Three concentric circles: Young Chinese English learners' perceptions of purposeful audiences

Jack Jinghui LIU, California State University- Fullerton, USA

English learners have more access to communicate with different purposeful audiences across the Three Concentric Circles of English proposed by Kachru: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. However, young language learners' purposeful audience as a focus of communication has not been emphasized as much as other linguistic features in English language learning and teaching methodology. This study examines young Chinese English learners' perceptions of purposeful audiences in the context of English native speakers and non-native speakers. Data for the study were collected through a questionnaire that was sent to students (N = 120) at a public senior high school in China. The study found that Chinese English learners' perceptions of purposeful audiences were influenced by public English education, private language training schools, and English language media. This article concludes with some recommendations for young EFL learners across a variety of native languages in their English education development.

1. Introduction

Historically, purposeful audience has not been emphasized as much as other linguistic features in the English language learning and teaching. Writers are able to present a strong voice only when they have a clear sense of their purposeful audience (Mangelsdorf, Roen & Taylor, 1990). Purposeful audiences are defined as target readers whom writers are writing for. Notions of writers' purposeful audiences and voice have been found to be beneficial to writing instruction in composition programs in North America (Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996). Teachers frequently correct students' writings without addressing a purposeful audience resulting in a lack of authenticity (McCarthey & García, 2005). Effective writers and speakers should be "acutely aware of all the concrete their audiences, their media of expression, and the constructs of reality they share with the larger community" (Halloran & Whiteburn, 1982, p. 70). Native English-speaking learners can contribute to

their own success as writers by determining their purposeful audiences (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002). However, it is difficult for EFL students in non-English environments to know whom they are writing for (Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996).

Use of the communication media has been becoming common in the ever-advancing technology via the internet to enhance collaboration of projects intercultural and internationally, between backgrounds of diversified people (Gareis, 2006). Gareis (2006) found that communication online improved the communication skills with different cultures and increased their culture awareness. The development of computer-assisted communication modes has drastically changed the field of second language acquisition, and as a result, the internet has become a useful communication tool for EFL learners to improve their writing while focusing on different purposeful audiences across the Three Concentric Circles of English (Kachru, 1985). The Three Concentric Circles Model represents the spread of the English language in terms of three concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1985).

The Inner Circle comprises the traditional bases of English, dominated by the mother-tongue varieties, that is, where English is the primary language including the United Sates, the United Kingdoms, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The Outer Circle is made up of countries where English has a colonial history, and where the language has developed institutionalized functions, such as India, Singapore, Zambia and Pakistan and others. The Expanding Circle includes the rest of the world, where English plays a role here as a foreign language for international communication and for specific purposes as in the reading of scientific and technical materials. Countries in the Expanding Circle include China, Japan, South Korea, Israel and others. English is used as an important vehicle for international communication across diverse linguistic, ethnic, and religious groups (Kachru, 1992). An effective statement or suggestion derives from the way in which students should understand purposeful audiences' cultural backgrounds and purposeful audiences make an intercultural transition: writers connect different cultures across three different English Circles (Kachru, 1985).

China is one of countries in the Expanding Circle; with its entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2001 and its hosting of the 2008 Olympic Games, English learning has become increasingly popular (Adamson, 2002; Bolton, 2002). The increasing use of e-mail, Skype and Wechat provides opportunities for Chinese English learners to contact English speakers in Inner Circle and Outer Circle. Particularly, writing to native-English speakers of Inner Circle as their purposeful audiences has become Chinese English learners' preferred communication mode.

2. Background

2.1. Research on the L2 writing process

The present study focuses on the purposeful audiences of English as foreign language (L2) writers, with a view to arriving at a better understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing. Ramanathan and Kaplan (1996) propose that the presentation of the concepts of audience and voice in current freshman writing textbooks excludes learners whose first language is other than English from engaging in a potential dialogue with the textbooks, thus inhibiting students' development as full participants in any academic discourse community. Research on the L2 writing process has thrived since the early 1980s. The focus of attention has been, however, mainly on the similarities between L1 and L2 writing processes despite the "salient and important differences" between them (Silva, 1993). Cummins (1991) argues that it is not only linguistic abilities, but also academic skills, literacy development, subject knowledge, and learning strategies that transfer from L1 to L2. Manchon and Murphy's (2000) study confirms that the L2 writing process is a bilingual event: L2 writers have two languages at their disposal when they are composing in L2, as noted by some previous studies.

