to replicate abroad what is on offer in the home (Anglophone) country and that these universities “may present a worst case scenario in terms of promoting Anglophone (academic) culture” (p.7). It is not acknowledged that there may, in fact, be a demand for this.

This one-sided view of commodification is premised on Jenkins’ views of communication. For students, “English is simply a tool for communication to enable them to study something else: a means to an end” (p. 202). As a result, “the only criterion should be mutual intelligibility” between speakers (p. 202). It would be inaccurate to say that Jenkins is not aware of how language is much more than communicating content: in a brief discussion of Business ELF she acknowledges that, especially in written communication, native speaker norms are often adhered to because of the prestige they confer. The point Jenkins is making is that the world should not be this way; adherence to native speaker norms should not confer prestige. In fact, the claim is even stronger; for the problem is not native speaker norms in particular, but the whole notion of norms and of certain varieties of English being more prestigious than others. Here the true extent of the proposed linguistic revolution becomes clear; while it may be possible that in the future so called native speakers are not seen as speaking the most prestigious variety of English, it is unlikely that speakers of English will not attach greater prestige to some varieties more than to others. Jenkins is, therefore, effectively calling for a change in human nature.

If there is to be a linguistic revolution in higher education, it is a revolution with little idea of what to do once the status quo has been

overturned. For although the answers to the research questions were already known, there is no pretense to know how ELF will, or should, be incorporated into international universities’ policies.

Even defining ELF is “problematic and controversial” (p. 24). Since it is not a variety of English per se, it seems virtually impossible to codify, with the attendant consequence that it would be equally difficult to identify an error. This, in turn, raises the question of how ELF would be taught.

In fact, throughout the book pedagogical concerns are not addressed, the implication being that universities accept the English already being used by students. This is supported by framing ELF within a ‘difference’ paradigm as opposed to a ‘deficit’ paradigm; that is, considering users of ELF as linguistically different from, rather than inferior to, native speakers. However, no allowance is made for students who may be deficient with respect to their academic discipline, in the sense that their language is neither precise nor nuanced enough to fully participate in it. This is especially important in writing, perhaps the more significant medium for academic communication, where there is a greater communicative burden on the author. Interestingly, Jenkins notes that the vast majority of research in ELF has focused on spoken language and that, regarding written ELF, there are “insufficient findings from which to draw any major conclusions about its nature” (p. 30).

The inconsistencies highlighted in this book between how students use English and how they are expected to use it may inform debate in the coming years. However, that ELF is widely used is not the only consideration for policy makers.

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Insites

By Glen Cotten, Tony Fogarty & Jackie Hemingway

This section highlights some useful learning and teaching websites that can help with planning, teaching and professional development. This time we look at critical thinking resources, and include a focus on critical literacy.

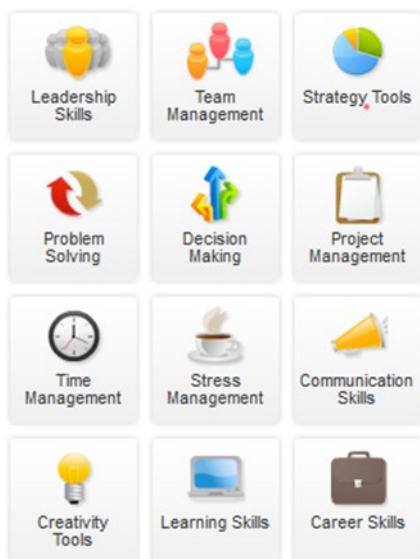
Mind Tools

<http://www.mindtools.com>



Explore the Toolkit

The full Mind Tools toolkit contains more than 900 management, career and thinking skills. Use the buttons below to start exploring them.

