

ATTITUDES OF LEARNERS TOWARD ENGLISH:  
A CASE OF CHINESE COLLEGE STUDENTS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy  
in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

Yang Yu, M.A.

Graduate Program in Education

The Ohio State University

2010

Dissertation Committee:

Professor Keiko K. Samimy, Advisor

Professor Larry E. Miller

Professor Alan R. Hirvela

Copyright by

Yang Yu

2010

## Abstract

Along with the global spread of English and the wide recognition of World Englishes, a whole breadth of studies have been conducted to explore the attitudes of learners toward different varieties of English. In China, however, only two pioneering studies have examined this issue. To address this gap, this study investigated the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English.

By adopting the notion of World Englishes (WE) and English as an International Language (EIL) as the theoretical framework, this study has explored the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English, different varieties of English, and “China English.” The study has also investigated their attitudes toward the current English education policies and practices in China and their purposes for learning English. Furthermore, the attitudes of Chinese college students have been examined in relation to the factors that are likely to explain their attitudes, namely, gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, experience with native English-speaking teachers and friends who are native English speakers, English knowledge of parents, and international experience.

This study adopted the concurrent embedded strategy of mixed methods design. In this approach, quantitative data from questionnaires of 398 respondents and qualitative data from interviews of 20 students were collected in the same visit to the

field. The secondary qualitative data were embedded within the predominant quantitative data to provide a supporting role in explaining and expanding the questionnaire results.

The study found that Chinese college students have positive attitudes toward the English language and “China English.” They are aware of different varieties of English and the majority of them consider nativization of English in China as a manifestation of Chinese culture. Regarding the English education policies and practices in China, attitudes of participants are complex. On the one hand, the students acknowledged that the Chinese government has attached much importance to English education; while on the other hand, they revealed concerns about this “utilitarian type of education,” since most of the students focus solely on obtaining high scores on English exams. In addition, they expressed dissatisfaction with the current college English instruction and stated that developing and maintaining students’ interests in English and building up strong communication skills should be the main goals of English education in China. Results have also shown that the longer students have studied English, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes toward English. Their experience with native English-speaking teachers and their majors also explain their positive attitudes toward English.

Several implications for Chinese college English instruction and policy-making in English education in China have emerged from the study. Possible directions for future research are also discussed.

## Dedication

To the memory of my grandfather

To my mom

To my husband

## Acknowledgments

Neither this dissertation nor my graduate work would have been completed without support and guidance from professors I was fortunate enough to meet. I wish to thank my dissertation committee members, Dr. Keiko Samimy, Dr. Larry Miller, and Dr. Alan Hirvela.

First, my gratitude goes to my advisor and mentor Dr. Keiko Samimy. I appreciate her enthusiasm in helping students and her expertise in World Englishes. It was her graduate seminar where I got many ideas for this dissertation. I am deeply grateful to her for guiding me through this research process and for the countless hours she spent answering my questions and editing my drafts. I am also grateful to Dr. Larry Miller for his valuable guidance on research design and data analysis. His knowledge, encouragements and support were invaluable resources to me. I have appreciated the many conversations we had, and his consistently warm and kind demeanor. I also wish to thank Dr. Alan Hirvela for not only insightful feedback on the earlier drafts but also his guidance and support throughout my dissertation work. I especially appreciate his helpful suggestions and input throughout my graduate studies.

In addition, I owe a great gratitude to the students who participated in this study and teachers who assisted in data collection. Without their cooperation and assistance, my dissertation would not have been possible. I am also thankful to my classmate and friend

Zhang Yunyan who helped me revise the data collection instruments and verify the translations.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family. My mother, Wang Bing, is largely responsible for who I am today, and I am grateful for it. She has been the strongest motivation for me to pursue my degree. I especially appreciate her for supporting everything I have done in my life and encouraging me to pursue what I believe in. I am also thankful to my husband, Niu Liang, for sharing my highs and lows through his love and care. Without the support from my family members, I would not have finished my PhD study at the Ohio State University.

## Vita

2004.....B.A. English Language and Literature,  
Beijing Language and Culture University, Beijing, China

2006.....M.A. Foreign and Second Language Education,  
The Ohio State University

2006 to present.....Graduate Administrative Associate,  
The Ohio State University

## Fields of Study

Major Field: Education

Foreign and Second Language Education (TESOL)



## Table of Contents

Abstract .....	ii
Dedication .....	iv
Acknowledgments.....	v
Vita.....	vii
Table of Contents .....	viii
List of Tables .....	xiii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Statement of Problem .....	6
1.2 Purpose of the Study .....	10
1.3 Significance of the Study .....	11
1.4 Research Questions .....	13
1.5 Definition of Terms .....	13
1.6 Assumptions of the Study .....	16
1.7 Limitations of the Study .....	17
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	18

2.1 WE, EIL, and ELF.....	18
2.1.1 Description of ELF .....	21
2.1.2 Pedagogical Issues of ELF .....	24
2.1.3 Intelligibility Issues of ELF .....	26
2.1.4 Attitudes of Teachers toward ELF and NNESTs Issues in Teacher Education	30
2.1.5 Impact of ELF on English Language Assessment.....	35
2.1.6 Summary.....	38
2.2 English Education in China and “China English” .....	39
2.2.1 English Education in China .....	40
2.2.2 “China English” and Attitudes of Chinese Learners toward English .....	43
2.3 Attitudes of Learners in SLA Research.....	48
2.3.1 Attitudes of Learners toward World Englishes .....	50
2.3.2 Attitudes of Learners toward Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers .....	52
2.4 Summary .....	55
2.4.1 Importance of Participants Characteristics .....	56
CHAPTER 3: METHODS .....	58
3.1 Research Design.....	58
3.2 Quantitative Data: Questionnaire .....	60
3.2.1 Population and Sampling.....	61

3.2.2 Instrumentation .....	62
3.2.3 Data Collection .....	69
3.2.4 Data Analysis.....	70
3.3 Qualitative Data: Interviews.....	73
3.3.1 Interview Participants .....	73
3.3.2 Instruments .....	74
3.3.3 Data Analysis.....	75
3.3.4 Trustworthiness .....	75
3.4 Summary .....	78
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS .....	80
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants .....	80
4.1.1 Questionnaire Results .....	81
4.1.2 Interview Results .....	84
4.2 Attitudes of Learners toward English.....	85
4.2.1 Questionnaire Results .....	85
4.2.2 Interview Results .....	91
4.3 Attitudes of Learners toward the Current English Education Policies.....	99
4.3.1 Questionnaire Results .....	99
4.3.2 Interview Results .....	104

4.4 Attitudes of Learners toward the Purposes for Learning English .....	110
4.4.1 Questionnaire Results .....	110
4.4.2 Interview Results .....	113
4.5 Relationship between Demographic Characteristics and Attitudes of Participants .....	115
4.5.1 Questionnaire Results .....	115
4.5.2 Interview Results .....	124
4.6 Summary .....	128
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS.....	130
5.1 Summary of Findings and Discussion.....	130
5.1.1 Attitudes toward English in the World .....	132
5.1.2 Attitudes toward “China English” .....	137
5.2 Contributions of the Study .....	140
5.3 Implications of the Study .....	143
5.4 Recommendations for Future Studies .....	147
REFERENCES .....	152
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION) .....	162
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE (CHINESE VERSION).....	171
APPENDIX C: STUDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE .....	178

APPENDIX D: PANEL OF EXPERTS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE .....	179
APPENDIX E: PANEL OF EXPERTS FOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.....	180

## List of Tables

Table 1: Magnitude of Correlation (Davis, 1971) .....	72
Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Age, Starting age for learning English, and Years Spent in English Learning .....	82
Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of Gender, Grade in College, College Major, Experience with Native English-speaking teachers, English Knowledge of Parents, Experience with Friends of Native-English-Speakers, and International Experience .....	83
Table 4: Background Information of Interview Participants .....	85
Table 5: Attitudes toward English .....	87
Table 6: Attitudes toward the Current English Education Policies .....	100
Table 7: Definition of a Good English Teacher .....	108
Table 8: Attitudes toward the Purposes for Learning English .....	111
Table 9: Association between Demographic Characteristics and Attitudes of Learners	117
Table 10: Independent Group t-tests between Dichotomous Nominal Variables and the Dependent Variables. ....	120
Table 11: ANOVA of Attitudes of Learners by Grade in College .....	122
Table 12: Tukey's HSD Test for the Effects of Grade in College on Attitudes toward English .....	122

Table 13: Tukey’s HSD Test for the Effects of Grade in College on Attitudes toward English Education Policies .....	123
Table 14: ANOVA of Attitudes of Learners by Starting Age for Learning English .....	124
Table 15: Summary of Studies on Attitudes of Learners toward English .....	133
Table 16: Comparison between Results of Four Questionnaire Items in Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), He and Li (2009), and the Present Study.....	138

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

At many Shanghai schools, Wednesday is English day. Dormitories wake up to broadcasts of recorded English news and stories. All day, students make their own radio shows, study math, search the Internet, and watch movies – in English. They sing Back Street Boys and Jennifer Lopez songs in class, and view “Sesame Street” after school on Shanghai TV ... In addition to English day in schools, they’ve passed out English tapes and books to other sectors of society likely to encounter English-speaking visitors, such as taxi-drivers. (Johnson, 2001, p. 7)

The above news article reporting on the “English days” being held in schools in Shanghai vividly represents the “English fever” that is currently taking place in China. Along with the emergence of English as a global language, the popularity of English is spreading rapidly throughout the country. Scholars have reported that China has the largest English-learning population in the world (Bolton & Tong, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Deterding, 2005; Jenkins, 2007; Ng & Tang, 2000). An army of teachers is “currently teaching English to more than 600,000,000 Chinese at any given moment, twice the population of the United States of America” (Niu & Wolff, 2004, p. 2). In fact, the learning of English in China has a long history and now occupies the attention of millions



of its people. The progress of English language education in China in the last twenty years is due largely to the strong and growing conviction of the Chinese government that English competence and computer skills are a must for the younger generations in the twenty-first century. After China's entry to the World Trade Organization (WTO) and Beijing' hosting of the 2008 Summer Olympic Games, increasing contact with foreign countries has required more knowledge of foreign languages, especially English. As Feng (2002) states: "English is becoming the world language and there is an increasing focus on teaching English at all levels in China" (p.123).

The widespread use of English has had significant influence on language policy-making and practices concerning English education in China, as well as in countries in the East Asian region (Adamson & Morris, 1997; Butler, 2004; Lam, 2005; Nunan, 2003). In China, English has been the dominant foreign language in the curricula of educational institutions for more than two decades. Since September 2001, English has been introduced as a compulsory subject at Grade 3 in almost all elementary schools (Hu, 2008), so that the English learning process now extends through primary school, junior high, senior high, and university, covering a total span of 14 to 16 years. Also, as of September 2001, all colleges and universities under the control of the Ministry of Education were instructed to use English as the main teaching language in courses such as information technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and law (Nunan, 2003, p. 595). Therefore, English learning has become a *de facto* requirement through the nationwide college curriculum. The content-based English instruction (CBEI) labeled by Chinese foreign language educators as "bilingual education" was first introduced in

Shanghai and subsequently adopted in many other economically developed regions. CBEI consists of using English as an additional language of instruction for several school subjects, such as mathematics, physics, and computer science (Hu, 2005). In recent years, hundreds of schools in economically developed coastal and urban areas have jumped on the bilingual education bandwagon. Content-based English instruction has several potential advantages over traditional English language teaching in raising the English proficiency of learners (Wesche & Skehan, 2002). However, the potential advantages can be reaped only when necessary conditions exist, such as a perceived need for English as a medium of instruction, a threshold level of learner proficiency in the medium language, professionally trained teachers, and well-designed learning materials. Therefore, “the mainland (China) educational authorities could be well advised to review the policy on CBEI and to exercise great caution in its promotion” (Hu, 2005, p. 19).

Besides research on English education policies in China, scholars have carried out studies on Chinese English learners that explore different variables associated with their language learning, such as motivation (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Gao, Zhao, Cheng & Zhou, 2007), unwillingness to communicate (Liu & Jackson, 2008), language attitudes (He & Li, 2009; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002), investment and identity (Gu, 2008; Trent, 2008), and learning strategies (Chen, 2007; Gan, 2004). Among these, studies on attitudes of language learners have emerged as a new area to explore because of their significant importance. Attitudes of language learners are some of the indicators that affect language policy and language learning (Snow, 2007; Young, 2006). “Learners’ positive attitudes may lead to increased motivation, which, in turn, may lead to successful

attainment of proficiency due to increased input and interaction” (Young, 2006, p. 480). Therefore, studies on attitudes of language learners are of crucial importance for both language education researchers and language policy makers.

In fact, some studies have been conducted to investigate attitudes of learners toward the English language in different parts of the world (e.g. Butler, 2007; Deterding, 2005; Friedrich, 2000; Matsuda, 2000; Riney & Inutsuka, 2005; Scales, Wennerstrom, Richard & Wu, 2006; Timmis, 2002). The overall findings have shown that learners have positive attitudes toward the Standard English, which refers to English spoken in the English speaking countries; whereas, they have negative attitudes toward other varieties of English. Thus far, however, few studies have explored the attitudes of English learners in mainland China, where students have immense investment in English language learning. A pioneering study conducted by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) examined the attitudes of 171 university students in Beijing toward standards and varieties of both Chinese and English. The researchers indicated that these students were open to the idea of the existence of several varieties of English. In a most recent study, He and Li (2009) investigated the attitudes of both Chinese teachers and learners toward “China English”—a nativized variety of English used in China (p. 70). The results demonstrated that these participants were optimistic (60.5 percent) about the emergency of “China English.” He and Li (2009) concluded that, “the attitudes of mainland Chinese learners and teachers of English seem to be shifting toward accepting ‘China English’ as a legitimate, indigenized variety” (p. 86). Thus far, only two articles in the international journal *World Englishes* have addressed the issue of attitudes of learners toward English

in China. Clearly, a gap exists between the large number of learners and the research carried out to study these learners.

Despite the fact that English continues to grow in importance as a required school subject throughout China, attitudes of learners toward the language vary. Zhao and Campbell (1995), for example, have reported that many Chinese students resent having to learn English, and they do so only because of its importance for educational achievement. The students are learning English “purely because they have to” (p. 383). The researchers also claimed that “most Chinese learners of English are not learning English for international communication but for social and economic mobility” (p. 385). The study is dated, but no recent studies seem have been conducted to examine the purposes of Chinese students for learning English. The previous studies only indicated that because of the conviction of Chinese government that proficiency in English is an essential component of quality education, a great deal of policy attention has been given to the English language education. However, the voices of students have not been examined. Virtually no attempts have been made to investigate the attitudes of Chinese learners toward the English education policies and to identify the purpose for the Chinese to learn English from the perspective of learners. As Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) have pointed out, the crucial question remains why the Chinese are learning English (p. 277).