Buckwalter and Lo (2002) state "the literacy development in one language does not have an adverse effect on literacy development in the other language. It appears that literacy development in one language has a positive effect on literacy development in the other language." This suggests that literacy development in any language helps to build knowledge of the basic concepts of literacy, which can be transferred to other languages (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002). One important difference between L1 and L2 writing processes is that L2 writers have more than one language at their disposal; that is, they may use both L1 and L2 for cognitive operations when they are composing in the L2 (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002).

Wang and Wen's (2002) study reports a study on "how [Chinese] ESL/EFL writers use their L1 when composing in their L2 and how such L1 use is affected by L2 proficiency and writing tasks". Sixteen Chinese EFL learners were asked to compose aloud on two tasks: narration and argumentation. Analyses of their think-aloud protocols revealed that Chinese student writers had both their L1 and L2 at their disposal when composing in their L2. Chinese students were more likely to rely on L1 when they were managing their writing processes, generating and organizing ideas, but more likely to rely on L2 when undertaking task-examining and text-generating activities. Additionally, more L1 use was found in the narrative writing task than in the argumentative writing. Finally, the think-aloud protocols reflected that L1 use decreased with the writer's L2 development, but the extent of the decline of L1 use in individual activities varied (Wang & Wen, 2002). Randolph (2001)

said "she happily accepted any and all responses, for, to me, increased oral expression in English was valuable, regardless of the motivation for speaking" (p. 10).

Furthermore, Buckwalter and Lo's (2002) study suggests that teachers' knowledge of students' literacy backgrounds can help inform instruction. Teachers can provide more individualized and effective instruction for their students if they are familiar not only with the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of each student but also with the knowledge the student possesses about reading and writing and their attitudes toward literacy in various languages. For example, knowing the types of experiences they have had with reading and writing and their attitudes toward these experiences, the number and types of demonstrations they have received of how texts are constructed and used, and the amount of time they have spent engaged in reading and writing behaviors, assist teachers in providing quality literacy instruction for students. Knowledge of the emergent nature of biliteracy allows the teachers to build on the strengths the child brings with them to the formal literacy instruction process (Buckwalter & Lo, 2002). However, the research on young English learners' writing and the changing English learning environments received limited attention from the researchers, resulting in little understanding of the unique features of L2 writing and a lack of coherent, comprehensive L2 writers.

2.2. English learning environments in China

Two different English learning environments in China are reviewed, including public

English education and foreign studies public schools. Purves (1988) asserts that it is in schools that students learn to write according to certain conventions associated with the literary and cultural heritage of the society. Public schools serve as a primary agent in the transmission of conventions in native language learning. However, "writing conventions are often dismissed by teachers as too obvious to need attention or as beneath notice for teachers of serious composition. Yet, in the contrastive situation, there is no reason to assume that the nonnative English speaker will be aware of this set of conventions in English or that the learner will be able to acquire these conventions from him or her" (Kaplan, 1988, p. 295).

In the colonial times of the late 19th century, English writing was taught by both native English-speaking teachers and Chinese teachers in American missionary schools and colleges in China (You, 2002). By analyzing an essay written by a Chinese student published in a magazine entitled St. John's Echo in 1890, You (2010) asserted that Chinese writers' choice of topic and rhetorical strategies might be influenced by their awareness of a "particular

audience, namely the western audience" (p. 52). English courses were first offered in institutions of higher education and middle schools in 1903 (You, 2002). In the early 1920s, the most influential books on composition emphasized "writing as a means of creating psychological effects on the audience" (You, 2002, p.52). How a student appropriated the text would depend on his or her understanding of the audience, the Chinese author and Anglo-American and Chinese rhetorical preferences (You, 2010).

After the People's Republic of China was founded in 1949, most native English teachers left mainland China. During the 1950s and 1960s, the Chinese were largely isolated from the English-speaking world (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). In 1957, there were only 850 secondary-school English teachers in China (Bolton, 2002). After 1976, some native-speaking teachers from English speaking countries such as, Australia, England, and the United States were recruited because of the open-door policy.