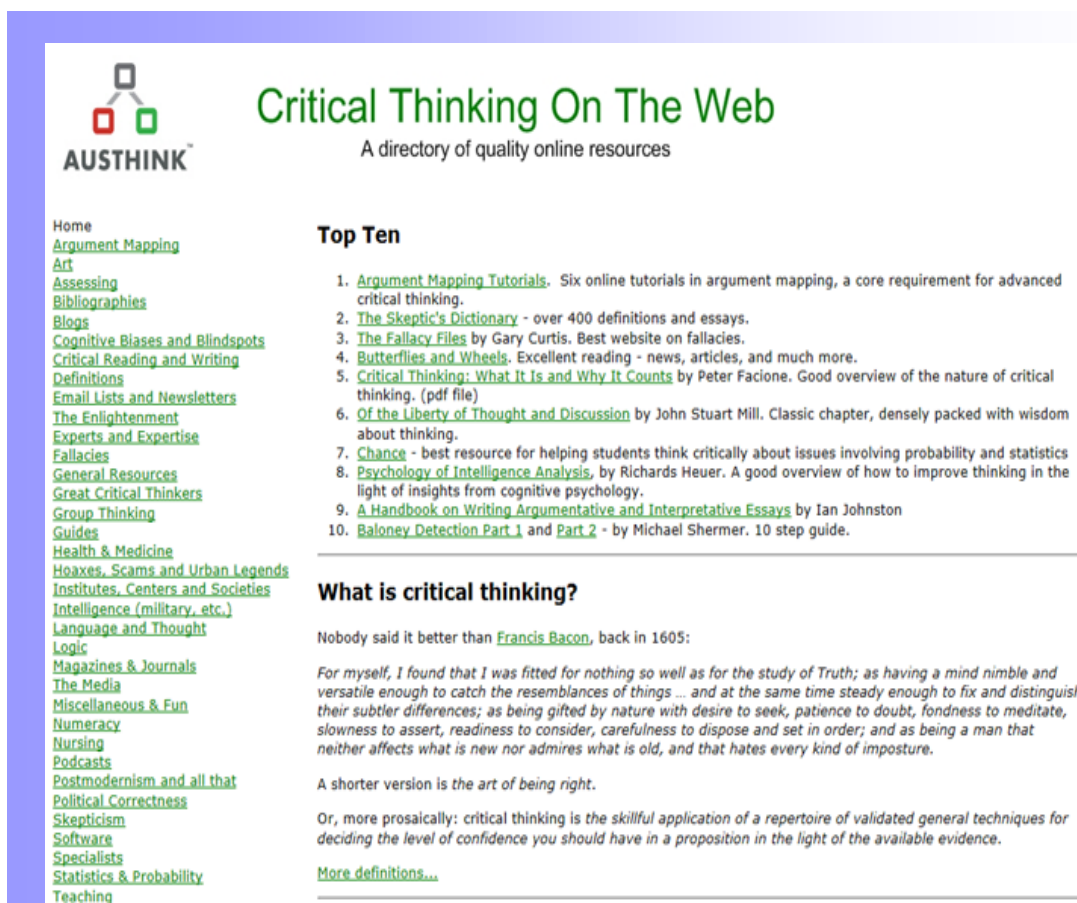


At first glance mindtools.com may appear to be suited only to those interested in leadership or career development. However, this site reportedly contains over 900 management, career

and thinking tools, many of which can be readily adapted for teaching and learning in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The sheer breadth of topics covered makes this site a useful starting point for teachers in search of ideas for the classroom, such as adding interest to small-group activities, developing student project team dynamics and encouraging student creativity, critical thinking or self-management.

A useful point of entry is the site's "Toolkit" menu which links to a vast array of articles organized around 12 skill areas including problem solving, decision making, communication and learning. Thankfully, the menus are clearly labelled and structured around sub-menus, making for efficient browsing. The articles cover some theory, but mainly focus on practical applications likely to be of most interest to educators. For example, the "General Problem-Solving Tools" sub-menu provides step-by-step descriptions of approaches for encouraging groups to argue for and against options, draw good conclusions and identify the steps for solving a problem (means-end analysis). Given the site's range of personal development topics, students could also benefit by directly accessing materials on relevant study skills such as time management, stress management, and learning and memory techniques. Mindtools.com is a membership site, but provides free subscription to a newsletter, and many of the tools and articles on the website can be accessed free of charge.