Considering the above concern, the study investigates the attitudes of Chinese college students toward the English language and English education policies in China and examines their purposes for learning English. Furthermore, this study explores the factors that may influence their attitudes, such as gender, college major, starting age for learning

English, and exposure to different varieties of English. This study employed a mixed-method design, with questionnaires and interviews, to converge both quantitative and qualitative data. Participants were recruited from students in four universities across different disciplines in Wuhan, which is a major city in the central part of China. By employing both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview) approaches for data collection, this study aims to achieve a better understanding of the nature of their attitudes and what factors may explain their attitudes.

### 1.1 Statement of Problem

As one of the most influential languages, English has remarkably achieved the status of a worldwide *lingua franca* through globalization. Kachru (1985) proposed the Concentric Circle Model which includes the inner, outer, and expanding circles, providing a fundamental framework to discuss the spread of English. Similarly, Crystal (1997) discussed how English has become a “global language” since the twentieth century. By reviewing the historical and global development of English, Crystal has suggested that English will become more influenced by non-native speakers, because they have outnumbered native speakers of English. Hence, as Widdowson (1994) asserts, English now belongs not only to its Native Speakers (NSs), but also to Non-Native Speakers (NNSs).

Along with the global spread of English and the wide recognition of World Englishes, a whole breadth of studies have been conducted to examine the attitudes of learners toward different varieties of English. Based on the Concentric Circle Model

proposed by Kachru (1985), Matsuda (2000) examined the attitudes of Japanese students toward the English Language. This study was conducted in a private senior high school in Tokyo over two and one-half months. In the first stage, 33 students aged 17 or 18 were recruited for a questionnaire with 44 Likert scale items to identify their general attitudes toward English. Secondly, 10 students were selected for in-depth interviews. In addition, Matsuda conducted classroom observation of 36 hours, and interviewed four teachers to examine the possible influence they had on the attitudes of students. The researcher found that the participants showed positive attitudes toward English, especially American English while they had negative attitudes toward the Japanese variety of English. In other words, the attitudes of these students toward English were “Inner-Circle” bound. Even though they perceived English as an international language, since it was being used internationally, they did not share the view that English belonged to the international community. In a similar study, Friedrich (2000) conducted a survey with 190 adult Brazilian learners of English to examine their attitudes toward English and English learning. The main issue that emerged from this study is that all the participants recognized the status of English as an international language and expressed desire to be included in the global society where English serves as the communication tool. However, they recognized only two varieties of English, American and British English. In other words, the participants were not aware of the existence of other varieties of English. As Friedrich (2000) concluded in her article, “to understand the use of English in the Expanding Circle and, indeed, all over the world, researchers need to examine learners’

and users' attitudes toward the language" (p. 222). Therefore, the study intends to explore the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English.

In China, a pioneering study conducted by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) examined the attitudes of 171 students from one university in Beijing toward standards and varieties of both Chinese and English. Eighty-eight of these students were English majors; and the remaining were engineering majors. The questionnaire listed 14 statements and students were asked to respond using a five-point scale to represent the level of their agreement to the statement. The results indicated that these students were aware of that several varieties of English exist in the world. However, the majority felt it was unlikely to have a Chinese variety of English and they did not want to sound like Chinese when they spoke English, and this finding was particularly true of the female students. This study with a sample of 171 students across only two disciplines and one university could not claim any generalizability for its findings. A study with a larger sample employing a mixed method design would provide more in-depth understanding about the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English.

In a most recent study, He and Li (2009) investigated the attitudes of both teachers and learners toward "China English"—a nativized variety of English used in China (p. 70). Consonant with the study of Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), the majority of participants in this study preferred native-speaking based model of English (American and British English) as the teaching model. Approximately 75% of the participants considered that American and British English are the major varieties of English and 82% of them preferred to sound like a native speaker; whereas only 25% of them wanted to maintain

their self-identity with a Chinese accent while speaking English. This study has a larger sample of 1,030 participants (820 students and 210 teachers) across four disciplines and four regions in China. However, the researchers mainly focused on the pedagogical possibility of “China English” through the comparison of students preferred pedagogic models of English in China—“China English” as opposed to a native-speaker-based standard (p. 70). As Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) stated that “China English” is not yet socially acceptable, He and Li (2009) could be premature in launching a discussion of pedagogic model(s) for “China English.” These studies offer some insights into English learning in China, however, they lack in explaining why the participants hold certain attitudes, either positive or negative, toward the English language and “China English.” Since both of these two studies are pioneering in the newly-emerged research field, more research is needed to expand their findings through investigation of factors that may explain the attitudes of language learners in order to provide a deeper understanding of Chinese English learners.

To address this gap, the study examines the attitudes of Chinese learners of English, investigates their awareness of different varieties of English, especially “China English,” and explores the factors that may explain why their attitudes vary. In addition, due to the lack of extensive study to investigate why the Chinese learn English and how they perceive the English education policies, the study also examines the purposes for which Chinese college students learn English and their perceptions of the English education policies in China. The college students were chosen in the studies of Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) and He and Li (2009) because university students are a stable and valid group of



people to study due to their active engagement with school, society, and career preparation. This study also focuses on college students, for possible comparison of results with the previous studies.

## 1.2 Purpose of the Study

The objectives of this study are: 1) to investigate attitudes of Chinese college students toward the English language and their awareness of the diversity of English; 2) to examine their attitudes toward the current English education policies and practices in China; 3) to explore their purposes for learning English; and 4) to study the factors that may affect their different attitudes (e.g., teachers, parents, peers, and international experience). In this study, questionnaires were used to gather data to examine the attitudes of participating students. In addition, interviews with selected participants were also conducted to have more in-depth understanding of their attitudes.

In order to achieve these objectives, this study employed a “concurrent mixed methods design” in which the quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2009, p. 14). First, questionnaires were distributed to college students in four public universities in Wuhan, a major city in central China. These four universities were chosen because the researcher has personal contacts who could help for data collection there. Given the fact that few studies have addressed attitudes of Chinese learners toward English, this study recruited students from different majors, across both science and arts, and from different level of years in these four universities in order to provide a general

understanding of English learners in Wuhan, China. Specifically, a sample of 385 students is calculated using Cochran's formula (1977), with a confidence level of 95% and risk level of 5%. Second, 20 interviewees were selected from the survey respondents who volunteered to be interviewed, in order to capture deeper insights that may not be easily gained from the questionnaire responses, as well as to help better understand and explain the quantitative results gained from the questionnaire. Interview questions included English learning experiences of the students, their purposes for learning English and expectation for future use of English, and their attitudes toward English and English education policies in China.

### 1.3 Significance of the Study

This study should be of interest to a diverse array of researchers focusing on World Englishes, affective variables of Second Language (L2) learners, English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in China, and English education policies and practices in China.

First, although the Chinese government strongly encourages its citizens to learn English, the voices of students have not been examined. By providing insights into attitudes of Chinese learners toward the English language, English education policies, and their purposes for learning English, this study contributes to an understanding of English learning and teaching in China and adds to the growing body of studies on the spread of English in expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1985). Furthermore, this study aims to offer insights for language attitude research and studies on affective variables of L2 learners in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context.

Second, this study examined the relationship between attitudes of learners and other factors related to their language learning experience. Thus, the study provides a more comprehensive picture of attitudes of Chinese learners toward English language learning in terms of possible variables affecting the construction of their attitudes. As discussed earlier, attitudes of language learners may affect their language learning proficiency and the successful implementation of language education policies (Snow, 2007; Young, 2006). In this regard, the findings are valuable for English education policies makers and administrators, as well as language teachers in China, by illuminating different affective variables involved in the language learning of Chinese students.

Last, this study is significant with respect to its mixed research methods. Although questionnaires are widely used in survey research, the information is limited that the researcher(s) can know from questionnaire items. Furthermore, as Matsuda (2000) indicated, “in questionnaire studies, each respondents’ experiences are lost as they are reduced to numbers” (p. 16). Interviews provide an effective way to gather information about why learners have certain attitudes, which could be complementary to questionnaire data. Sakui and Gaies (1999) stated that “well-conducted interviews allow learners to reveal beliefs which are not addressed in the questionnaire and to describe the reasons, sources, behavioral outcomes, and other dimensions of their beliefs.” (p. 486) In addition, since attitudes are such a complex construct to explore, qualitative data contributes to contextualizing the quantitative findings, which could pave the way for a deeper understanding of attitudes of learners and how their attitudes are formed. By incorporating an in-depth description through qualitative analysis, the study attempts to

shed light on a variety of English learning experiences, and to provide insights not available from existing studies.

#### 1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions guide this study:

1. What are the characteristics of the Chinese college students who participated in this study?
2. What are the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English?
3. What are their attitudes toward the current English education policies of national government in China?
4. What are their attitudes toward the purposes for which Chinese college students learn English?
5. What factors may explain the variability of their attitudes, such as gender, age, grade, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience?

#### 1.5 Definition of Terms

**Attitudes:** In this study, attitudes are defined as “a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behavior” (Baker, 1992, p.10). Matsuda (2000) adopted the definition of Baker (1992) and interpreted the construct with three components: cognitive, affective, and conative (readiness for action). With regard to language attitudes, she explained that the cognitive component refers to the thoughts,

beliefs, and values about the language of learners; the affective component concerns their feelings toward the language; and the conative component refers to a behavioral intention of the plan of action (pp. 28-30).

In the first domain of the questionnaire, items 1 to 6 are examining attitudes of respondents toward English in general; items 7 to 13 are exploring their awareness of different varieties of English; and items 14 to 18 are investigating their attitudes toward “China English.” The second domain consisting of items 19 to 36 is designed for examining attitudes of respondents toward English education policies in China. And the last domain of items 37 to 46 is for studying their purposes for learning English.

The operational definition of attitudes of learners in this study indicates the self-reported summated score on a 6-point Likert scale (interval data).

**China English:** Wang (1991) first defined “China English” as the English used by Chinese people in China, being based on Standard English and having Chinese characteristics (p. 3). Li (1993) redefined “China English” as a variety with “normative English” as its core, but with Chinese characteristics at the levels of lexis, syntax and discourse; it is free from cross-linguistic influence from the Chinese language, and is employed to express content ideas specific to Chinese culture by means of translation, borrowing, and semantic transfer (p. 19). Furthermore, He and Li (2009) have summarized several salient linguistic features of “China English” focusing on four levels: phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse pragmatics (see Chapter 2 pp.44-45 for discussion).

The operational definition of “China English” in this study is that “China English” is understood as a standardizing or standardized English variety used in China, which reflects Chinese cultural norms and concepts.

**Characteristics:** a feature that helps to identify, tell apart, or describe recognizably; a distinguishing mark or trait. The operational definitions of these characteristics are listed as the following:

- 1) Gender: This characteristic refers to the self-reported sex of students, male or female (nominal data).
- 2) Age: This characteristic refers to the self-reported age of students (ratio data).
- 3) Grade in college: This characteristic refers to the self-reported grade of students in college, freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior (ordinal data).
- 4) College major: This characteristic refers to the self-reported area of academic study in which a student specializes (nominal data).
- 5) Starting age for learning English: This characteristic refers to the self-reported age of students when they started learning English (ratio data).
- 6) Total years of studying English: This characteristic refers to the self-reported total number of years of students as English learners (ratio data).
- 7) Knowledge of parents concerning the English language: This characteristic refers to the condition that a student self-reports as YES or NO, with regard to whether his/her mother or father knows English (nominal data).

- 8) Experience with native English speaking teachers: This characteristic refers to the condition that a student self-reports as YES or NO, with regard to whether he/she had learning experience with native English speaking teacher(s) (nominal data).
- 9) Experience with peers who are native speakers of English: This characteristic refers to the condition that a student self-reports as YES or NO, with regard to whether he/she had friend(s) whose mother tongue is English (nominal data).
- 10) International experience: This characteristic refers to the condition that a student self-reports as YES or NO, with regard to whether he/she has spent time in an English-speaking country (nominal data).

### 1.6 Assumptions of the Study

The basic assumption of this study is the global spread of English based on the Concentric Circle Model proposed by Kachru (1985), and adapted by Berns (1995). In this model, countries or regions are divided into three groups: the inner circle, where people speak English as their first or native language (ENL); outer circle, where people speak English as the second or additional language (ESL); and expanding circle, where people speak English as a foreign language (EFL). In the study, China is positioned in the expanding circle, where English was introduced as a foreign language. As an internationally used language, English no longer belongs to the native speakers in the inner circle countries such as the U.K. and the U.S., but to all who speak it.

This study also assumes that attitudes of learners can be measured. The designed questionnaire and subsequent interviews are valid measurements and, therefore, can

adequately measure the attitudes of the participants toward the English language. With regard to the methodology, the researcher assumes that the qualitative data gathered from the interviews is of crucial importance to contextualize and triangulate the quantitative data from the questionnaire responses.

### 1.7 Limitations of the Study

There are two limitations for this study which can be speculated as follows:

1. Generalization of the survey results beyond the participants should always be made with extreme caution. This study provides some general information about attitudes of college students toward English in Wuhan, China. However, due to the large geography and unbalanced development within China, the participants can not represent all the Chinese college students. Especially, the students involved in the interviews were on a voluntary basis, the results are not generalizable beyond the participants. In addition, since the sample was not randomly selected, the possibility of sampling error, selection error, and frame error exists in this study.
2. Another limitation of this study is that it does not capture any change in attitudes. Attitudes, in nature, are not static but change (Baker, 1992). However, due to the limited time for data collection, this study can only describe the attitudes of participants within a specified time frame. Therefore, future longitudinal studies on attitudes change of students could definitely enhance the understanding of attitudes of Chinese learners toward the language of English.



## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to explore the attitudes of Chinese college students toward the English language. Therefore, the theoretical framework guiding this study consists of three parts: 1) the discourse of World Englishes (WE), the proposition of English as an International Language (EIL), and research on English as a *lingua franca* (ELF), 2) introduction of English education in China and studies on attitudes of Chinese learners toward English, and 3) review of literature on attitudes of learners in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research.

#### 2.1 WE, EIL, and ELF

The status of English as an international language has been acknowledged for several decades (Brown, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Kachru, 1992; Widdowson, 1994). In fact, prominent scholars (e.g., Crystal 1997; Jenkins, 2000; Matsuda, 2000; McKay, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2001) have used different terms, such as “World Englishes,” “English as a global language,” “English as an international language,” and “English as a *lingua franca*” to describe the unique status of English in the world. A brief definition for each term is provided as follows:

**World Englishes (WEs):** Historically, the discourse of World Englishes has developed with the Outer Circle as its focus (Kachi, 2004, p. 62). However, in the past decade, the Expanding Circle has been recognized as a significant component of English users for international communication. Bolton (2004) has pointed out that there are three possible interpretations of the expression “World Englishes.” Firstly, it serves as an “umbrella label” covering all varieties of English worldwide and the different approaches used to describe and analyze them. Secondly, it is used in a narrower sense to refer to the so-called new Englishes in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean (Kachru’s outer circle). Thirdly, it is used to represent the pluricentric approach to the study of English associated with Kachru and his colleagues, and often referred to as the Kachruvian approach (as cited in Jenkins, 2006a, p. 159).