In the 1980s and 1990s, Chinese students began learning English from third grade or seventh grade, depending on whether they are living in the city or in the countryside. In 1999, over 50 million secondary students were studying English (Adamson, 2002). The teacher-centered method is frequently used in English teaching classes. English writing was taught mostly through reading and analyzing model texts, and Chinese students were supposed to summarize the thesis of the text and analyze structure (Li, 2002). You (2010) stated that

Although students were writing hypothetically for a native-speaker audience, in reality students tried to communicate with their Chinese audiences (i.e., teachers and peers) who truly mattered in the rhetorical situation (i.e., class assignments or tests).

You (2010) indicated that Chinese students preferred the teacher's comments that identify problems in their writing drafts, and that the students' pair work was relatively ineffective.

2.3. Foreign studies public schools

In China, the public foreign studies system is made up of seven schools built in 1963 under specific official curriculum guidelines. The foreign studies school education system consists of 3 years for junior high school, and 3 years for senior high school. One of the differences between foreign language high schools and regular high schools is that the students are admitted based on their scores of an English proficiency test. The students in foreign studies schools are more proficient English than the students at the entrance to high school entrance test. Curriculum at this foreign language school is similar to the regular high school but emphasizes the study of foreign languages such as

English, German, French, Russian, Japanese and Korean. Most of them prefer to go to college where they will major in English or another language either at foreign language universities or comprehensive universities in China. For instance, a foreign studies school in Shanghai has 43 classes from grade 6 to 12, with 2,046 students and 112 teachers. Among the total 112 English teachers, 4 native language teachers are from foreign countries. In addition, some students were involved in study abroad programs to countries such as Japan and Germany, but it was a difficult process for students to apply for visas to visit some English speaking countries, such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom and Canada.

Students in foreign studies schools have more courses in English and more opportunities for reading, writing, speaking and listening. There is no explicitly English writing class, but rather it is a part of a text exercise, such as letter writing, direction description, translation based the Chinese sentences. These students have greater proficiency and facility at written communication in English than the regular high school students. The foreign language textbooks are co-authored with the native speakers' countries; there are small foreign languages classes with about 20 students and an emphasis both on oral expression and writing communicative competence, under the native language teachers' instruction and technology. The situation teaching method focuses on pronunciation, tones, speaking priority, discussion and role-playing.

Students have opportunities to study in native speakers' countries through study abroad programs. Students also have more opportunities to talk in the target language with visiting government delegates, students and reporters from other countries. The schools have recently suggested that students learn at least two foreign languages and take relevant classes such as literature and history, classical poetry and culture etc. Students create their own organizations such as, literature, anime, computers, movie criticism, calligraphy, drawing, music, piano, carving, handcrafts and their own class libraries.

3. Research design

In this study, Chinese English learners' purposeful audiences facilitate a communication tool among the three English circles, particularly how the English native speakers from inner circle connects with the English non-native speakers from expanding circle. The hypothesis is that Chinese English learners' purposeful audiences are dependent upon the resources and diverse language learning channels. It follows that one must connect with native speakers in the Inner Circle, like reading native English speakers' writing, and by writing with a purposeful audience as a target via internet by enabling

them to communicate with their native audiences encountered in native English environments.

This study argues that non-native learners could not consider native English language writers' as their purposeful audiences until they have opportunities to communicate with them. Chinese students in public high schools do not have many opportunities to know native English speakers because their limited channels to communicate with native English speakers constrains their purposeful audiences. Therefore, the Foreign Studies Public School was determined as the research setting. The Chinese EFL students in foreign studies schools were in a unique English communication circle who could meet native-English instructors in class, and teacher as their purposeful audience act as the mirror reflection in students' writing.

Therefore, this study is to examine the perceptions that young Chinese English learners hold toward friends and teachers in Chinese public school by asking the following research questions:

1. How young Chinese English learners were influenced by English native speakers and non-native speakers?

2. What perceptions of purposeful audiences do young Chinese English learners have toward English native speakers and non-native speakers?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

This study is based on a survey of 120 Chinese students enrolled in a public school in two 11th-grade classes in Shanghai. They were taught by both local Chinese English teachers and native English-speaking teachers. The participants ranged in age from 15 to 17 years old. Seventy students (58.3%) students were 17 years old, and 48 students (40%) were 16 years old. The remaining 2 students (1.6%) were 15 years old, who received kindergarten education one or two years earlier than their counterparts, under their teachers' and parents' permissions.