Austhink

<http://www.austhink.com>


The screenshot shows the Austhink website interface. At the top left is the Austhink logo, which consists of three colored squares (red, green, blue) arranged in a triangle, with the word "AUSTHINK" below it. To the right of the logo is the main heading "Critical Thinking On The Web" in a large green font, followed by the subtitle "A directory of quality online resources" in a smaller black font. Below the heading is a navigation menu on the left side with various categories like "Home", "Argument Mapping", "Art", "Assessing", "Bibliographies", "Blogs", "Cognitive Biases and Blindspots", "Critical Reading and Writing", "Definitions", "Email Lists and Newsletters", "The Enlightenment", "Experts and Expertise", "Fallacies", "General Resources", "Great Critical Thinkers", "Group Thinking", "Guides", "Health & Medicine", "Hoaxes, Scams and Urban Legends", "Institutes, Centers and Societies", "Intelligence (military, etc.)", "Language and Thought", "Logic", "Magazines & Journals", "The Media", "Miscellaneous & Fun", "Numeracy", "Nursing", "Podcasts", "Postmodernism and all that", "Political Correctness", "Skepticism", "Software", "Specialists", "Statistics & Probability", and "Teaching".

In the center of the page, under the heading "Top Ten", there is a list of ten resources:

1. [Argument Mapping Tutorials](#). Six online tutorials in argument mapping, a core requirement for advanced critical thinking.
2. [The Skeptic's Dictionary](#) - over 400 definitions and essays.
3. [The Fallacy Files](#) by Gary Curtis. Best website on fallacies.
4. [Butterflies and Wheels](#). Excellent reading - news, articles, and much more.
5. [Critical Thinking: What It Is and Why It Counts](#) by Peter Facione. Good overview of the nature of critical thinking. (pdf file)
6. [Of the Liberty of Thought and Discussion](#) by John Stuart Mill. Classic chapter, densely packed with wisdom about thinking.
7. [Chance](#) - best resource for helping students think critically about issues involving probability and statistics
8. [Psychology of Intelligence Analysis](#), by Richards Heuer. A good overview of how to improve thinking in the light of insights from cognitive psychology.
9. [A Handbook on Writing Argumentative and Interpretative Essays](#) by Ian Johnston
10. [Baloney Detection Part 1](#) and [Part 2](#) - by Michael Shermer. 10 step guide.

Below the list is a section titled "What is critical thinking?". It starts with a quote from Francis Bacon: "Nobody said it better than [Francis Bacon](#), back in 1605: *For myself, I found that I was fitted for nothing so well as for the study of Truth; as having a mind nimble and versatile enough to catch the resemblances of things ... and at the same time steady enough to fix and distinguish their subtler differences; as being gifted by nature with desire to seek, patience to doubt, fondness to meditate, slowness to assert, readiness to consider, carefulness to dispose and set in order; and as being a man that neither affects what is new nor admires what is old, and that hates every kind of imposture.*"

It then provides a shorter version: "A shorter version is *the art of being right.*"

Finally, it offers a more prosaic definition: "Or, more prosaically: critical thinking is *the skillful application of a repertoire of validated general techniques for deciding the level of confidence you should have in a proposition in the light of the available evidence.*"

At the bottom of this section is a link: [More definitions...](#)

Austhink is an organization which creates software for both educators and businesses to develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills. On their website they provide an extensive directory of online resources related to different aspects of critical thinking. Although the directory is not uniquely targeted at educators, many websites featured are designed for teachers and students. Therefore this directory can be a useful starting point for teachers looking to find critical thinking resources, both theoretical and for classroom application.

Relevant resources can be found relatively easily as the site is well-organized and divided into over forty categories. Some larger categories are further sub-divided by resource type, such as articles, tutorials, software and email lists. A brief description of each website helps users to choose the links most relevant to their needs.