**English as an International Language (EIL):** It addresses English in fundamental ways, such as “for the extent of its diffusion geographically; for the enormous cultural diversity of speakers who use it; and for the infinitely varied domains in which it is found and purpose it serves” (Dewey, 2007, p. 333). Matsuda (2000) argues that “English as an international language is not one variety of English ... but is an umbrella term for different types of English which are used for the purpose of international communication” (p. 25). From this point of view, the notion of English as an International Language implies that most students study English not to interact with Native-English-Speakers (NESs), but to access information in English and to interact with other Non-Native-English-Speakers (NNEs). In other words, this term refers to the

global use of English for communication and sharing of information among people of two or more languages, regardless they are native speakers or not.

**English as a *lingua franca* (ELF):** The term *lingua franca* usually means “any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language” (Samarin, 1987, p. 371). Mauranen (2003) has provided a similar definition for *lingua franca* as “a vehicular language spoken by people who do not share a native language” (p. 513). Therefore, English as a *lingua franca* (ELF) refers to “communication in English between speakers with different first languages” (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 339). Furthermore, Jenkins (2007) argued that ELF is a new terminology which is quite different from ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language), since “Unlike ESL varieties, it is not primarily a local or contact language within national groups but between them. And unlike EFL ...it is not primarily a language of communication between its NSs and NNSs, but among its NNSs.” (p. 4)

Kachru (1986) proposed to attach more importance to Outer Circle countries by claiming that Outer Circle English varieties should be treated in their own right, rather than on the basis of native varieties of English, such as American and British English. This line of inquiry on the Outer Circle English varieties is generally called World Englishes points of view (Kachi, 2004). Apparently, the Expanding Circle English varieties were ignored, since the initial and fundamental discussion of World Englishes gave more weight to the Outer Circle countries.

At the same time, the proposition of English as an International Language (EIL) requires the expansion of the speech community of English beyond the Inner and Outer

Circles. With the growing popularity of EIL and ELF, the importance of investigating English use in Expanding Circle countries and its contribution to the internationalization of English has been taken up in recent research. Yano (2001) argues that the Expanding Circle English varieties are not merely a component of EIL, but potentially the most informative among all three concentric circles for the investigation of EIL. Seidlhofer (2001) states that English should be considered as a *lingua franca* (ELF) when it is used for international communication. To fulfill the quest for a systematic investigation on English as an International Language (EIL), English as a *lingua franca* (ELF) research has emerged as the most impressive development. Jenkins (2004) states the position of “English as a Lingual Franca” (ELF), by proposing the “Lingual Franca Core” (LFC) which refers to her previous work on the “Phonology of English as an International Language” (2000). In addition, ELF corpora are being compiled and analyzed, such as English as a *lingua franca* in Academic settings (ELFA) corpus (Mauranen, 2003), and Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) conducted by Seidlhofer (2004). In the following review of literature, different perspectives of ELF research are discussed respectively.

### *2.1.1 Description of ELF*

Responding to the global rise of English and the move toward teaching English as a *lingua franca* (ELF), English educators and professionals have worked out some key research projects, such as Jenkins (2000) on phonology matters, McKay (2002) on pedagogical issues, and Seidlhofer (2004) at the level of lexicogrammar. Seidlhofer

(2001) made a strong case calling for systematic empirical research to bridge the ‘conceptual gap’ in the description of ELF. The researcher suggested that the absence of sufficient linguistic description for teaching English as a *lingua franca* made it difficult to resist the native-speaker norms in pedagogy. Seidlhofer further proposed a research agenda to remedy this situation with a corpus project as the first step to constitute the description of ELF.

As a starting point, Jenkins (2000) draw empirical data from interactions between L2 speakers of English in order to describe the phonological features of ELF, which, she termed as the phonological *lingua franca* Core (LFC). Through succinct and lucid analysis, she identified pronunciation “errors” that may lead to intelligibility problems for different L1 interlocutors, and then incorporated them into the LFC. The following are core areas identified:

1. The consonant inventory with the exception of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, and of dark ‘l’, none of which caused any intelligibility problems in the *lingua franca* data.
2. Additional phonetic requirements: aspiration of word-initial voiceless stops /p/, /t/, and /k/, which were otherwise frequently heard as their lenis counterparts /b/, /d/, and /g/; and shortening of vowel sounds before fortis consonants, and the maintenance of length before lenis consonants, e.g., the shorter /æ/ in the word *sat* as contrasted with the phonetically longer /æ/ in the word *sad*.
3. Consonant clusters: no omission of sounds in word-initial clusters, e.g. in proper and strap; omission of sounds in word-medial and word-final clusters only permissible according to L1 English rules of syllable structure.
4. Vowel sounds: maintenance of the contrast between long and short vowels, such as the /i/ and /i:/ in the words *live* and *leave*.
5. Production and placement of nuclear (tonic) stress, especially when used contrastively (e.g., He came by TRAIN vs. He CAME by train). (as cited in Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 216)

Seidlhofer (2004) has focused so far on ELF lexicogrammar, presumably because of its importance to language pedagogy. The objective of her research is to find out regular

“errors” that are used systematically and frequently, but without causing communication problems. The following are some of the potential salient features of ELF lexicogrammar that Seidlhofer has identified in the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE):

1. Dropping the third person present tense –s
2. Confusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which*
3. Omitting definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL (English Native Language), and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL
4. Failing to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn't it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn't they?*)
5. Inserting redundant prepositions, as in *We have to study about...*
6. Overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*
7. Replacing infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses, as in *I want that*
8. Overdoing explicitness (e.g. *black color* rather than just *black*) (p. 220)

Another corpus-based research to describe ELF as a language form is the work of Mauranen (2003) on The Corpus of English as *lingua franca* in Academic Settings. This project was carried out at the English department of Tampere University, Finland, aiming to explore one variety of *lingua franca* English, namely, English as a *lingua franca* in Academic Settings (ELFA). In fact, the researchers were compiling a corpus of spoken academic English (0.5 million words) recorded in international degree programs and other university activities which were regularly carried out in English. Students and faculty in these programs were from a variety of countries, mostly European. Preliminary findings revealed that this corpus fit well with the existing U.S. corpora of academic English and with other ELF corpus, like VOICE by Seidlhofer. Mauranen further indicates that, “The two ELF corpora will complement each other while leaving room for corpora covering other domains of global English.” (p. 524)

Admittedly, these corpuses may need to be modified in light of more data, given the fact that no comprehensive and reliable descriptions of salient features of ELF are available so far. However, it should be recognized that the linguistic descriptions contribute to the establishment of international standards for the use of English and these standards will guide the practical applications of teaching English a global language (Mauranen, 2003, p. 525). Another equally important concern is that linguistic descriptions alone are not sufficient for pedagogical application of ELF; instead, the local teaching context and teaching methods should be also taken into consideration.

### *2.1.2 Pedagogical Issues of ELF*

McKay (2002), in her book *Teaching English as an International Language: Rethinking Goals and Approaches*, firstly proposed the pedagogical issues concerning EIL (English as an International Language) on the theoretical levels. This book starts with a reviewing of the history and future of English as an International Language. Taking the English use in India for example, McKay found that attitudes of Indian people toward the native speaker model are changing, with a tendency to reject the British Received Pronunciation accent as socially unacceptable. By examining a variety of factors, such as the characteristics of current users of EIL and the relationship between culture and an international language, McKay suggested that classroom aims and teaching methods should be based on the requirements of an international language. Thus McKay argued for the development of “a comprehensive theory of teaching and learning English as an international language” (p. 125). Important components of this theory, as

Seidlhofer (2004) explained, are considerations of the cross-cultural nature of the use of English, the questioning of native-speaker models, and the recognition of the equality of the varieties of English that have resulted from the global spread of the language (p. 225).

With regard to the teaching goals and approaches, McKay (2002) has identified the following criteria:

Goals:

1. Ensuring intelligibility rather than insisting on correctness
2. Helping learners develop interaction strategies that will promote comity (friendly relations)
3. Fostering textual competence (reading and writing skills for learner-selected purposes)

Approaches:

1. Sensitivity in the choice of cultural content in materials
2. Reflexivity in pedagogical procedures
3. Respect for the local culture of learning (as cited in Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 226)

Matsuda (2003) raised the same concern that “The international scope of learners’ English learning agenda should logically be matched by pedagogical approaches that teach English as an international language (EIL), in part through inclusion of varieties of World Englishes.” (p. 719) She argued that an awareness of different varieties could help the learners to develop more comprehensive view of the English language. Based on her research conducted in Japan (2002), Matsuda highlighted how exposure of EIL learners to different varieties of English could empower them with the ownership of English. She further proposed some principal constituents of teaching EIL in the classroom, including bringing in speakers of multiple varieties; evaluating students based on their communicative effectiveness rather than solely on grammatical correctness according to



the American or British norm; and using teaching materials representing EIL users by incorporating World Englishes (pp. 723-724).

Also based on research conducted in Japan, Morrison and White (2005) explored how to develop the familiarity and appreciation of students for World Englishes, by suggesting that publishers and institutions should not overlook the rich resources and materials in their own environment. With regard to textbooks selection, the researchers argued that, “special care needs to be taken to ensure that the accompanying audio materials make legitimate representations of the accents or varieties they claim to represent” (p. 367). More or less coincidentally, in another Asian country, Korea, empirical research has also been carried out to explore approaches to teaching World Englishes. Instead of relying upon the publishers, Baik and Shim (2002) made use of the internet to design a course by “including samples of speech from all three concentric circles” in order to raise the awareness of students and their understanding of the existing English varieties (p. 427). A common feature among these studies is that the researchers and teachers made appropriate adjustments to English teaching in accordance with the local teaching context. As McKay (2002) states, the cultural content of EIL teaching materials should not be limited to native English-speaking countries; rather, local culture should also be addressed.

### *2.1.3 Intelligibility Issues of ELF*

Another equally important concern in teaching ELF is the intelligibility issues on pronunciation pedagogy. In a broad sense, intelligibility refers to “intelligible production

and felicitous interpretation of English” (Nelson, 1995, p. 274). A common accepted definition of intelligibility is Smith and Nelson’s (1985) tripartite conceptualization of “(1) intelligibility, the ability of the listener to recognize individual words or utterances; (2) comprehensibility, the listener’s ability to understand the meaning of the word or utterance in its given context; and (3) interpretability, the ability of the listener to understand the speaker’s intentions behind the word or utterance” (as cited in Pickering, 2006, p. 220). Furthermore, it is worthy to noticing that being intelligible is also linked with contextual understanding at a given time in a given situation. As Smith and Nelson (1985) stated “intelligibility is not speaker or listener-centered but is interactional between speaker and hearer” (p. 333). Pickering (2006) investigated the variables associated with ELF (English as a *lingua franca*) intelligibility, and revealed that “the process by which understanding is achieved in ELF interaction is qualitatively different from those observed in native-speaker (NS) based interaction” (p. 219). In other words, ELF interlocutors frequently adopt communication strategies and accommodations skills in accordance with the conversation contexts, which rarely occur among native speakers.

With respect to the speaker factors, stress has been examined by many researchers. Hahn (2004) examined the reaction of North American undergraduate students to the speech of international teaching assistants (ITA) with primary stress correctly or incorrectly placed. Results indicate that primary stress plays an important role on the intelligibility of ITAs. Thus, Hahn advocated for an emphasis on suprasegmentals in pronunciation teaching. For the similar purpose, Field (2005) focused on a single factor, lexical stress, to examine how it could affect the understanding of listeners. In this study,

groups of listeners were asked to transcribe recorded material in which lexical stress were shifted leftward or rightward. Both groups of native and nonnative listeners were found handicapped to the problems posed by stress misallocation. What is more, Field has found that native English listeners place greater reliance on the stressed syllables of words for intelligibility than nonnative English listeners do. These studies have raised an intriguing but fundamental issue that stress is primarily viewed as an important quality of the intelligibility of speakers.

Deterding (2005) investigated the reaction of Singaporean listeners to a nonstandard British English variety—Estuary English (EE), which refers to a variety of speech that has become widespread far beyond its origins near London and along the estuary of the River Thames (Przedlacka, 2002; Rosewarne, 1994). Some features of Estuary English include: Glottaling of /t/ in syllable-final position; vocalizaion of dark /l/; tensing of the final vowel in words like *happy*; and th-fronting. In this study, three young British male participants were each recorded talking to the research for 5 minutes. For assessing the intelligibility of Estuary English, transcriptions from six research assistants and listening comprehension of twelve undergraduate students were checked. The results showed that EE speakers were given a low score of intelligibility by Singaporean listeners. Also, the author identified several segmental issues, such as th-fronting, glottalization of medial /t/, and replacing dental fricatives with another sound that could cause misunderstanding sometimes. Therefore, the author suggested that for maximum intelligibility, the use of dental fricatives should be encouraged in pronunciation teaching. Equally important,

English learners should be encouraged to interact with a wide range of speakers who use nonstandard pronunciation in order to raise their awareness of World Englishes.

For a long time, the English pronunciation instruction is guided by the nativeness principle which aims for native-like pronunciation. However, achieving the nativeness in pronunciation may be an unrealistic burden for both teachers and learners. What is more, there is no evidence for clear correlation between accent and understanding. Levis (2005) proposed the intelligibility principle, which implies that communication can be remarkably successful when foreign accents are noticeable or even strong (p. 370).

Another point Levis made is that the intelligibility principle carries sensitivity to context. “Intelligibility assumes both a listener and a speaker, and both are essential elements for communication” (p. 372). In other words, both the listener and the speaker are supposed to share the “communication burden” (Lippi-Green, 1997) to achieve intelligibility. In addition, Levis (2005) revealed the concern that pronunciation teachers often relied upon their own intuitions with little directions. Insufficient research with nonnative listeners may impede the researchers from accessing the nature of foreign accents and their effects on communication. Derwing and Munro (2005) have brought forth several current problems and misconceptions about pronunciation instruction: many ESL/EFL teachers have no formal training to teach pronunciation; and they usually rely on textbooks and software without taking into account of their students’ needs and problems. Therefore, pronunciation training for English language teachers is in urgent demand. Furthermore, Derwing and Munro (2005) discussed the possibility of a ‘mutual intelligibility’ framework which suggested that ESL learners should make themselves understood to a

wide range of interlocutors within a context where NNSs (Non-Native Speakers) are the majority (p. 380). They also suggested that English language teachers should set realistic and attainable goals for learners to improve their intelligibility rather than to achieve native pronunciation.