The responses indicated that all 120 participants had been learning English for over 4 years at the time of data collection. Eight students (6.6%) studied English for 12 to 13 years and started to learn English in bilingual kindergarten; 27 students (22.5%) studied English for 10-11 years; 60 students (50%) studied English for 8 to 9 years; 16 students (13.3%) studied English for 6-7 years; and 9 students (7.5%) had 4-5 years of study. A total of 95 students (79%) had over 8 years of English learning, which means that most of the students started to learn English in third grade in elementary school.

4.2. Instruments

The first part of the survey was an open-ended question regarding EFL learners' English reading experiences outside of the classes such as newspapers, magazines and books (see Appendix). The second part of the survey was created to reflect on influences of the Chinese writing, English writing written by Chinese speakers and English writing written by native-English speakers. Students were required to circle a number of items on a 5-point Likert-scale response (1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often).

The third part included four purposeful audience groups including Chinese-speaking friends, English-speaking friends, Chinese-speaking teachers and English-speaking teachers to reflect the perceptions of the purposeful audiences in English writing. The question was, "How often do you think the following persons are your readers when you write in English?"

4.3. Procedure

The questionnaires were sent to a public high school in Shanghai, China, and each participant was required to fill out the questionnaire. Because the research was conducted in a high school system working with 11th grade students who were minors, the Human Subject Application was approved by the university Institutional Review Board (IRB). The principal of the school in China signed permission letters to comply with the United States' regulations. Students were asked to read and sign the consent forms if they were interested in participating in the study and if they were approved to do so.

The researcher explained the purpose of the research and answered questions via phone-calls, e-mails and fax. Each participant attested to the fact that he/she knew exactly what was happening in the study and knew what was expected of him/her. The participants were reminded that their participation was strictly voluntary and they could withdraw at any time. One English teacher was willing to assist in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires. A total of 120 questionnaires were collected by mail.

5. Results

Research Question # 1: How young Chinese English learners were influenced by English native speakers and non-native speakers?

Based on students' responses, this study found that 97.5% of young Chinese students had English reading experience outside of their English classes, such as reading newspapers, magazines and books. This result is consistent with the findings as interviewed students that the Internet, private English training schools, other forms of media, and English corners on campus provided

opportunities for students to study English. Besides English being taught in public schools, there were a growing number of private English training schools in China, such as the New Oriental School, the New Channel School, the Wall Street English School, the San Yu International Language Institute and the New Bridge School. These private schools allowed English learners to learn English with English-native speakers as purposeful audiences.

In these private English training schools, Chinese students directly treated English native speakers as their purposeful audiences, who played roles as trainers for helping students achieve high scores on the English examinations such as SAT, ACT, TOEFL, IELTS, GRE, GMAT, and LSAT for admission into overseas educational institutions. Furthermore, Randolph (2001) conducted interviews and videotaped English classes in a training school in Beijing and observed that Chinese students only preferred to speak on assigned topics with their native-English teachers. In addition, Chinese English learner can meet native English speakers in "English corner," places where Chinese students have the opportunity to practice their English with native-English speakers, such as foreign experts, international students on the weekends.

English pop music, films, TV series and animations have flourished among the Chinese youth through English-language media, including English magazines, newspapers, radio, TV series and the Internet, which provides different ways for Chinese English learners to communicate with non-native and native English speakers as their purposeful audiences. For instance the Voice of America (VOA) is probably the most popular English media channel outside of China, which influenced Chinese English learners' purposeful audiences. Another similarly popular English station for Chinese listeners is the BBC (British Broadcasting Company) of the United Kingdom, beginning with the first radio broadcast in 1922.

However, Chinese English learners seldom use China Radio International and China Central Television Station (CCTV) for learning purposes, because they mostly report on national polices, which are beyond functional daily communication. Guo and Yu (2002) stated that "English media [published in China] are positioned as propaganda missionaries to outsiders and therefore structurally under the direct scrutiny of the [Communist] Party, although this does not always indicate closer chaperon on daily operations" (p. 219). In other words, Chinese English learners will not consider the Chinese English radio or TV as their purposeful audiences.

As demonstrated in Table 1, 53.3% of students answered "very often" and "somewhat often" to research questionnaires regarding the frequency of native-English speakers' influence on their English writing. Comparatively 15.8% of students were influenced by Chinese writing and only 10.8% of students were influenced by English writing written by Chinese. All three

groups show significant difference (F = 36.83, p < .0001).