Categories which might be particularly helpful to EAP teachers include argument mapping, critical reading and writing, group thinking,

language and thought, magazines and journals, and podcasts and teaching. Such a range of resources could be useful for teachers developing materials for key EAP skills, for example, argumentative writing, debate preparation, and assessing internet sources.

Using the directory can also save time since the resources appear to have been selectively chosen and come from credible sources, many of them universities. Different perspectives on critical thinking can also be found here as links are given to different theorists' approaches. Furthermore, most sites linked to are free to access.

One weakness is that the site does not appear to be regularly updated. Nevertheless, this comprehensive directory can still be useful for teachers interested in learning more about critical thinking and looking for inspiration to encourage critical thinking in their students.

Critical Literacy

For EAP teachers interested in helping learners become critical thinkers, helping them critically read not only the academic and other written texts they encounter, but also the cultural-social-political contexts of these texts, two resources on critical literacy provide a good starting point.

Literacy GAINS

http://edugains.ca/resourcesLIT/CoreResources/Critical_Literacy_Guide.pdf

What is critical literacy, you may ask? A clear and concise answer to this question can be found on the website of Literacy GAINS (2009). Quoting a number of prominent educational theorists, this brief guide explains how teaching critical literacy provides students “with the conceptual tools necessary to critique and engage society” (Kretovics, 1985, as cited in Shor, 1999). Such approaches to literacy education aim to teach learners to “read the word” in order to “read the world” (Freire & Macedo, 1987), to analyze “how and to what degree the text maintains the status quo or perpetuates inequities”, to consider “multiple perspectives and possibilities”, especially of “those that are absent or silenced”, and to appreciate that there is no “single or ‘correct’ interpretation of any text”. In this way, proponents of critical literacy seek to promote critical consciousness and, ultimately, social change (Literacy GAINS, 2009 p. 1).

Not only does this guide summarize key points of the theory of critical literacy, it also provides a practical list of ‘strategies’ for teaching critical literacy. These include:


- Juxtaposing texts
- Testing texts against predictions
- Examining or creating alternative endings
- Using examples of texts from everyday life
- Posing, and teaching students to pose, questions that problematize text and text, evoke thinking about issues of language, and power
- Helping students understand that they can act with and/or against a text
- Modeling a think-aloud that questions what the author is saying

- “Providing opportunities for students to reflect ... and explore the implications of ideas for themselves and others” (Literacy GAINS, 2009, p. 2).

Critical literacy in the 21st Century

<http://thinkcritically.weebly.com/index.html>

Critical Literacy in the 21st Century



Home	<h4>Welcome!</h4>
Critical Literacy	Thank you for visiting my website focusing on critical literacy in the 21st century. My name is Rachel Forstat. I am a senior in the College of Education at Michigan State University , and I will be graduating in May of 2010 with a teaching major in Elementary Education and a teaching minor in language arts.
21st Century	
Technology and Reciprocal Learning	
Theory into Practice	
Sample Lesson Plans	I have created this site as a means to express my thoughts and feelings in regards to teaching critical literacy in the 21st century. Here, I will document my journey towards discovering: what it means to be <i>critically literate</i> , why critical literacy is an important concept for the 21st century, and how I can empower my future students to use literacy as a means to challenge the injustices and inequities present in the global community.
Cultural Connections & Writing for Change	
Helpful Links	
Children's Literature Resources	
References	
Feedback	

My Goal:

One goal of mine is to give students the tools to critique ideas that encourages or legitimizes social inequality...every idea that teaches them they are incapable of imagining and building a fundamentally equal and just society[x].

The website reviewed here was developed by a university student at Michigan State University’s College of Education, Rachel Forstat with the aim of giving students “the tools to critique ideas that encourages or legitimizes [sic] social inequality” (Forstat, n.d.). It is included in this review for its very practical suggestions for learning strategies and lesson plans. Forstat’s website provides not only brief overviews of critical literacy and its vital importance in the 21st Century, but also five detailed lesson plans. While intended for use with middle school students, the activities and approaches suggested could nevertheless be adapted to any educational setting including university EAP classes.