#### *2.1.4 Attitudes of Teachers toward ELF and NNESTs Issues in Teacher Education*

Compared to the constellation of studies on the linguistic forms and pedagogical issues in ELF research (Jenkins, 2000; McKay, 2002; Mauranen, 2003; and Seidlhofer, 2004), a relative lack of published studies on ELF attitudes exists. Seidlhofer (2004) pointed out, “the important issue of attitudes toward ELF, by researchers, teachers, learners and the public at large, has only begun to be addressed.” (p.229) To implement teaching English as a *lingua franca*, the linguistic description and pedagogical guidance alone are not sufficient, since the reactions of teachers and learners also exert a strong influence on the complex teaching/learning process. So ELF studies on the attitudes of teachers are discussed in this section. Studies on attitudes of learners are discussed later in the last section of literature review. In this section, studies on practicing teachers are reviewed first while research on teacher education for Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) is discussed secondly. Studies focused on each area are reviewed in chronological order.

The study of Timmis (2002) has been recognized as one of the first ELF attitudes studies published and frequently cited (Jenkins, 2007). This study involved almost 600 participants (both teachers and students) in over 45 countries with regard to their

perspective on the native-speaker norms in pronunciation and grammar. The researcher collected approximately 180 questionnaires from teachers in 45 countries. The questionnaire gauged attitudes toward pronunciation, standard grammar, and informal spoken grammar. Both teachers and students revealed an overall tendency to conform to NS norms, although the teachers seemed less attached to those norms. They were uncertain about what kind of forms belonged to nonnative speakers while they had an idealized notion of what the native-speaker norms are. The researcher also found that there is a greater tendency among teachers than among students to regard “accented intelligibility” as the most desirable outcome, though a small number of teachers still regard native-speaker competence to be potentially empowering (p. 243). In light of the pioneering nature of this study, its finding raised awareness of the conflicting ELF attitudes and signaled the direction for future studies.

Jenkins (2005) examined the feasibility of an ELF approach in pronunciation pedagogy and perception of NNS teachers of the “*lingua franca* Core” (Jenkins, 2000). All the participants showed ambivalent attitudes toward their own English accent. Participants who made positive comments on their own English accent revealed their attachment to the native accent. On the other hand, participants who were unsatisfied with their own English accent showed positive attitudes toward their identity of being non-native speakers. Therefore, the researcher claimed that “it can not be taken for granted that teachers from the expanding circle wish unequivocally to use their accented English to express their L1 identity or membership in an international community” (p. 541). This study also found that participants accepted teaching ELF accents in theory but

not in practice. The researcher indicated some reasons such as insufficient pronunciation materials for ELF, lack of the knowledge of World Englishes, and students and parents' preference for Standard English. Therefore, the onus to promote teaching English as a *lingua franca* should not be solely placed upon the teachers, but also on the publishers, parents, students, and public at large.

In a similar study, Sifakis and Sougari (2005) investigated the pronunciation beliefs and practices of Greek EFL teachers, their sociocultural identity of nonnative speakers of English (NNSs), and their awareness of mutual intelligibility in NNS–NNS interactions. The participating teachers showed ambivalent attitudes toward their own English accent. The study also suggested that viewpoints of teachers on pronunciation teaching were predominantly norm bound because of their natural role as the legal guardians of the English language with respect to their learners; their immediate identification of any language with its native speakers; and their lack of awareness of issues related to the international spread of English (p. 483). This study in some respects echoes previous two studies in demonstrating a theory/practice divide. In theory, the teachers believe in the ELF communication with respect to intelligibility and comprehensibility. In practice, however, they still stay closely to the traditional PR (Received Pronunciation) model in their teaching practice. With respect to this, the researchers suggested using the teachers' geopolitical and sociocultural surroundings as resources to raise their awareness of the practical implications of teaching English as a *lingua franca*.

One key component of the notion of teaching English as a *lingua franca* is moving beyond the native speaker model by recognizing the merits of nonnative teachers of

English. In fact, the positive role of non-native speaker in language education has been appraised in books of Medgyes (1994) and Braine (1999). As bilingual (or multilingual) users, Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) are endowed with the advantage of switching back and forth from L1 to L2 to meet the needs of learners and enhance their understanding. Llurda (2004) has anticipated that “non-native speakers of English will become aware of their status as speakers of EIL, native speaker control of the language will disappear, and non-native speakers will feel entitled to the authoritative use of a variety of the language that belongs to them” (p. 320). The researcher further claimed that the increasing appreciation of strength of NNS teachers could enhance the gradual acceptance of English as a *lingua franca*. With the global spread of English, unquestionably, there is a growing demand for proficient nonnative teachers. It is admitted, however, those non-native teachers may command different levels of proficiency. Therefore, teacher education programs should provide sufficient training to improve language proficiency of NNESTs, to raise their awareness of ELF issues, and to empower them as the authoritative users of English. Brown (2002) has suggested that a World Englishes course should be a requirement in all TESOL preparatory courses (p. 446).

In fact, in the Inner Circle, TESOL educators have already developed courses for NNESTs education which may shed light on the teacher training programs in Outer and Expanding Circle countries. Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) reported a 10-week seminar in an ESOL preparation program that involved a process of interrogating the construct of nativeness among non-native English speaking students and professionals



within the critical pedagogy framework. A classroom dialogic, written dialogic, and professional autobiography were employed as tools to raise the collective consciousness of teachers and students concerning the status of NNSs in ELT practice and to develop an identity constructed by NNESTs themselves. The study showed that many of the students found a new relationship within their context, analyzed the causes of their powerlessness, and generated a new sense of agency. The researchers has also indicated that the process of empowerment of NNESTs is neither linear nor simply but could be generated within and by teachers engaged in critical praxis.

From a poststructuralist perspective, Golombek and Jordan (2005) investigated the relationship between intelligibility and identity of pre-service English teachers. They adopted the definition of Ochs (1993) on identity: “a cover term for a rang of social personae, including social statues, roles, positions, relationships, and institutional and other relevant community identities one may attempt to claim or assign in the course of social life” (p. 517). In this study, the researchers aimed to find how international speakers of English assert their identities as legitimate teachers of English. They presented a case study of two MATESOL students from Taiwan in a pronunciation pedagogy course and found that “these pre-service teachers had multiple and conflicting identities as legitimate speakers and teachers of English” (p. 513). By adopting concepts of Norton (2001) on “imagined communities” and “imagined identities,” they offered new directions for pronunciation pedagogy and teacher education program. Traditionally, language teachers were viewed as native speakers versus non-native speakers. In these imaged identities, however, the pre-service teachers viewed themselves as having

multicompetence, rather than non-native speakers. Therefore, the imagination of new teacher identities enabled the NNESTs to go beyond the restrictive notions of pronunciation and to establish their professional legitimacy. The researchers concluded that supporting the imagination of new teachers' identities could provide a way for nonnative English speaking teachers to affirm their legitimacy, establish multicompetence, imagine alternative identities, and hence help them to develop instructional practices.

In a similar vein, Sifakis (2007) proposed a “transformative framework” for teacher education of English as a *lingua franca*. In this framework, Sifakis suggested that teachers should change a whole range of long-held and deeply rooted viewpoints concerning the importance of Standard English, the role of native speakers, and the negotiation of identities of non-native speakers in cross-cultural communication (p.358). Within this framework, worldviews of teachers about English and English language pedagogy could be shifted, and hence they could become actively aware of NNESTs issues and their implications for communication and pedagogy. Once the teachers are empowered, they could exert a strong influence on empowering the learners, through raising their awareness of different varieties of Englishes and enhancing their confidence and competence as legitimate English users.

#### *2.1.5 Impact of ELF on English Language Assessment*

With the increasing rich research on ELF, appeals for changes in English language testing are also under way, given the fact that teachers and learners could be reluctant to

accept any curriculum change that is not reflected in the examination. Accommodation, such as avoiding certain forms, is a major strategy adopted by both native and nonnative speakers in daily communication. However, as Jenkins (2006b) pointed out, “testing is penalizing rather than rewarding appropriately-used accommodation strategies, which, in turn, discouraging the use of forms which are not standard in NS English but are nevertheless communicatively efficient in NNS interactions” (p. 47). Therefore, she indicated that the examination boards should make appropriate adjustment of English language testing according to the international needs of many test takers. Specifically, Jenkins argued that a more equitable representation of World English varieties should appear in the curriculum, teaching practice, as well as testing and assessment. To address this need, Jenkins suggested setting the evaluation criteria based on the existing NNS–NNS corpora, such as Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English of Seidlhofer (2004), English as a *lingua franca* in Academic settings (ELFA) corpus conducted by Mauranen (2003), and *lingua franca* Core of Jenkins (2000) for spoken testing.

Sponsored by ETS (Educational Testing Service), Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, and Balasubramanian (2002) explored the effects of nonnative accents on listening comprehension in ESL assessment. In particular, they examined how ESL listeners performed better on a test when the speaker shared their native languages. The recorded English passages were produced by native speakers of English, Chinese, Japanese, and Spanish, who represented the nationalities of test takers in that study. The results showed that both native and nonnative test takers scored higher when they listened to native speakers of English on the listening comprehension test. In fact, Chinese listeners

reported that Chinese L2 speakers were more difficult to understand than native speakers. Here, attitudes may be a factor to explain the results. As the researchers indicated “positive attitudes increase comprehension whereas negative attitudes decrease comprehension” (p. 187) In the Chinese context of English learning, native speakers are still the desirable model to follow. That could explain why the Chinese listeners scored lower when listening to speakers who shared the same native language with them. This study presented a realistic picture of how our understanding of factors involved in ELF interactions is far from sufficient. What is innovative in this study is that the researchers took a first step to investigate the intelligibility and comprehensibility issues of the international English testing from the ELF perspective. It contributes to assessing the possible test bias of nonnative varieties for global test takers from different language and cultural backgrounds. What is more, this study was in the first place to acknowledge the huge number of nonnative speakers and the necessity to incorporate their voice into the mainstream language testing.

In response to the call for new approaches to assess ELF Jenkins (2006b), Elder and Davies (2006) proposed two models for assessing English as a *lingua franca*. The first model was based on existing international language tests, such as TOEFL and IELTS, but explicitly allowing test accommodations. Whereas, the second model involved varieties of World Englishes rather than Standard English, giving priority to strategic competence of test takers rather than their linguistic accuracy. Through careful examination, they found that both models are somewhat problematic in practice, in relation to the measurement issues of ELF, such as the nature of construct and criterion, test items and

tasks to elicit the performance of test takers, and the scoring process. Thus, Elder and Davies (2006) drew the conclusion that it is still premature to move quickly to assess ELF before it has been properly described.

#### 2.1.6 Summary

In fact, the increased status of English as a *lingua franca* (ELF) has received both ardent support and intense criticism. Kuo (2006) examined the conceptual and operational framework for description of English as a *lingua franca* and raised questions concerning the feasibility of teaching ELF in practices. Respectively, Kuo discussed the problem of an intelligibility-driven language model, the validity of computerized corpus data, and English for international communication and intra-national competition (p. 215). The researcher argued that the description of English as a *lingua franca* restricted its focus on the very instrumental function of English. Kuo believed that a native-speaker model could serve as a complete and convenient starting point for English learning and L2 learners should be allowed to decide which English to learn, the Standard English or the varieties of world Englishes. Meanwhile, however, Kuo admitted that empirical study on grammar and phonology of English as a *lingua franca* could help to identify important linguistic features in international communication (p. 220).

Researchers in Expanding Circle nations have also made great efforts to examine the feasibility of ELF. Unlike Kuo (2006), most of these researchers reported positive feedback for teaching World Englishes at various levels. For example, Sakai and D'angelo (2005) presented the successful implementation of ELF in one university in

Japan. The conception of World Englishes gained acceptance and appreciation in that university and exerted positive impact on both the faculty and students. Berns (2005) generated some outline for the future development of ELF in the Expanding Circle countries. Some of her suggestions included investigation of a variety of English users, review of educational policies and practices across a range of Expanding Circle countries and examination of intelligibility across Expanding Circle user communities and fellowships (p. 91). However, it is worth mentioning that ELF should become a stabilized variety, which may ensure its learnability and usability to a wide range of English language learners. As Llurda (2004) stated, “English has reached such a level of internationalization that local changes in the heartland should not be transferred to the international use of the language, and changes caused by the international nature of the language should be learned by members of the native-speaking communities.” (p.321)

## 2.2 English Education in China and “China English”

As China strengthens its economic development and strives to become a full participant in the modern globalized world, the need to learn English is flourishing throughout the country. The massive boom in English and high status of English in Chinese education are due largely to the active participation of China in the international affairs. It is commonly recognized that China’s joining of the World Trade Organization (WTO) and Beijing’s hosting of 2008 Olympic Games have accelerated a long-standing trend to improve and expand English learning (Bolton & Tong, 2002; Lam, 2005; Nunan, 2003; Zhang & Watkins, 2007). Furthermore, as Bolton (2002) indicated, “in the minds

of many inside China, English seems inextricably linked to the nation's continued economic growth" (p. 182).

Learning English is extremely popular and has reached a new peak with government policy-makers, educationalists, and the Chinese public in the past two decades. Language schools are flourishing in large cities and coastal provinces; Chinese TV and radio stations broadcast daily English language programs; and more native speakers are teaching English in China than ever before. Although English used to be just a required subject from middle school to college, currently it is learned beyond the school curriculum. In fact, even kindergarten-age children look forward to receiving English instruction, as also do more senior people. In a word, learning English has become a nationwide practice that spans across people of all ages. In this section, the English language education in China is reviewed first. Studies on "China English" and attitudes of Chinese learners toward English are discussed secondly.

### *2.2.1 English Education in China*

Bolton (2002), through a succinct and thorough examination of historical record, revealed that the very first contact between Chinese and English maritime traders occurred in the 1630s and the first schools to teach English in China were established in Macau in the late 1830s (p. 182). After the establishment of Peoples' Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, China has experienced several trends in foreign language teaching. One example is the immense popularity of Russian in schools in the 1950s. Since the early 1980s, however, English began to receive increased attention in the national curriculum.