Table 1
Frequency of Chinese Writing, English Written by Chinese, and English Written by Native Speakers (n = 120)

	Chinese Writing		English written by Chinese		English written by native-English speakers	
	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
Never	5	(4.17%)	27	(22.5%)	6	(5.00%)
Not very often	87	(72.50%)	58	(48.33%)	37	(30.83%)
Not sure	9	(7.50%)	22	(18.33%)	13	(10.83%)
Somewhat often	17	(14.17%)	11	(9.17%)	55	(45.83%)
Very often	2	(1.67%)	2	(1.67%)	9	(7.50%)
Total	120	(100%)	120	(100%)	120	(100%)
Mean (SD)	2.3667 (0.8395)		2.1917 (0.9464)		3.2 (1.1122)	
F (p)	36.83 (< 0.0001)					

Note: 1 = never 2 = not very often 3 = not sure 4 = somewhat often 5 = very often

Table 2
Comparative t-Test of Chinese Writing, English Written by Chinese and English Written by Native Speakers

		Chinese Writing	English written by Chinese	English written by native-English speakers
Chinese	t	–	1.3938 (0.3452)	-6.6373 (<0.0001)
English written by Chinese	t	-1.3938 (0.3452)	–	-8.0311 (<0.0001)
English written by native speakers	t	6.6373 (< 0.0001)	8.0311 (< 0.0001)	–

As Table 2 shows, comparisons between Chinese writing and English writing written by Chinese demonstrates no significant difference (t = 1.3938, P = 0.3452). Chinese students thought the influences of Chinese writing and English writing written by Chinese speakers were similar. The comparison between English written by native-English speakers and Chinese writing written by Chinese speakers shows significant difference (t = 6.6373, P < 0.0001). And English written by native speakers and English written by Chinese speakers shows significant difference (t = 8.0311, P < 0.0001). In other words, Chinese students thought native-English speakers' English writing influenced them more than Chinese writing and English writing written by Chinese speakers did. As the researcher mentioned before, the possible reason is that Chinese students have more opportunities to use

English outside of their English class, such as reading English articles written by native speakers.

Research Question # 2: What perceptions of purposeful audiences do Young Chinese English learners have toward English native speakers and Non-native Speakers?

Table 3 shows that 56% of Chinese students "somewhat often" and "very often" considered English-speaking friends as the purposeful audiences, compared to 39% of them who thought of their Chinese-speaking friends as the purposeful audiences.

Table 3
Frequency of Friends as Purposeful Audience

	Chinese-speaking Friends		English-speaking Friends	
	N	%	*N*	%
Never	23	19.17%	17	14.17%
Not very often	34	28.33%	21	17.50%
Not sure	16	13.33%	14	11.67%
Somewhat often	39	32.50%	46	38.33%
Very often	8	6.67%	22	18.33%
Total	120	100%	120	100.00%

Table 4
Comparative t-Test of Chinese-Speaking and English-Speaking Friends as Purposeful Audience

	Chinese- speaking Friends	English-speaking Friends
Mean	2.7917	3.2917
SD	1.2695	1.3372
t	-2.9700	
p	0.0033	

Also, the distribution of the students (Table 4) who considered Chinese-speaking friends and English-speaking friends as purposeful audiences shows significant difference (t = - 2.97, p = .0033). In other words, Chinese students thought of their English-speaking friends as their purposeful audiences more frequently than considering their Chinese-speaking friends as their purposeful audiences. As the researchers mentioned before, a possible reason is that the Internet is increasingly being used in China. Chinese students have more opportunities beyond their classrooms, such as reading English articles written by native speakers and communicating online with native-English speakers.

As Table 5 shows, 76.67% of Chinese students responded that they "somewhat often" and "very often" consider Chinese-speaking teachers as their purposeful audiences, compared to the 49.17% that considered English-speaking teachers as their purposeful audiences.