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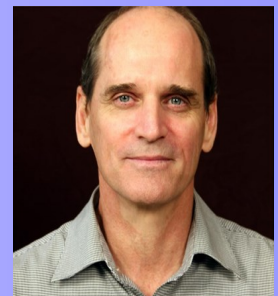
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Report of Shantou University's 3rd International Conference on Intercultural Competence

By Anthea Tse

Shantou University's English Language Center held their third international conference, themed 'Teaching Language Toward Intercultural Competence', from April 25-27, 2014. The goal and purpose for this conference was to:

Make foreign language classes better vehicles for building students' understanding of other cultures, building understanding of the process of intercultural communication, and for building the skills and habits that will make students effective intercultural communicators (Shantou University, 2014).

Some 100 educators from China and around the world attended the conference, coming together to share and exchange ideas to reach a greater depth of understanding of this important topic. The overall conference content covered three aspects of Intercultural Communication (IC): 1) the use of media and broadcast video material for developing intercultural competence, 2) teaching approaches to IC and teachers' extensive reflections on these approaches, and 3) findings of primary research into the experiences of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. Beyond this, there was a general sense that developing intercultural competence revolves around the use of English as a lingua franca, an overarching concept that increasingly overlaps with recent academic scholarship in the field of IC.

Most notably there was learning through film and TV as well as other educational tools utilizing video and other media content for IC skill acquisition. One presentation focused on using an American television drama to help Chinese students compare their own perception of American culture before and after watching the program. Through this task, students learned how to consider other options, rather than making quick judgments or resorting to stereotypes when thinking through intercultural situations and responding to (cultural) differences. Perhaps in future conferences however, the presenter could consider discussing the criteria used in choosing a drama for teaching intercultural competence to EFL learners.

Ryan Hunter from University of Macau spoke about assignments that used media tools, such as self-video recordings and online writing to encourage students' awareness of the lingua franca within their own school and city setting. In one assignment, students wrote their own restaurant reviews on the world-wide-web. In another assignment, students recorded themselves speaking English with a camera. Each student then critiqued two other students in the class. The presenter subsequently noted a difference in the quality of students' final product from assignments not requiring an awareness of their audience. The usage of media tools and the relevance of the assignment to their own lives sparked students' investment in their language learning and language production. The presenter concluded therefore,

that students desired to put in the time required for an end product that reflected their effort and attention to detail.

Attention to detail and effort are important to an assignment, just as extensive reflection on the part of teachers is important to their own teaching approach. In one presentation, Collin Tham and Kristine Adams spoke on “Perceptions of Communication About the Aims of Activities Between Teachers and Students from Different Cultural Backgrounds.” The presenters pointed out the problem that teachers unintentionally plan and execute activities without considering the effectiveness for students of varying cultural backgrounds. In order to resolve this issue, presenters suggested teachers to focus on the delivery of an activity. Delivering an activity well means keeping expectations in mind. However, although the presenters considered the diversity of students in China, the audience would perhaps have benefited more from an outline of techniques to introduce learners’ cultural backgrounds positively into classroom activities.

Also on the same note of teacher reflection was Thu Phong Vuong’s presentation on “Teaching Open-Mindedness in a Classroom Setting.” Vuong challenged teachers who are

teaching in a foreign culture to rethink how they view and respond to their students objectively in a classroom setting. In his presentation he demonstrated how people often have a very subjective understanding of others. To demonstrate this point, he showed the audience an optical illusion with two images in one. Part of the audience saw one image and the rest saw another image. Through this experiment, Vuong helped the audience realize that people have different perspectives about the same topic.

Thirdly, the last aspect of the conference focused on findings in qualitative research that showed the need for intentional IC learning and education. Plenary speaker, Jane Jackson, spoke about the contrasts between active and passive Chinese students’ intercultural competence communicating appropriately with the people of the host culture. Contrasts showed that students who actively interacted with native English speakers gained more intercultural competence than those who passively interacted with people in the host country. Passive students often remained on their own, and only interacted with people in the host culture as needed. Perhaps due in part to this lack of interaction, Jackson observed that the



Figure 1: Academic socialization model for international students (Nelson, 2014)

journals of passive students even reflected a negative perspective and lack of understanding of the host culture.