The implementation of “Open Door” policy toward the West proposed by Deng Xiaoping brought about a renewed interest in learning foreign languages, particularly English. As Chang (2006) stated, “with the accelerating process of globalization in the fourth quarter of the last century, China has maintained the policy favoring to English, and English education has seen unprecedented development since 1978” (p. 515). This was clearly visible in official policy statements, such as the 1993 syllabus:

A foreign language is an important tool for interacting with other countries and plays an important role in promoting the development of the national and world economy, science and culture. In order to meet the needs of our Open Door Policy and to accelerate socialist modernization, efforts should be made to enable as many people as possible to acquire command of one or more foreign languages. (1993 English syllabus, cited in Adamson and Morris, 1997, p. 21)

Today, English continues to grow in importance as a school subject throughout China. A number of colleges and universities have experimented with the use of English as a teaching medium. According to Nunan (2003), from September 2001, all colleges and universities under the control of Ministry of Education were instructed to use English as the main teaching language in the following courses: information technology, biotechnology, new-material technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and law. In addition, a policy statement entitled “The Ministry of Education Guidelines for Vigorously Promoting the Teaching of English in Primary Schools” was issued in January 2001 (Ministry of Education 2001). As a result of this policy, students are required to start learning English from the third grade rather than from the first year of junior secondary school (as cited in Hu, 2008, p. 516). This policy represents a lowering of the age for compulsory instruction of English from 11 to 9. Therefore, the English



learning process, through the primary school to university, covers a total span of 14 to 16 years.

Liu (2007) examined the effects of lowering the age of compulsory instruction of English as a school subject from nine (Grade 3) in China. The researcher stated that earlier English education in China is not necessarily better. Because of a number of constraints such as lack of qualified English teachers, large class size, and inconsistency of curriculum and syllabi, the government should take caution in determining the readiness of all primary schools in every geographic location of China to start English instruction from such an early stage. Similarly, Hu (2008) explored the implementation of English language policy for primary schools in China. The investigation illustrated that the policy was not universally implemented in school settings, due to the interplay of various factors, including the geographic location and size of schools, administration, funding, and availability of qualified teachers. Hu (2008) further argued that the policy was issued prematurely, which could have undesirable impact on educationally disadvantage students, less privileged schools, and social stratification (p. 516).

The study of English has also gained popularity outside of the national education system. Official statistics show that in 1998 there were 78 language schools/centers in Beijing (Huang & Xu, 1999). Seven years later, as shown by survey data from Beijing Youth Newspaper (2005), this number has increased to over 1,000. According to this survey, about 300,000 EFL students are enrolled in these private language schools. In addition, there is a growing popularity of certification of various kinds, including the TOEFL examination and Businesses English diplomas. Along with these activities

associated with English learning, English also serves as the second language in the Chinese media. Major English newspapers and magazines are published for domestic, as well as for international consumption, including China Daily, Beijing Review, and China Today etc. In addition, China Central Television Station (CCTV) has an English-language news channel for overseas broadcasting. The increasing availability of internet in China undoubtedly provides further opportunities for English learning and communication with other parts of the world.

### *2.2.2 “China English” and Attitudes of Chinese Learners toward English*

Admittedly, “China is not only the country with the largest population, but also has the greatest number of English learners in the world.” (Ng & Tang, 2000, p. 66) He and Li (2009) stated that, “it seems inevitable that this tremendous number of people learning and speaking English will naturally lead to a distinctive Chinese variety of English, ‘China English’” (p.70). In fact, according to Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), the concept of “China English” has been discussed in Chinese journals for over 20 years. It is commonly acknowledged that Ge (1980) first raised the term “China English.” And Wang (1991) first defined “China English” as “the English used by Chinese people in China, being based on Standard English and having Chinese characteristics” (p. 3). Furthermore, Li (1993) redefined “China English” as “a variety with “normative English” as its core, but with Chinese characteristics at the levels of lexis, syntax and discourse; it is free from cross-linguistic influence from the Chinese language, and is employed to express content ideas specific to Chinese culture by means of translation, borrowing, and semantic

transfer” (p. 19). Based on a thorough and systematic review of several prominent works on “China English” (e.g. Deterding, 2006; Du and Jiang, 2001; Huang, 2005; Jia and Xiang, 1997; Jiang, 1995; Jiang and Du, 2003; Wei and Fei, 2003), He and Li (2009) have summarized several salient linguistic features of “China English” focusing on four levels: phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse pragmatics.

### *Phonology*

It is not yet possible to claim any distinctive phonological features that are common to all speakers of “China English” (Kirkpatrick, 2007). However, He and Li (2009) portrayed the following phonological features commonly found in “China English”: replacement of /θ/ with [s] and /ð/ with [d], insertion of final [ə], general lack of voiced fricatives, certain types of diphthong simplification, avoidance of weak forms for function words, and a tendency to pronounce multisyllabic words or word groups with syllable-timing, etc.

### *Lexis*

In general, China-specific words and expressions are rendered into English through one of two means: transliteration and loan translation.

(a) Transliteration: For example, *Putonghua*, *Renminbi (RMB)*, *yamen* (the office of officials in imperial China), *dazibao* (big-character poster, commonly used during the Cultural Revolution), *falungong*, *fengshui* (geomancy), *lama*, *maotai*, etc.

(b) Loan translation or *claque*: Some lexical items of “China English” are formed by translating them word for word or literally into English, for example: ‘the Spring Festival’, ‘Four Modernizations’, ‘One China policy’, ‘the Great Cultural Revolution’, ‘paper tiger’, ‘iron rice bowl’, ‘three representatives’, ‘Eight-legged Essay’, ‘Beijing opera’, ‘beggar chicken’, ‘dragon well tea’, ‘snakehead’.

### *Syntax*

“China English” has its own syntactic characteristics, which may be summarized into four aspects as follows:

(a) Idioms made up of four morpho-syllables. Large quantities of idioms in Chinese are made up of four Chinese morpho-syllables (characters) and are steeped in culture-specific meanings, for instance: ‘effort halved, result doubled’ (*shi ban gong bei*; 事半功倍)

(b) Parallel structure. This rhetorical structure is frequently used in Chinese to express words of wisdom, so it is commonly used in “China English,” for example: ‘a fall into the pit, a gain in your wit’ (*chi yi qian, zhang yi zhi*; 吃一堑长一智).

(c) Topicalization of adjuncts. In “China English,” modifiers such as adverbials or adverbial clauses are generally placed in front of the main verb(s) of a sentence. Therefore, it may be argued that sentences like ‘*This morning I bought a book*’ and ‘*Before I left the office, I had finished the work*’ should be regarded as well-formed

“China English” sentences so long as communication with speakers of English from other L1 backgrounds is not adversely affected.

(d) The Null Subject parameter. This refers to a linguistic parameter that has different settings in English and Chinese, in that a subject is required in an English sentence while it is optional in Chinese, hence the linguistic characterization of Chinese as a ‘pro-drop’ language (Yip, 1995). For instance, it is quite common for “China English” users to write sentences like ‘*Very glad to write to you again*’ and ‘*Miss you a lot*’ in a letter or an email in English, arguably due in part to cross-linguistic influence from their mother tongue.

*Discourse pragmatics*

It has been argued that texts in English or Western cultures are often structured in a deductive manner, in which the main topic typically comes at the beginning with supporting material postponed, whereas the written models of “China English” are generally structured inductively. In other words, the most significant point tends to be delayed until a considerable amount of background information has been presented. (pp. 72-74)

Admittedly, linguistic descriptions of “China English” are still limited and incomplete. However, it is notable that “China English” is emerging and developing gradually.

A pioneering study to investigate if “China English” is an acceptable standard was conducted by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002). The researchers intended to ascertain the attitudes of a sample of Chinese universities students toward standards and varieties of both Chinese and English. Totally, 171 students aged from 19 to 21 at a University in Beijing were recruited for completing a questionnaire with 14 statements. Among these students, 88 were English majors; and 83 were engineering majors. The results revealed that the students believed non-native speakers could speak Standard English. However, “the majority felt it was unlikely that there could be a Chinese variety of English and they did not want to sound Chinese when they spoke English” (p. 277). This result may not be generalizable due to its limited sample size. However, it is still evident that Chinese

students are aware of different varieties of English and that English is not the sole property of native speakers.

He and Li (2009), in a different approach and with a much larger sample, reported a substantial and impressive study on attitudes of teachers and learners toward the “China English” debate. Totally, 1030 participants (820 students and 210 teachers) across different disciplines and regions were involved in this study. Three research instruments: questionnaire survey, matched-guise technique, and group interview were employed for data triangulation. Two research questions guiding their study were “How do non-English majors and teachers of college English in mainland China view ‘China English’?” and “What is their perception of a teaching model of (the) College English (course) characterized by salient features of ‘China English’, either selectively or exclusively?” (p. 75) The questionnaire survey consisted of 25 items aiming to gauge their perception of “China English” and their preferred teaching model of English. In the matched-guise experiment, the respondents listened to one voice reading a paragraph with two different accents: one in a typical “China English” accent, and the other in a near-native accent. And they were told the reading was done by two different speakers. After that, they were instructed to rate “the two speakers” based on 16 five-point Likert scale items.

In addition to the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire, 103 participants (21 teachers and 82 students) were interviewed either individually or in small groups. Consistent with the study of Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), a majority of 79.6 percent of the respondents believed that non-native English speakers can speak Standard English. Although the majority was in favor of adopting “Standard English” as the pedagogic

model for college English in China, 62.6 percent of them advocated for incorporating the select features of “China English” into the existing teaching model. The most notable difference between these two studies lies in the issue of whether there will be a variety of English in China in the near future. In the study of Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), the possibility is basically negative (45.6 percent); whereas, in study of He and Li (2009), the participants are much more optimistic (60.5 percent) about the emergency of “China English.” Therefore, He and Li (2009) concluded that, “the attitudes of mainland Chinese learners and teachers of English seem to be shifting toward accepting ‘China English’ as a legitimate, indigenized variety” (p. 86).

Outside of Mainland China, studies on attitudes of learners toward English are also underway in other regions of China. Young (2006) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes of university students toward English in Macao. A group of 144 Macao-born and 197 Mainland-born Chinese students studying in a Macao university were surveyed with a 22-item questionnaire. The researcher found that the participating students showed positive attitudes and strong motivation to learn English. However, Macao-born students were less comfortable in speaking English than their Mainland-born counterparts. Young (2006) indicated that the lack of long-term English language policy in Macao and remaining influence of Portuguese as the sole official language of Macao over the past four centuries may explain the differences between the attitudes of Macao-born and Mainland-born Chinese students (p. 479).

To summarize, in this section, the brief introduction of English education in China, emergence of “China English,” and studies on attitudes of Chinese learners toward

English were discussed respectively. Noticeably, Chinese college students have showed an increasing awareness of and tolerance toward “China English.” However, due to the large number of English learners in China, more studies are needed to present a full picture of attitudes of learners toward English and “China English.” Without sufficient studies, the researchers may be premature to launch into the discussion of pedagogic model(s) for “China English.”

### 2.3 Attitudes of Learners in SLA Research

SLA (Second Language Acquisition) researchers and educators have long acknowledged that there are individual differences in L2 acquisition. Learners have a complex set of attitudes, experiences, and learning strategies which may lead to more or less language learning. As Ellis (1997) stated, “we have seen that social factors to do with the context of learning have an effect on how successful individual L2 learners are.” (p. 73) Considering the above concerns, language researchers and practitioners have shift their focus from the narrow concern of developing linguistic competence of learners to the broad concern of investigating and identifying how affective variables of learners are related to their L2 acquisition. Those affective variables in SLA research generally refer to language attitudes, motivation, language anxiety, and willingness to communicate (WTC) etc. Among these, motivation and attitudes are two major dimensions that researchers have explored.

Motivation in language learning is a complex phenomenon which is not easy to define. The socio-educational model developed by Gardner (1985) has been widely

recognized as the theoretical base in the field of motivation studies. Gardner and his Canadian colleagues started their research in 1960s, with English Canadian school students learning French as a second language. Over a long program, they developed a range of formal instruments to measure the motivation of students in L2 learning. The early version of Gardner's socio-educational model involved four components: social milieu, individual differences, second language acquisition context, and outcomes. Gardner and MacIntyre (1992) elaborated the socio-educational model and demonstrated a consistent relationship between language attitudes, motivation, and L2 achievement; the researchers further defined the construct of motivation with three main components: desire to achieve a goal, effort extended in this direction, and satisfaction with the task (p. 2).

Gardner (1985) already pointed out that the relationship between these affective variables is complex; in addition, these factors interact and influence each other. In one of the most recent studies, Kormos and Csizér (2008) examined age related differences in motivation for L2 learning with three distinct groups of people: secondary school pupils, university students, and adult language learners. This study indicated that attitudes and ideal L2 self are the main factors influencing motivation of L2 learners. This state of affairs, again, demonstrates that motivation and attitudes are usually under investigation together. In fact, L2 language attitudes research has been broadly conducted within the framework of motivation, of which attitudes form one part. Ellis (1997) stated that "motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2." (p. 75) Lightbown and Spada (1999) also explained



the construct of motivation in terms of two factors: learners' communicative needs, and their attitudes toward the second language community (p. 56). In other words, if learners perceive the communicative value and have favorable attitudes toward the speakers of the language, they could be more motivated to acquire proficiency in that language.

The studies on attitudes of learners in SLA research have explored a number of settings due to the complex nature of attitude and the breadth of its impact on various fields of language learning. As Mitchell and Myles (2001) stated “the attitudes of the learner toward the target language, its speakers, and the learning context, may all play some part in explaining success or lack of it (p. 24). For the purpose of this study, two study themes on attitudes of L2 learners are discussed in this section. One is the attitudes of learners toward World Englishes and the other is their attitudes toward Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs).

### *2.3.1 Attitudes of Learners toward World Englishes*

As one of the first studies on attitudes of learners toward World Englishes, the dissertation work of Matsuda (2000) on attitudes of Japanese students toward the English language has been broadly cited in other studies and discussions. The study revealed that on one hand, the students perceived English as an international language; on the other hand, they believed that English belonged to and was owned by native English speakers. Therefore, the researcher concluded that “much meta-sociolinguistic instruction for English learners and teachers is necessary in order to prepare students adequately for the future uses of English as an International Language” (p. 495). For learners, she proposed

that exposure to different forms and functions of English is crucial; and for teachers, she promoted a more World Englishes perspective in their teaching methods and materials. Jenkins (2007) further explained that “such instruction needs to provide plenty of scope for reflection and probably also the opportunity for contact with ELF speakers with other L1s, and discussion of sources of information other than those found in the classroom that may influence students’ views” (p. 104).

With regard to the concept of World Englishes, accent perception of language learners has been a keenly-debated topic in recent years. Riney, Takagi and Inutsuka (2005) reported a study on English accent perception of Japanese listeners (Non-Native-Speakers) and American listeners (Native-Speakers), with reference to phonetic parameters. The study showed that the NNS Japanese listeners used primarily nonsegmental parameters, such as intonation, fluency, and speech rate to make perceptual judgments; whereas NS American listeners relied more upon segmentals (especially /r/ and /l/). In other words, NS and NNS listeners of English may make judgment on accent in fundamentally different ways. The researchers made suggestions for phonological syllabus design coping with the NNS-NNS interactions, by highlighting the importance of nonsegmental factors, such as intonation, stress, fluency, and speech rate to achieve intelligibility.