Table 5
Compared Frequency of Teachers as Purposeful Audiences

	Chinese Teacher		English Teacher	
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*
Never	8	6.67%	19	15.83%
Not very often	12	10.00%	25	20.83%
Not sure	8	6.67%	17	14.17%
Somewhat often	42	35.00%	44	36.67%
Very often	50	41.67%	15	12.5%
Total	120	100.00%	120	100%

As shown in Table 6, the paired-group of Chinese-speaking teachers and English-speaking teachers shows significant difference ($t = 5.52$, $p < .0001$). Chinese students more frequently thought of Chinese-speaking teachers as their English writing's purposeful audiences than English-speaking teachers did.

Table 6
Comparative t-Tests of Chinese-speaking Teachers and English-speaking Teachers

	Chinese Teacher	English Teacher
Mean	3.9500	2.8550
SD	1.2220	1.3093
t	5.25	
p	< 0.0001	

1= never 2 = not very often 3 = not sure 4 = somewhat often 5 = very often

This data reflects the fact that students have few opportunities to communicate with visiting native English speakers and students from English-speaking countries.

6. Conclusion

The study found that when Chinese high school students had English reading experience outside of their English classes, they thought that native-English speakers' English writing influenced them more than Chinese writing and English writing written by Chinese speakers. Chinese students more

frequently thought of their English-speaking friends as their purposeful audiences more than they considered their Chinese-speaking friends as their purposeful audiences. However, Chinese students more frequently thought of Chinese-speaking teachers over English-speaking teachers as their English writings' target audience. It is important to keep in mind that the priority of English learning and teaching in the classroom is to meet the requirements of China's college entrance exam. Furthermore, many EFL teachers believed that the teacher-centered method was more effective than the student-centered method in providing students with feedback on their drafts, which they perceived as more effective than student feedback (Connor and Asenavage, 1994; Li, 2002). Writing practices should permit writers to explore and express their inner feelings and to discover their personal meanings, and not solely as the memorization of grammatical rules and textbook contents (Connor, 1996; Johnson, 1982).

Limitations in this study should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings. First, all students who participated in the study were from one public foreign studies school located in a major city, which means they had more opportunities to communicate with native English teacher and use the Internet compared to their counterparts in rural public schools in China. They are not necessarily representative of the entire Chinese high school student population. Further research is needed to survey more students from public high schools. Second, the gap exists between the students' responses in this questionnaire and what students actually do in their empirical writing. Qualitative analysis should be conducted on students' actual empirical writing, and open-ended interviews should be conducted in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the students' opinions.

The results suggest a preference for developing computer-assisted communication modes as students' writing activities across English Three Concentric Circles to communicate with native English speakers. Students should be encouraged to view language competence as a self-expressive and socially relevant activity and not solely as the memorizing of grammatical rules and formal patterns schema (Johnson, 1982). English language educators should know that using e-mail is an effective communication tool and a motivation factor, as it allows students to communicate with native-English speakers. And it may be a reasonable plan to involve students in an email pen-pal writing project between Chinese students and their counterparts in other countries. The email pen-pal writing project's goal is to get students to use English and build a close relationship with the native-English speakers.

Currently, purposeful audiences of EFL learners have not been discussed in depth. Considering purposeful audiences is good for developing English

writing and should be encouraged and expanded. Teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities should consider which purposeful audiences will effectively motivate EFL learners to improve their writing and express themselves. More native-English instructors with diverse teaching methods are needed in order to meet Chinese EFL learners' requirements or expectations. Short-term and long-term exchange study abroad programs between EFL learners and native English learners are recommended. There is also a need for researchers to notice the recent developing trends of EFL learners across a variety of native languages in their English education development.

The Author

Dr. Jack Jinghui Liu (Email: jinghuiliu@fullerton.edu) is an Associate Professor of in the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures at California State University, Fullerton. Dr. Liu earned his PhD in foreign language education at Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana State. His research interests include applied linguistics, intercultural rhetoric, EFL, and curriculum development. Dr. Liu also served as reviewers for international conferences and academic publishers, such as Yale University Press.

References

Adamson, B. (2002). Barbarian as a foreign language: English in China's schools. *World Englishes, 21*(2), 231-243.

Bolton, K. (2002). Chinese Englishes: From Canton jargon to global English. *World Englishes, 21*(2), 181-199.

Buckwalter, J. K., & Lo, Y.-H. G. (2002). Emergent biliteracy in Chinese and English. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 11*(4), 269-293.

Cai, J. (2003). *Ying han xie zuo xiu ci dui bi* (*A contrastive study of writing and rhetoric in English and Chinese*). Shanghai, China: Fudan Press.