Gayle Nelson, another plenary speaker, echoed Jackson's sentiment that there is a need for intentional intercultural competence learning. Her study focused on a Chinese doctoral student she had followed through a two-year qualitative study. Her findings conveyed to the audience how international students can gain intercultural competence, appropriately communicating with people of the host culture, when they are fully immersed in it. International students gain such competence by thinking through questions including: "Who am I in this new context? How am I supposed to act in this community?" Nelson's visual aid (Figure 1) illustrated the different degrees of perception of a foreign graduate student's understanding of the world around her.

In closing, the three main themes discussed in the duration of the conference were: use of media and broadcast video material, teaching approaches to IC and teachers' extensive

reflections on these approaches, and findings of primary research into the experiences of EFL learners. From a total of thirty sessions over two and a half days, therefore, the conference attendees took home with them many valuable tips and proven techniques for improving their students, and their own, intercultural competence.

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Upcoming Conferences

By Seth Hartigan

Conferences with Open Proposal Deadlines

2014 International Conference on Phonetic Research and Language Learning (ICPRLL) & English Phonetic Conference in China (EPCC)

October 17-19, 2014, College of Foreign Languages, Hunan University, Changsha, China
Proposals due: August 21, 2014
Website: <http://www.icprll2014.org/>

2014 International Symposium on CALL in China (ChinaCALL 2014)

November 7-8, 2014, Beijing Jiaotong University, Beijing, China
Proposals due: September 15, 2014
Website: http://www.chinacall.org.cn/conference2014/index_e.html

11th Asian EFL Journal International TESOL Conference

November 28-30, 2014, SITE Skills Training, Clark Freeport Zone, Pampanga, Philippines
Proposals due: September 30, 2014
Website: <http://sianefl.com/11thconference>

The 3rd Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS) Forum on Applied Linguistics

December 5-7, 2014, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Proposals due: September 30, 2014
Website: <http://clal.org.cn/al3/>

35th Thailand TESOL International Conference

January 29-31, 2015, PAC Thailand TESOL, Bangkok, Thailand
Proposals due: October 15, 2014
Website: <http://thailandtesol.org/Menu/Conference/2015%20ThaiTESOL%20Conference.php>

2nd International Conference on Language, Literature and Community 2015

February 21-22, 2015, Jagadguru Kripalu University, Bhubaneshwar, India
Proposals due: September 15, 2014
Website: <http://www.languages3000.com/>

11th Cambodia TESOL (CAMTESOL) Conference 2015

February 20-22, 2015, Phnom Penh, Cambodia
Proposals due: September 13, 2014
Website: <http://www.camtesol.org/2015-conference>

International Conference on Language Form and Function (ICLFF)

March 27-29, 2015, School of Foreign Languages, Soochow University, Suzhou, China
Proposals due: October 31, 2014
Website (in building stage): <http://sfl.suda.edu.cn/ICLFF/>

The Sociolinguistics of Globalization: (De)centring and (de)standardization

June 3-6, 2015, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
Proposals due: September 30, 2014
Website: <http://www.english.hku.hk/events/slxg2015>

Conferences with Closed Proposal Deadlines

7th International Conference of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF 7)

September 4-6, 2014, DERE- The American College of Greece, Athens, Greece
Website: <http://www.elf7.org/>

Annual Meeting of the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) 2014

September 4-6, 2014, Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK
Website: http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/research/conferences/baal_2014/

The Third UAD TEFL International Conference 2014 (The 3rd UTIC 2014)

September 17-18, 2014, Cavinton Hotel, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
Website: <http://utic.pbi.uad.ac.id/>

8th Annual International Free Linguistics Conference (FLC) 2014

September 26-27, 2014, School of Foreign Languages, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China
Website: <http://freelinguistics.org/conference/2014>

Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA) 2014 International TESOL Conference

September 30 - October 3, 2014, Melbourne Convention and Exhibition Centre, Australia
 Website: <http://www.tesol.org.au/ACTA-Conference>

22nd Annual Korea TESOL International Conference: (KOTESOL) 2014

October 3-5, 2014, COEX Conference Center, Seoul, South Korea
 Website: <http://koreatesol.org/ic2014>

4th International Conference on Law, Language and Discourse & 8th Conference of the China Association of Forensic Linguistics (LLD4 & CAFL8)

October 18-21, 2014, Northwest University of Political Science & Law, Xi'an, China
 Website: <http://fli.nwupl.cn/2014conf/>

7th International Conference on English Language Teaching in China (ELT) 2014

October 23-26, 2014, School of Foreign Studies, Nanjing University, Nanjing, China
 Website: <http://elt.celea.org.cn/2014/en/>

Cognitive Linguistics and Pragmatics: Theory and Practice International Conference 2014

October 24-26, 2014, School of Foreign Languages, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, China
 Website: <http://clp.njnu.edu.cn>

5th International Symposium on European Languages in East Asia

October 24-25, 2014, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan
 Website: <http://www.forex.ntu.edu.tw/eusymposium/>

6th International Conference on Formal Linguistics in Conjunction with the International Conference on Language Acquisition, Language Disorder and Language Assessment (ICFL-2014)

November 8-9, 2014, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China
 Website: <http://www.tsinghua.edu.cn/publish/fdllen/8852/index.html>

Japan Association for Language Teaching's 40th Annual International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning & Educational Materials Exhibition (JALT2014)

November 21-24, 2014, Tsukuba International Congress Center, Ibaraki, Japan
 Website: <http://jalt.org/conference>

The Sixth CLS International Conference CLaSIC 2014

December 4-6, 2014, Centre for Language Studies (CLS), National University of Singapore
 Website: <http://www.fas.nus.edu.sg/cls/CLaSIC/clasic2014/>

TESOL 2015 International Convention & English Language Expo

March 25-28, 2015, Toronto, Canada
 Website: <http://www.tesol.org/attend-and-learn/international-convention/convention2014/2015-session-proposals>

2015 International Conference on Applied Linguistics (2015 ICAL)

May 30-31, 2015, Minhsiung Campus, National Chiayi University, Taiwan
 Website: http://www.ncyu.edu.tw/dfl/content.aspx?site_content_sn=45760

Although every effort has been made to supply accurate information, readers should visit the conference websites to receive the latest updates. Many conferences choose to extend the date for abstract proposals to ensure the maximum number of presenters.

Seth Hartigan is a tutor at XJTLU where he teaches Academic English Communication skills to postgraduate students. Dr. Hartigan has over nine years of experience in China, including teaching positions at Renmin and Tsinghua Universities. His academic interests include research into the rhetorical expression of critical thinking, the philosophy of education and the science of learning.

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Call for Papers

The next issue of ETiC will focus on the theme of **Intercultural Communication**.

Possible topics for inclusion:

- Teaching culture
- Intercultural literacy
- Intercultural understanding
- Bi/multi-lingual education in China
- Use of technology and/or media in cross cultural learning
- Culture in the context of global Englishes
- Culture and EAP

We also welcome submissions on other topics related to **English Teaching in China**.

Contributions can be written in any variety of English which is intelligible to our readers, e.g. China English, Indian English, British English.

Please email submissions to etic@xjtlu.edu.cn. Author guidelines and past issues are available on our web site, etic.xjtlu.edu.cn. Please try to follow the guidelines as closely as possible.

This issue will be published in January, 2015 and the deadline for submissions is 31st October, 2014.

The ETiC Road Show



Chinese Corner

Chinese as a lingua franca?