In a similar vein, Scales, Wennerstrom, Richard, and Wu (2006) developed a study to examine reaction of ESOL learners and American native-speaking students to four different accents of English: General American, British English, Chinese English, and Mexican English. The results showed that a majority (62%) of the learners expressed

desire to have a native accent while few of them (29%) were able to identify the native accent correctly. Therefore, the researchers pointed out, “accent perception is a complex task that requires more than mere length of exposure to an accent” (p. 735). The researchers also found an almost perfect correspondence between the accent most preferred and the accent easiest to understand. Based on this study, the researchers proposed that learners may have an idealization of native speech, and their accent preference was associated with ease of understanding.

Preference for or bias against a particular national type of English of language learners may affect their L2 pragmatics in important ways. Davies (2007) examined how preferences for North American English impede Korean ESL students from developing Australian-English pragmatic norms in the Australian context. With respect to why Korean students harbor a preference for North American English, Davies indicated some reasons, such as North American English being the EFL norm, their familiarity with North American English pronunciation, the global acceptance of North American English, and the unintelligibility of Australian English outside of Australia (p. 631). This study, again, demonstrated the importance of helping English learners to raise their awareness of World Englishes.

### *2.3.2 Attitudes of Learners toward Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs)*

The studies reviewed in the previous section indicate that English learners have more positive attitudes toward the inner circle Englishes, especially American and British Englishes, rather than other varieties of English. This may partially explain why they

prefer native speakers as their English teachers. Shim (2002) conducted a survey to examine attitudes of 57 Korean English learners. The participants listened to recordings of five different speakers (US, Canadian, Australian, Pakistani, and Korean) and were asked if they could like to have the speaker as their English teacher. One hundred percent of the participants answered yes with regard to the US and Canadian speakers, forty-nine percent voted for the Australian speaker, and none of them chose the Pakistani and Korean speakers. In respect to the reason why the students did not want to have the last three speakers as their English teachers, it was simply because the participants thought those speakers had bad accents. Later, Shim (2002) reported her five years longitudinal study with a series of surveys and interviews to capture the attitude change of both teachers and learners of English in Korea. At first, the concept of World Englishes was totally rejected. However, there has been considerable enhancement of language awareness in learners and teachers (p. 143). Similarly, Yoshikawa (2005) claimed the attitude change toward World Englishes of students in a Japanese university after their taking of a series of lectures and seminars introducing English varieties. The researcher reported that these students were enlightened by the concept of World Englishes, showed more enthusiasm for accepting Japanese English, avoided overuse of idiomatic expressions, and were willing to be taught by Japanese English teachers. These studies showcased that attitudes of learners could change if they were exposed to various Englishes, and their preference for native speakers as English teachers could not be a foregone conclusion.

A latent variable impacting the judgment of learners toward their language teachers is accent, in reference to sounding native or nonnative. Butler (2007) examined attitudes of Korean elementary students toward teachers with American-accented English and Korean-accented English. This study adopted the matched-guise technique. A Korean American teacher recorded texts in both American-accented English and Korean-accented English. After listening to one of the two recorded texts, 312 Grade 6 students were assessed by a comprehension test. The results revealed that there was no difference in their performance on listening comprehension of American-accented English and Korean-accented English. However, judging from the attitudinal questionnaire collected, Korean students showed strong preference for American-accented English teachers. As Jenkins (2007) pointed out, “The attachment to NS English norms revealed in these studies of attitudes of learners may account for some of the resistance to ELF revealed in the teachers’ attitudes.” (p. 105)

What is common among the studies reviewed above is that the researchers showed a growing concern on the importance of raising awareness of learners concerning the diversity of English. Given this overview on the attitudes of learners toward the English language and teachers, it is notable that more research is needed to explore the factors that may explain their attitudes. The study takes this up and attempts to examine the attitudes of Chinese learners toward English and their awareness of different varieties of English.

## 2.4 Summary

In Chapter 2, the theoretical framework guiding this study is reviewed. First, the proposition of “World Englishes” (WE), “English as an International Language” (EIL), and “English as a *lingua franca*” (ELF) is overviewed. Respectively, linguistic description of ELF, pedagogical issues of ELF, intelligibility issues of ELF, attitudes of teachers toward ELF and NNESTs issues in teacher education, and impact of ELF on English language assessment are discussed. Due to a lack of studies on attitudes of learners in the ELF research, this study investigated the attitudes of Chinese learners toward English.

Second, English education in China and studies on attitudes of Chinese learners toward English and “China English” are discussed. Compared with the large number of Chinese learners of English, the studies conducted to examine the attitudes of learners are relatively rare. This study examined the relationship between attitudes of learners and factors that may have effect on their attitudes. In this regard, the findings make contribution to a deeper understanding of Chinese English learners and English education in China.

Last, studies on attitudes of learners in Second language Acquisition (SLA) research were reviewed. Given the fact that there are numerous studies on attitudes of learners conducted in different research fields, only two areas closely related with the study have been discussed. One is the attitudes of learners toward World Englishes and the other is the attitudes of learners toward Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs). A common finding is that the researchers claimed the importance of raising learners’

awareness of English diversities. As Jenkins (2006a) suggested, “for less proficient learners, this awareness raising could involve exposure to a range of World Englishes and ELF varieties; while for more proficient learners, it could include discussion of the reasons for the spread of English, the development of diverse standards, the relationship between language and identity, and the like” (p. 174). One particular interest of this study is to examine awareness of Chinese learners of different varieties of English through investigation of their attitudes toward English and their English learning experience.

Based on the literature reviewed in this chapter, the study has examined attitudes of Chinese learners toward the English language, English education policies in China, and their purposes for learning English, as well as the factors affecting their attitudes. These objectives were achieved with the instruments that are discussed in Chapter 3.

#### *2.4.1 Importance of Participants Characteristics*

The demographics of participants are important variables when studying attitudes. The fifth research question of this study is to examine characteristics of participants that may explain their attitudes, including gender, age, grade, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience. These characteristics are tested because the researcher believed they could show a significant difference to attitudes of Chinese college students toward English.

Gender, age, grade in college, and college major of participants are important variable to examine in many studies on attitudes of learners (e.g. He & Li, 2009;

Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Young, 2006). According to Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), gender played an important role in their study. The participants revealed that they did not want to sound Chinese when they spoke English and this finding was particularly true of the female students (p. 277).

Starting age for learning English and total years spent in English learning are also relevant to attitudes of learners toward English. In the dissertation work of Matsuda (2000), both of these two factors have been studied. In addition, Matsuda (2000) found parents, teachers, and peers also exerted influence on the attitudes of Japanese students toward English (pp. 170-171). Another factor relevant to their attitudes was their international experience. “Students who had positive experience travelling abroad tended to express positive attitudes toward English as well.” (Matsuda, 2000, p. 172) Therefore, this study has also examined the relationship between these ten characteristics of participants and their attitudes toward English.



## CHAPTER 3

### METHODS

In this chapter, the research methods used in this study are discussed in detail. Respectively, topics addressed in Chapter 3 are research design, quantitative data (questionnaire), and qualitative data (interviews). The instrument (Appendix A) developed and interview questions (Appendix C) are provided.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The purpose of this study is to investigate the attitudes of an accessible population toward English, English education policies in China, and their purposes for learning English. Questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data to examine their attitudes. Along with exploring and describing the attitudes, part of the study is relational. “Correlational research involves studying relationships among variables within a single group.” (Frankel & Wallen, 1990, p. 15) The relational component identified correlations among selected characteristics and attitudes of respondents. In addition, interviews with selected participants provided qualitative data for further understanding of their attitudes. Two different instruments were employed in this study because interpretations which are built upon triangulation are certain to be stronger than those which rest on the more

constricted framework of a single method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Therefore, this study employed a “concurrent mixed methods design” in which the quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2009, p. 14).

Mixed methods design, similar to mixed model research (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2003) and multimethod design (Morse, 2003), employing the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, has gained popularity in the social and human sciences research in the past twenty years. The mixed methods design is more than simply collecting and analyzing both kinds of data; it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either quantitative or qualitative research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In addition, in mixed methods design, “the researcher may embed one smaller form of data within another larger data collection in order to analyze different types of questions” (Creswell, 2009, p. 15). This point about a mixed methods design is of crucial value in this study, given the fact that quantitative data with a sufficient sample may present general pictures about attitudes of learners; while qualitative data from interviews with a small number of participants may provide an in-depth understanding of their attitudes. Specifically, the study adopted the “concurrent embedded strategy” of mixed methods design over other types of mixed methods design. Creswell (2009) explains that “a concurrent embedded approach has a primary method that guides the project and a secondary database that provides a supporting role in the procedure” (p. 214). In this study, the secondary method of qualitative approach is embedded within the predominant method of quantitative

approach. This type of mixed methods is attractive for several reasons. First, this approach is less time consuming because the researcher was able to collect the two types of data during a single data collection time. Secondly, since both quantitative and qualitative data sources are provided in this study, the researcher can gain perspectives from different types of data or from different levels within one study. Admittedly, besides its strengths, this approach has weaknesses. As Creswell (2009) points out, if the two data sources are compared, discrepancies may occur that need to be resolved. Also, because the two methods are unequal in their priority, this approach may result in unequal evidence when interpreting the final results (p. 215).

In this study, data were collected from an accessible sample of Chinese college students in four universities in Wuhan, China. The participants were asked to respond to a questionnaire. Then, interviewees were selected from the survey respondents who volunteered to be interviewed. The quantitative and qualitative data were not combined together but were analyzed separately. However, the findings combined two forms of data to seek convergence or similarities among the results. Furthermore, the qualitative data were used to triangulate and contextualize the quantitative data.

### 3.2 Quantitative Data: Questionnaire

This section provides an overview of the questionnaire developed for this study. Specifically, the population and sampling, instrumentation, validity and reliability, data collection, and data analysis are discussed.

### *3.2.1 Population and Sampling*

Given the fact that millions of Chinese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners are taking regular college English courses (Wu, 2001), obtaining a random sample representative of all college students in China would be extremely difficult. Therefore, this study adopted an accessible sampling method in which a certain group of people are chosen for study because the researcher has a relatively easy access to them. Participants were recruited from students in four public universities across different disciplines in Wuhan, China. This location was chosen because the researcher has personal contacts in these four universities who could help for data collection as well as the unique features of this city. Wuhan, the capital of Hubei province, is a major city in the central part of China. College students in Wuhan come from all around the country. The chosen four universities are Wuhan University (a key comprehensive university directly under the administration of the Education Ministry of China), Huazhong Agricultural University (a key agricultural university directly under the administration of the Education Ministry of China), Huazhong Normal University (a key normal university directly under the administration of the Education Ministry of China), and Jiangnan University (a regional comprehensive university in Wuhan). All four universities offer a wide range of disciplines, across science, arts, law, business, engineering, etc. Therefore, the researcher reasonably assumes that the participants from these four universities could be representative of college students in other metropolitan cities in China. Specifically, this study aimed to recruit 385 students across different majors and from different years

in college. This sample size of 385 students was calculated using Cochran's formula (1977), with a confidence level of 95% and risk level of 5%.

$$n = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2} = \frac{1.96^2 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.5}{0.05^2} = 385$$

Since the participants were not random selected, the researcher acknowledges that the possibility of sampling error, selection error, and frame error may exist in this study.

### 3.2.2 Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data for this study and consisted of two sections. The first section included 46 Likert-type (summated rating scale) items. Participants were asked to rate each statement by their level of agreement: 6 = *strongly agree*, 5 = *agree*, 4 = *slightly agree*, 3 = *slightly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 1 = *strongly disagree*. Rating scales of items for each domain were summated for measurement. Totally, three domains were designed in the first section: 1) attitudes of learners toward English, 2) their attitudes toward the current English education policies in China, and 3) their attitudes toward the purposes for which Chinese college students learn English. Items 1 to 18 were developed for the first domain; items 19 to 36 were for the second domain; and items 37 to 46 were for the third domain. Section two included 10 questions with regard to the biographic characteristics of the participants.

The questionnaire was developed from literature review in Chapter 2. First, over 200 questions and Likert-scale items were examined from 11 questionnaires concerning L2 language attitude and Chinese learners of English (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Gao, Zhao, Cheng & Zhou, 2007; He & Li, 2009; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Lam, 2005; Lee,

2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Matsuda, 2000; Yashima, 2002; Young, 2006; Zhang & Watkins, 2007). Duplicated questions and questions not applicable or inappropriate for the study were eliminated. These items were grouped into the following categories, each representing an aspect of the research questions for the study.

- Attitudes toward English language in general: the important value of English; the role of English as an international language
- Attitudes toward varieties in English: the issue of standard; inner circle varieties of English; non-native varieties of English; “China English”
- Attitudes toward English education policies
- Purposes/ motivations for learning English
- Background information: demographic, English learning experience, and international experience of students

A total of 56 items were selected. Forty-six Likert-type (summated rating scale) items were selected for the first section. The remaining 10 items were grouped into the second section. Some items were reworded, and the number of positive statements and that of negative ones were balanced in order to avoid acquiescence responses. After the individual items were refined, their order was determined as related items were grouped together into domains.

All of the questionnaire items were written in English first and then were translated into Chinese (the first language of respondents) for maximum understanding. (See Appendix A for the English version and Appendix B for the Chinese version.) First, the researcher translated the questionnaire into Chinese, then a professional translator who is bilingual in English and Chinese performed back translation of the Chinese version into English. The English translations with the original English version were compared to verify the accuracy of the translation.

### *3.2.2.1 Validity and Reliability*

To control the measurement error, validity and reliability were established for this study. Validity of an instrument refers to an instrument “that accurately measures what it is supposed to measure” (Vogt, 1999, p. 301). The validity of instrument of the questionnaire is partially established by the studies on which the current instrument drew from (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Gao, Zhao, Cheng & Zhou, 2007; He & Li, 2009; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Lam, 2005; Lee, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Matsuda, 2000; Yashima, 2002; Young, 2006; Zhang & Watkins, 2007). Since some of the items were modified, a panel of three experts (see Appendix D) reviewed the instruments to secure the content validity of the instrument.

Content validity, which is concerned with the degree to which that instrument measures an intended content area, “is not a statistical property; it is a matter of expert judgment” (Vogt, 1999, p. 301). A panel of three experts reviewed the suitability and clarity of the instruments. The panel of experts consisted of three faculty members at a large Midwestern university in the U.S.A. After written feedback was received from the panel experts, the instrument was revised. Unclear items were rephrased, divided into multiple items to ensure clarity, or eliminated. Revised instrument was sent to the panel of experts for a second review. Therefore, the content validity of the instrument was established.

Field testing was conducted with fifteen college students in China to establish face validity. They were not asked to answer the questionnaire, but to review whether the

items and directions are clear and easy to understand. With their comments and suggestions, revisions were made accordingly prior to administering the questionnaires.