Cheng, Z. (2002). English departments in Chinese universities: Purpose and function. *World Englishes, 21*(2), 257-267.

Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Connor, U., & Asenavage, K. (1994). Peer responses groups in ESL writing classes: How much impact on revision? *Journal of Second Language*

Writing, 3(3), 257-275.

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1996). Cultures of learning: Language classroom in China. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the Language Classroom*, (pp. 169-206). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. (1991). Interdependence of first- and second-language proficiency in bilingual children. In E. Bialystok (Ed.), *Language processing in bilingual children*, (pp. 70–89). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Evans, B. (2010). Chinese perceptions of inner circle varieties of English. *World Englishes, 29*(2), 270-280.

Guo, Z., & Yu, H. (2002). Hybridized discourse: Social openness and functions of English media in post-Mao China. *World Englishes, 21*(2), 217-230.

Halloran, M. S., & Whitburn, M. D. (1982). Ciceronian rhetoric and the rise of science: The plain style reconsidered. In J. J. Murphy (Ed.), *The Rhetorical Tradition and Modern Writing*, (pp. 58-72). New York: The Modern Language Association.

Johnson, N. (1982). Three nineteenth-century rhetoricians: The humanist alternative to rhetoric as skills management. In J. J. Murphy (Ed.), The Rhetorical Tradition and Modern Writing, (pp. 105 -117). New York: Modern language association of America.

Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures*, (pp. 11-36). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1992). World Englishes: Approaches, issues and resources. *Language Teaching, 25*, 1-14.

Kaplan, R. B. (1988). Contrastive rhetoric and second language learning: Notes toward a theory of contrastive rhetoric. In C. A. Purves (Ed.), *Writing Across Languages and Cultures: Issues in Contrastive Rhetoric*, (pp. 275-304). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Li, X.-M. (2002). "Track (dis)connecting": Chinese high school and university writing in a time of change. In D. Foster & D. Russell (Eds.), *Writing and Learning in Cross-National Perspective*, (pp. 49-87). Transitions from

secondary to higher education. Urbana, IL: NCTE.

Manchon, R. M., Larios, J. R. L., & Murphy, L. (2000). An approximation to the study of backtracking in L2 writing. *Learning and Instruction, 10*, 13–35.

Mangelsdorf, K., Roen, D., & Taylor, V. (1990). ESL students' use of audience. In G. E. Kirsch & D. H. Roen (Eds.), *A Sense of Audience in Written Communication*, (pp. 231-245). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

McCarthey, S. J., & García, G. E. (2005). English language learners' writing practices and attitudes. *Written Communication, 22*, 36-75.

New Oriental Education & Technology Group (2007, October). Overview [online]: http://english.neworiental.org/Portal59/default.htm

Purves, A. C. (1988). *Writing across languages and cultures: Issues in contrastive rhetoric.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ramanathan, V., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). Audience and voice in current L1 composition texts: Some implications for ESL student writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 5*(1), 21-34.

Randolph, T. L. (2001). Using folktales to promote fluency among adult EFL students in China. *TESOL Journal, 10*(1), 7-13.

Silva, T. (1993). Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications. *TESOL Quarterly, 27*, 657–677.

Wang, W., & Wen, Q. (2002). L1 use in the L2 composing process: An exploratory study of 16 Chinese EFL writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 11*, 3, 225-246.

You, X. (2002). Battling with exams: EFL writing in Chinese high schools. Paper presented at Indiana TESOL Conference, Indianapolis.

You, X. (2010). *Writing in the Devil's Tongue: A History of English Composition in China*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Appendix

Please fill out of the questionnaire.

Name _____
Age _____
Gender _____
Country of birth _____
Native language _____
Years of Learning English _____

1. Do you read English materials outside of the classes such as newspaper, magazines and books?

2. How much do you think the following factors influence your English writing?

   1) Chinese writing

      1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often

   2) English writing written by Chinese speakers

      1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often

   3) English writing written by native-English speakers

      1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often

3. How often do you think the following persons are your readers when you write in English?

   1) English-speaking Friends

      1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often

   2) Chinese-speaking Friends

      1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often

   3) English-speaking Teachers

1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often

4) Chinese-speaking Teachers

1 = never; 2 = not very often; 3 = not sure; 4 = somewhat often; 5 = very often