Many handy words and phrases born in China seem to be emerging in the English-speaking world. Some of them have been coined to describe new social phenomena that may be difficult to translate directly, whilst others are created as humorous intercultural wordplay, especially popular among young people. Since there are now over half a million foreign expats living in China, even more Chinese people studying and working overseas to spread the word, and an increasing number of foreigners learning Mandarin, we expect some of these to pop up soon in places like the OED.

A *tuhao* [tǔ háo 土豪] for instance, has jokingly come to signify a filthy rich man who has absolutely no class or sense; whilst according to *The Wall Street Journal*, his wife [tài tai 太太] is probably the *dama* [dà mā 大妈] or middle-aged woman buying enough jewellery to sway prices on the international gold market. On the other hand, perhaps due to some unsociable personal habits, or the fact that there are 70 million more young men than women in China, many *tuhao*s may end up as *guanggun* [guāng gùn 光棍] aka Chinese bachelors, who need to search abroad for a foreigner [lǎo wài 老外] as their bride. Other less lucky, more frustrated, young *diaosi* [diǎo sī 屌丝] (geeks, or losers) may take on the attitude of a *fenqing* [fèn qīng 愤青] or 'Chinese radical youth'; however, law and order will surely be upheld by the local *chengguan* [chéng guǎn 城管], the notorious municipal law enforcement officers.

Thanks largely to social media, youth culture is becoming a huge export driver in terms of Chinese loanwords and fun cross-cultural expressions. In fact, Chinglish may be going global as a new 'hip' lingua franca. Consider the immortal exhortation "Good good study, day day up!" (hǎo háo xué xí, tiān tiān xiàng shàng 好好学习, 天天向上 or 'work hard and improve every day!'), which has hit the pages of several English language newspapers in 2014. Next, another term popular among Chinese students abroad, now listed in the online Urban Dictionary, is "You can you up, no can no BB!" which assertively warns "Do it then, if you think you are so smart; otherwise shut up!" BB literally means 'Blah blah blah' here. Conversely, on social media and online gaming, "No zuo no die!" (不作不死) often warns not to do something foolish that can land you in trouble. Such lines may even feature in Chinese rap music.

Most fascinatingly, there are a host of new hybrid fusion words like "geilivable" (from gěi lì 给力 'to give strength or energy') and "niubi" (niú bī 牛逼), both of which mean 'cool' or 'awesome'; whilst "jiujieli" (jiū jié 纠结 hesitation), "erbility" (or usually '2B' èr bī 二逼 stupidity), "shability" (shǎ bī 傻逼 foolishness) and "zhuangbility" (zhuāng bī 装逼 boastfulness) all currently hit the spot lexically as a curious new breed of derogatory expressions.

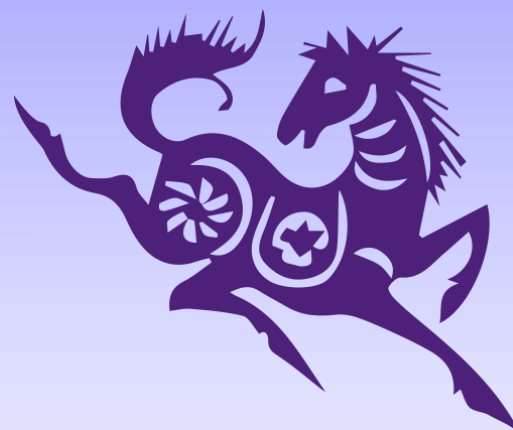
So it seems that these new kids on the block are making Chinese loanwords that we were getting excited about only a few years ago, like *hongbao* [hóng bāo 红包], the red envelopes containing cash for Spring Festival, and *guanxi* (guān xi 关系 personal connections), look rather tame. Our advice therefore is to look out for a lot more *chingua franca* fun in the future!

English Teaching in China (ETiC) is primarily produced by staff from the Language Centre (LC) of Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University (XJTLU), Suzhou, China.

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2014 is the Chinese year of the horse.

qiān lǐ mǎ [千里马], or 'a horse that can cover a thousand *lǐ* [=500 metres] per day' was used by people in ancient China to describe an able person, especially a person with special talents.



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