Reliability of an instrument refers to “the degree to which scores obtained with an instrument are consistent measures of whatever the instrument measures” (Frankel & Wallen, 1990). For the study, the internal consistency of the instrument was measured for each domain of the Likert-type scale by using the alpha coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha). After the panel experts reviewed the questionnaire and established the content validity for the instrument, the questionnaire was pilot tested with fifteen college students in a Chinese university, who were not included in the sample of the study. For the purposes of this study, the reliability coefficient must meet a minimal standard of .6 to .7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, pp. 264-265) to be considered reliable. From the pilot test, the Cronbach’s alpha yielded values of .69 for summated items in the first domain (attitudes toward English), .75 for summated items in the second domain (attitudes toward the current English education policies), and .73 for summated items in the third domain (attitudes toward the purposes for learning English).

#### *3.2.2.2 Part I: Attitudes toward English*

This domain was designed to assess attitudes of learners toward English and their awareness of different varieties of English, including “China English.” These items were mainly taken from questionnaire of Matsuda (2000) on attitudes of Japanese learners toward English and that of He and Li (2009) on attitudes of Chinese learners toward “China English.” Respectively, items 1 to 6 were intended to measure attitudes of



learners toward English in general; items 7 to 13 were exploring their attitudes toward varieties in English, in reference to the issue of standard, inner circle varieties of English, and non-native varieties of English; and items 14 to 18 were developed with the purpose of capturing their attitudes toward “China English.” These eighteen items in the first domain are listed below. All these items are Likert-type (summated rating scale) items. Respondents were asked to rate each statement according to their level of agreement: 6 = *strongly agree*, 5 = *agree*, 4 = *slightly agree*, 3 = *slightly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 1 = *strongly disagree*. For each respondent, his/her rating scales for items in this domain were summated, with a range of 18 to 108 (interval data).

1. English is an international language.
2. English is the language used most widely in the world.
3. Knowing English is important in understanding people from other countries.
4. Knowing English is important in understanding the culture of English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K. etc.
5. If I have a chance, I would like to travel to English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.
6. I do not like learning English.
7. British English and American English are the major varieties of English in the world.
8. The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.
9. Many varieties of English exist in the world.
10. The non-native English speakers can also speak Standard English. (Here, Standard English refers to English spoken in the English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.)
11. I want to learn American English rather than Singapore English.
12. As long as people understand me, it is not important which variety of English I speak.
13. I have heard of the phrase “World Englishes.”
14. I have heard of the phrase “China English.”
15. Like “Singaporean English” and “Indian English,” China should have its own variety of English: “China English.”
16. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker.
17. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.
18. I am not confident in speaking English because of my Chinese accent.

### 3.2.2.3 Part II: Attitudes toward the current English education policies

This domain was designed to measure attitudes of learners toward the current English education policies and practices in China. Same with the first domain, this domain also consisted of eighteen Likert-type items. These items were concerned with different perspectives of English education policies and practices in China, from the high-stake National College Entrance Examination to the textbooks used in local schools. These eighteen Likert scale items were presented as following. As mentioned, the participants were asked to rate each statement on a scale of one to six, from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. For each respondent, his/her rating scales for items in this domain were summated, with a range of 18 to 108 (interval data).

19. All Chinese students should learn English.
20. Chinese college students should use English in either spoken or written communications among each other.
21. English education should start from elementary school in China.
22. English should not be a compulsory subject in the National College Entrance Examination in China.
23. I would not take English if it were not a compulsory subject in school.
24. If English were not taught at school, I would study it on my own.
25. Oral language skills are more important than literacy skills in college English education.
26. College English classes should be entirely conducted in English.
27. College English classes should be conducted in both English and Chinese.
28. Besides English classes, other college classes, such as Math, should be also conducted in English.
29. CET-4 (College English Test – band 4) should not be a requirement for obtaining a university degree in China.
30. I am satisfied with the English education policies in China.
31. I am satisfied with the college English education curriculum in China.
32. I am satisfied with the English learning textbooks and other materials used in our school.
33. I am satisfied with the English teaching methods used in our school.
34. American English is the best model for Chinese learners of English.
35. British English is the best model for Chinese learners of English.
36. I prefer native speakers rather than non-native speakers as my English teachers.

#### 3.2.2.4 Part III: Attitudes toward the purposes for learning English

This domain was designed to investigate purposes for which Chinese college students learn English. These ten items were developed based on the literature on motivation and attitudes of Chinese English learners (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Gao, Zhao, Cheng & Zhou, 2007; Young, 2006). Same with the first two domains, for these ten Likert-type items, the participants were asked to rate each statement on a scale of one to six, from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. For each respondent, his/her rating scales for items in this domain were summated, with a range of 10 to 60 (interval data). These ten items are shown below.

37. In China, knowing English is more useful than knowing any other foreign language.
38. Learning English is important for me, because English is a very useful tool in contemporary society.
39. I learn English to catch up with economic and technological developments in the world.
40. Before entering university, an important purpose for my English learning was to obtain high scores in the National College Entrance Examination.
41. An important purpose for my English learning is to obtain a university degree.
42. An important purpose for my English learning is to get a decent job.
43. An important purpose for my English learning is to obtain high scores in English examinations, such as CET-4, CET-6, and TOEFL.
44. I learn English in order to obtain better education and job opportunities abroad.
45. I learn English so that I can go abroad to experience English-speaking cultures.
46. My parents believe that learning English is important.

#### 3.2.2.5 Part IV: Demographic information

The purpose of the last part was to obtain the demographic information of participants, in order to examine what characteristics may explain attitudes of Chinese college students toward English. Specifically, these ten items were intended to offer

information about the following: gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience of participants.

### *3.2.3 Data Collection*

Data collection for this study lasted approximately one month. The quantitative data were collected through group administration. The questionnaires were distributed to accessible college students during the first or last 20 minutes of classes. The respondents were given an opportunity to ask the moderator questions. The questionnaires were distributed in booklet format. Instructions and the IRB research recruitment script were provided on the cover page. This method for data collection was selected because: 1) it can collect a lot of data inexpensively by having everyone in a class complete the questionnaire; 2) it provides greatest sense of respondent confidentiality; and 3) it enhances high response rate since most of the participants would complete the questionnaire due to “peer pressure.”

An individual identification number was given to each participant. The researcher used these numbers to follow-up with non-respondents and in selecting interviewees. Following regulations set by the Office of Responsible Research Practices at The Ohio State University, questionnaire respondents were informed that their participation is voluntary and their responses will be kept strictly confidential. IRB approval was obtained before the commencement of the study (IRB#2010E0149).

The basic principle for controlling non-response error is to receive a high response rate. To increase the response rate, the researcher had pre-contacted the college teachers to inform their students about the date and time for the group administrated survey. For absent students, the researcher left the questionnaires with the teachers. One week later, the researcher gathered questionnaires completed by the “absent students” from the teachers. Questionnaires response received after that time was not accepted.

### *3.2.4 Data Analysis*

In this study, the Statistical Package for Social Science was used for data analysis. Listed below are the research questions and data analysis procedures of the study.

Q1: To describe the characteristics of Chinese college students participated in this study in gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience. The analysis included frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations.

Q2: To describe attitudes of learners toward English. The analysis included frequencies and percentages, central tendency measures (mean, median, and mode), and variability measures (range and standard deviations). Since the Likert-type (summated rating scale) items are ordinal, for each item in the first domain, mode was presented to identify the most frequently selected scale. In addition, the summated scale of items for each respondent is interval, therefore, a mean was calculated for each respondent in this domain, and the mean of all the respondents was also calculated.

Q3: To describe attitudes of learners toward the current English education policies and practices in China. The analysis included frequencies and percentages, central tendency measures (mean, median, and mode), and variability measures (range and standard deviations). Since the Likert-type (summated rating scale) items are ordinal, for each item in the first domain, mode was presented to identify the most frequently selected scale. In addition, the summated scale of items for each respondent is interval, therefore, a mean was calculated for each respondent in this domain, and the mean of all the respondents was also calculated.

Q4: To describe attitudes of learners toward the purposes for learning English. The analysis included frequencies and percentages, central tendency measures (mean, median, and mode), and variability measures (range and standard deviations). Since the Likert-type (summated rating scale) items are ordinal, for each item in the first domain, mode was presented to identify the most frequently selected scale. In addition, the summated scale of items for each respondent is interval, therefore, a mean was calculated for each respondent in this domain, and the mean of all the respondents was also calculated.

Q5: To describe the relationship between selected demographic characteristics (gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience) and attitudes of learners toward English, the current English education policies and practices in China, and the purposes for learning English.

Characteristics	Measurement Scale
gender	nominal data
age	ratio data
grade in college	ordinal data
college major	nominal data
starting age for learning English	ratio data
total years of studying English	ratio data
knowledge of parents concerning the English language	nominal data
experience with native English speaking teachers	nominal data
experience with peers who are native speakers of English	nominal data
international experience	nominal data
attitudes toward English	interval data
attitudes toward English education policies	interval data
attitudes toward purposes for learning English	interval data

For R x C contingency tables, Cramer's V was computed to describe the association for nominal characteristics of responses of gender, college major, knowledge of parents concerning the English language, experience with native English speaking teachers, experience with peers who are native speakers of English, and international experience. Spearman rank order correlations were computed for ordinal characteristics of grade in college. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for ratio/interval characteristics of age, starting age for learning English, and total years of studying English.

In this study, Davis' (1971) convention is used for describing the magnitude of correlation coefficients (Table 1). Linear relationships are identified.

<b>r</b>	<b>Adjective</b>
1.0	Perfect
0.70-0.99	Very High
0.50-0.69	Substantial
0.30-0.49	Moderate
0.10-0.29	Low
0.01-0.09	Negligible

Table 1: Magnitude of Correlation (Davis, 1971)

### 3.3 Qualitative Data: Interviews

Even though the questionnaire was well established with validity and reliability, the instruments may not address all the research questions and accommodate unexpected issues that arise from the diverse English learning experience of the students. Also, the participants may not elaborate as much because of the restricted form of questionnaire. These weaknesses are overcome with another data collection method: face-to-face interviews. The interviews were exploratory in nature, in order to provide in-depth understanding about the Chinese English learners and to provide qualitative data for triangulation with the quantitative survey data.

#### *3.3.1 Interview Participants*

The interviews were conducted at the same visit to the research site for survey data collection. At the end of the questionnaire, information about the interview purposes and process were provided. Survey participants were asked to provide their contact information if they would like to participate in the follow-up interviews. In order to encourage them to volunteer for the interviews, the survey respondents were informed that a gift was provided for each interview participant in appreciation for their time and help. Considering the limited time for data collection, the researcher planned to interview 20 students within the timeline. In fact, nearly 100 questionnaire respondents volunteered for the interviews. The researcher selected interviewees carefully in consideration of the diversity of the demographic information provided on the questionnaires. This approach



allowed recruiting interviewees from different background, in order to provide a comprehensive understanding of college English learners in Wuhan, China.

### *3.3.2 Instruments*

The interviews were semi-structured and open-ended type interviews. A semi-structured interview has a sequence of themes to be covered, as well as suggested questions. Yet, at the same time, the interviewer has openness to changes of sequences and forms of questions in order to follow-up the answers given (Kvale, 1996, p. 124). This approach allows more flexibility and adaptability than pre-designed questions, and permits probing questions that start broad and narrow to specific points. In addition, with the interview guide developed beforehand, the researcher was able to cover all the important issues efficiently. Therefore, this interview method was selected to offer deeper insights and additional information about the attitudes of learners and how their attitudes are formed.

Since the purpose for the interview was to obtain additional data to complement, refine, and contextualize the results from the survey data, the interview questions were developed in accordance with the themes in the questionnaire. These questions (see Appendix C) were outlined prior to the interview but remained flexible in terms of the ordering and actual wording of questions. A panel of two experts (see Appendix E) reviewed the suitability and clarity of the interview questions. After feedback was received from the panel experts, unclear questions were either rephrased or divided into multiple questions to ensure validity of the instrument.

The interviews were conducted in a causal and natural style rather than a formal question-answer pattern. All interviews were audio-recorded with the written permission of interviewees. The researcher has informed interviewees that their participation is voluntary and their responses will be kept strictly confidential. IRB approval was obtained before the commencement of the study (IRB#2010E0149).

### *3.3.3 Data Analysis*

To ensure that all interviewees would speak their minds in a language they are most familiar with, the interviews were conducted in Mandarin Chinese. The interview data were transcribed into Chinese, and then translated into English. An English-Chinese bilingual professional verified the accuracy of the translation.

Analysis and interpretation of interview data were conducted through content analysis. Common and recurring patterns were identified and investigated separately from the questionnaire data. And, then, the qualitative data were examined in conjunction with the research questions of the study for the purpose of explaining, extending, and contextualizing the quantitative data.

### *3.3.4 Trustworthiness*

Trustworthiness is concerned with the “believability” of a study, and the degree to which a reader has faith in the worth of the study (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 366). According to Guba and Lincoln (1985), four criteria are identified in this study to establish the trustworthiness of qualitative data: credibility, transferability, dependability,

and confirmability. These four criteria parallel the internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity in quantitative study, but are more appropriate terms for establishing and evaluating the validity and reliability of qualitative data.

Credibility refers to the accuracy with which the researcher has represented the views of the participants in their conclusions. Several factors contribute to the establishment of the credibility of the current study. First, the researcher has increased the grounds for confidence in data collection by checking with interviewees to ensure the accuracy of interpretation of their responses. During the interview, the researcher frequently paraphrased what the interviewees said. This process, which is called “participant checking,” gave the respondents a chance to clarify anything that needs clarifying or making more precise. Second, the triangulation of methods for data collection was employed to ensure the trustworthiness of this study. By using both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection, the researcher could evaluate the consistency between data which were collected through different venues. In addition, data collected by different methods may complement each other and thus strengthen the credibility of this study. Last, the familiarity of the researcher with Chinese culture and Chinese college students added to the credibility of the study. The experience of the researcher as a Chinese college student in a similar context helped to encourage the respondents to elaborate by asking appropriate questions.

Transferability, which is similar to external validity, is in reference to whether the findings of this study can be transferred to other contexts. Since the participants of this study were not recruited from random sampling of Chinese college students, the results

were not generalizable to other contexts. However, the descriptive details provided not only for the procedure for data collection but also for data analysis will help readers in other contexts decide if the findings are applicable to similar settings.

Dependability, the third criteria, addresses the extent to which people not involved in this study can track the research process and determine which raw data were used to reach corresponding conclusions. The researcher has kept detailed records of the data collected and analysis procedures. The interview transcripts were first sent to the interviewees for “member checks.” In addition, an English-Chinese bilingual professional performed “peer examination” to verify the accuracy of the translation.

The fourth criterion, confirmability, refers to the objectivity of this study. With a qualitative approach, the researcher acknowledges that she brings her own background and experience that may influence the interpretation of data, and thus pure objectivity is impossible for this study. However, the researcher strived to maintain neutrality, by considering the ways in which her experience as a former Chinese college students and her experience in the US could influence the response of participants and planning strategies to minimize such effects. In addition, the researcher consistently challenged the data analysis by looking for negative cases and providing alternative explanations. By doing so, the findings of this study generated from the qualitative data became more dependable and confirmable.

### 3.4 Summary

As discussed in this chapter, the study adopted the “concurrent embedded strategy” of mixed methods design. In this approach, quantitative data from questionnaires and qualitative data from interviews were collected at the same time in the same visit to the field. The secondary qualitative data were embedded within the predominant quantitative data to provide a supporting role in the procedure. The participants of both questionnaires and interviews were selected using the accessible sampling method. After collecting the completed questionnaires, the researcher identified and contacted the volunteered interviewees. The interviews were conducted as soon as the time and place were confirmed between the researcher and the interviewees. All data, both quantitative and qualitative data, were collected from four universities in Wuhan, China.

Using research questions as the guiding principles, quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed separately, but complement with each other for interpretation. In addition, the qualitative data were used to triangulate and contextualize the quantitative data. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS, adopting descriptive statistics, correlations among variables, independent group t-tests, and One-Way Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs). Face-to-face, semi-structured interviews data were recorded, transcribed, translated, and analyzed through content analysis, by identifying common and recurring patterns and themes. After the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed independently, the findings were combined together. Since the main framework of this study is quantitative, the combination was mainly conducted by interpreting qualitative findings to explain quantitative results. However, the “combined method” is beneficial

not only for triangulation, but also for complementarity, in which overlapping and different facets of one phenomenon may emerge, as Creswell (1994) and Hammersley (1996) state. Therefore, the qualitative findings, as an important layer of the phenomena under investigation, were used to explain, extend, and contextualize the quantitative data.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the quantitative results of statistical analysis of questionnaires and qualitative results of content analysis of interviews. First, the demographic characteristics of participants are described. The statistical analysis procedures included descriptive statistics, correlations among variables, independent group t-tests, and One-Way Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs). The interview data were coded according to emergent themes. The identified recurring themes were examined in conjunction with the research questions for the purposes of explaining and expanding the quantitative data. The results are presented in the order of the research questions of the study.

#### 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants

This section reports research findings relevant to answer Research Question 1: **“What are the characteristics of the Chinese college students who participated in this study?”**

#### *4.1.1 Questionnaire Results*

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the participating college students are from four public universities in Wuhan, China. The chosen four universities are Wuhan University (a major research university directly under the administration of the Education Ministry of China), Huazhong Agricultural University (a major agricultural university directly under the administration of the Education Ministry of China), Huazhong Normal University (a major normal university/teachers college directly under the administration of the Education Ministry of China), and Jiangnan University (a regional university). Wuhan, the capital of Hubei province, is a major city in central China. College students in Wuhan come from all around the country. Therefore, the researcher reasonably assumes that the participants from these four universities could be representative of college students in other metropolitan cities in China, although such a claim is not made.

The total number of participants is 430. As stated at the beginning of the questionnaire, “By completing this questionnaire, you consent to participate in this study.” Thirty-two of the returned questionnaires were not complete, however, making the total response 398 with a response rate of 92.5%.

In the following table, demographic characteristics of age, starting age for learning English, and years spent in English learning are presented. The age of participants ranges from 17 to 24, with an average of 20. Their starting age for learning English ranges from 3 to 17, with an average age of 12 years old. Years spent in English learning range from 3 to 17, with a mean of 9 years. Therefore, the majority participants are aged around 20, and have spent approximately 9 years in learning English.



Demographic Characteristics	Mean	SD	Range
Age	20.2	1.1	7
Starting age for learning English	11.6	2.1	14
Years Spent in English Learning	8.6	2.0	14

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics of Age, Starting age for learning English, and Years Spent in English Learning

At 60% of the total, most of the participants are female. Fifty percent of the participants are freshmen. College majors of participants are varied and include 9 different disciplines (Mathematics, Computer Science, Electronic Engineering, Physics, Packaging Engineering, Chinese, Journalism, English and Law), and are roughly divided into two areas: science (65% of the participants) and social science (35% of the participants). The most frequent major is from Mathematics, representing 46% of the participants. In the following table, the characteristics of participants are presented in terms of their gender, grade in college, major, experience with Native English-speaking teachers, English knowledge of their parents, experience with friends who are Native-English-Speakers, and their international experience.

Demographic Characteristics	f	%
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	166	41.7
Female	232	58.3
<u>Grade in College</u>		
Freshman	204	51.3
Sophomore	99	24.9
Junior	95	23.9
<u>College Major</u>		
Science	260	65.3
Social Science	138	34.7
<u>Experience with native English-speaking teachers</u>		
No	227	57.0
Yes	171	43.0
<u>English Knowledge of Parents</u>		
No	353	88.7
Yes	45	11.3
<u>Experience with Friends Who are native English speakers</u>		
No	356	89.4
Yes	42	10.6
<u>International Experience</u>		
No	389	97.7
Yes	9	2.3

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of Gender, Grade in College, College Major, Experience with Native English-speaking teachers, English Knowledge of Parents, Experience with Friends of Native-English-Speakers, and International Experience (n=398)

In summary, nearly 60% of the questionnaire respondents are female versus 40% of them are male. Approximately one-half of the respondents are freshmen and the remaining one-half are sophomores and juniors. Regarding to majors, 65% of them are science majors while thirty-five percent are social science majors. Compared with 43% of them having learning experience with native English-speaking teachers, only 11% of them have friends who are native English speakers. Most of their parents do not have knowledge of English and very few of them have international experience.

#### *4.1.2 Interview Results*

At the end of the questionnaire, information about the interview purposes and process are provided. Questionnaire participants were asked to provide their contact information if they would like to participate in the follow-up interviews. Nearly 100 questionnaire respondents volunteered for the interviews. The researcher selected interviewees carefully in consideration of the diversity of the demographic information provided on the questionnaires. Each interview lasted about one-half an hour and was audio-recorded. Table 4 presents the personal profiles of interview participants.

The selected interviewees consisted of both genders: 8 males and 12 females in various stages of their college studies. Nine students are science majors, while 11 are social science majors. A majority of the participants have learning experience with native English-speaking teachers. More than one-half of them have friends who are native English speakers. One of them has international experience and most of their parents do not have knowledge of English.

The characteristics of the participants for both questionnaires and interviews are described in detail so that future studies can replicate the study in order to compare results.

Background	Number of Participants (%)
<u>Gender</u>	
Male	8 (40)
Female	12 (60)
<u>Grade in College</u>	
Freshman	6 (30)
Sophomore	11 (55)
Junior	3 (15)
<u>College Major</u>	
Science	9 (45)
Social Science	11 (55)
<u>Experience with native English-speaking teachers</u>	
No	2 (10)
Yes	18 (90)
<u>English Knowledge of Parents</u>	
No	12 (60)
Yes	8 (40)
<u>Experience with Friends who are native English speakers</u>	
No	9 (45)
Yes	11 (55)
<u>International Experience</u>	
No	19 (95)
Yes	1 (5)

Table 4: Background Information of Interview Participants (n=20)

## 4.2 Attitudes of Learners toward English

This part reports research findings relevant to answer Research Question 2:

### **“What are the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English?”**

#### *4.2.1 Questionnaire Results*

With regard to research questions 2 to 4, the quantitative results are interpreted following this rule: if the score is between 1 to 2.5, it is called a low attitude; if the score is between 2.5 to 3.5, it is called a medium attitude; if the score is between 3.5 to 4.5, it is

called a high attitude; if the score is between 4.5 to 6, it is called a very high attitude. Furthermore, a low attitude is interpreted as negative attitude; a medium attitude is interpreted as neutral attitude; and a high or very high attitude is interpreted as positive attitude.

Since the summated scale of items for each respondent is interval, a mean was calculated for each respondent; and the mean of all the respondents has also been calculated. Therefore, in the first domain, the mean of all respondents is 4.4, indicating that the participants hold a positive attitude toward English.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, 18 items were developed for the first domain. Items 1 to 6 were intended to measure attitudes of learners toward English in general; items 7 to 13 were exploring their attitudes toward varieties in English, in reference to the issue of standard, inner circle varieties of English, and non-native varieties of English; and items 14 to 18 were developed with the purpose of capturing their attitudes toward “China English.” The mean of all respondents for items 1 to 6 is 4.9, indicating that the attitude of participants toward English in general is positive. The mean of all respondents for items 7 to 13 is 4.3, indicating that the attitude of participants toward different varieties of English is positive. The mean of all respondents for items 14 to 18 is 4.1, indicating that the attitude of participants toward “China English” is also positive.

In order to examine each item in the first domain, the analysis included central tendency measures (median and mode), and calculating frequencies and percentages for the rating scales (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) for each item (Table 5).

Statement f / %	Disagreement %			Agreement %			MD	MO
	SD	D	SLD	SLA	A	SA		
1. English is an international language.	<u>1</u> .3	<u>3</u> .8	<u>6</u> 1.5	<u>13</u> 3.3	<u>179</u> 45.0	<u>196</u> 49.2	5	6
2. English is the language used most widely in the world.	<u>6</u> 1.5	<u>22</u> 5.5	<u>18</u> 4.5	<u>40</u> 10.1	<u>170</u> 42.7	<u>142</u> 35.7	5	5
3. Knowing English is important in understanding people from other countries.	<u>5</u> 1.3	<u>12</u> 3.0	<u>27</u> 6.8	<u>83</u> 20.9	<u>179</u> 45.0	<u>92</u> 23.1	5	5
4. Knowing English is important in understanding the cultures of English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.	<u>1</u> .3	<u>8</u> 2.0	<u>10</u> 2.5	<u>35</u> 8.8	<u>166</u> 41.7	<u>178</u> 44.7	5	6
5. If I have a chance, I would like to travel to English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.	<u>8</u> 2.0	<u>13</u> 3.3	<u>10</u> 2.5	<u>41</u> 10.3	<u>141</u> 35.4	<u>185</u> 2.0	5	6
6. I do not like learning English.	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>131</u> 32.9	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>74</u> 18.6	<u>43</u> 10.8	<u>32</u> 8.0	3	2
7. British English and American English are the major varieties of English in the world.	<u>80</u> 2.3	<u>191</u> 4.5	<u>74</u> 6.5	<u>26</u> 18.6	<u>18</u> 48.0	<u>9</u> 20.1	5	5
8. The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.	<u>12</u> 3.0	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>70</u> 17.6	<u>103</u> 25.9	<u>101</u> 25.4	<u>53</u> 13.3	4	4
9. Many varieties of English exist in the world.	<u>3</u> .8	<u>26</u> 6.5	<u>22</u> 5.5	<u>61</u> 15.3	<u>198</u> 49.7	<u>88</u> 22.1	5	5

Continued

Table 5: Attitudes toward English

Table 5 continued

10. The non-native English speakers can also speak Standard English. (Here, Standard English refers to English spoken in the English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.)	<u>2</u> 5	<u>13</u> 3.3	<u>8</u> 2.0	<u>30</u> 7.5	<u>213</u> 53.5	<u>132</u> 33.2	5	5
11. I want to learn American English rather than Singapore English.	<u>15</u> 3.8	<u>46</u> 11.6	<u>40</u> 10.1	<u>66</u> 16.6	<u>151</u> 37.9	<u>80</u> 20.1	5	5
12. As long as people understand me, it is not important which variety of English I speak.	<u>27</u> 6.8	<u>53</u> 13.3	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>67</u> 16.8	<u>122</u> 30.7	<u>70</u> 17.6	4	5
13. I have heard of the phrase "World Englishes."	<u>34</u> 13.3	<u>76</u> 36.7	<u>53</u> 9.0	<u>36</u> 13.3	<u>146</u> 19.1	<u>53</u> 8.5	2.5	2
14. I have heard of the phrase "China English."	<u>117</u> 3.0	<u>197</u> 5.3	<u>40</u> 2.8	<u>11</u> 10.1	<u>21</u> 49.5	<u>12</u> 29.4	5	5
15. Like "Singaporean English" and "Indian English," China should have its own variety of English: "China English."	<u>60</u> 15.1	<u>93</u> 23.4	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>50</u> 12.6	<u>81</u> 20.4	<u>55</u> 13.8	3	2
16. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker.	<u>159</u> 3.5	<u>148</u> 4.0	<u>43</u> 4.5	<u>18</u> 10.8	<u>16</u> 37.2	<u>14</u> 39.9	5	6
17. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.	<u>95</u> 6.5	<u>99</u> 16.8	<u>38</u> 18.3	<u>73</u> 9.5	<u>67</u> 24.9	<u>26</u> 23.9	4	5
18. I am not confident in speaking English because of my Chinese accent.	<u>49</u> 12.3	<u>74</u> 18.6	<u>47</u> 11.8	<u>94</u> 23.6	<u>92</u> 23.1	<u>42</u> 10.6	4	4

\* Strongly Disagree = SD, Disagree = D, Slightly Disagree = SLD, Slightly Agree = SLA, Agree = A, Strongly Agree = SA, Range / Item = 5

The questionnaire results indicate that the respondents recognized the status of English as an international language and its usefulness in communication with people from other countries, which is evident from the following facts: 97.5% of the participants

agree with the statement “English is an international language” (#1). In the same vein, the majority of the participants (89%) acknowledge that knowing English is important in understanding people from other countries (#3). A noteworthy result is item 6, “I do not like learning English.” Whereas in most items in that table, the participants generally had relatively strong reactions (either agree or disagree), for this one the responses were more mixed, as evidenced by the median (3) and mode (2) scores. These scores suggest few participants had strong feelings about this issue, compared to their generally strong reactions to other items. In light of some other results, such as where the participants strongly acknowledged the importance of English in China and a desire to have strong English skills, their lack of strong reactions to this item points out an important difference between how they feel about learning English as opposed to the recognition of its importance. In other words, the importance of English seemingly does not impact greatly on their feelings about studying the language. As discussed later in the interview results, one possible explanation for this finding is that some Chinese students feel they are “forced” to learn English. In China, English is a required course through primary school to university. Additionally, it is a compulsory subject in the two high-stakes standardized exams: National College Entrance Examination and College English Test – band 4 (CET-4). The students have to learn English because they know the importance of this language, although some of them do not like learning this language.

In addition, the analysis of the Likert-scale items from the questionnaires indicates that the students have mixed attitudes concerning different varieties of English. The majority of the respondents (87%) agreed with the statement that “Many varieties of



English exist in the world.”(#9) At the same time, a same percentage of the respondents (87%) believed that “British English and American English are the major varieties of English in the world.”(#7) and 65% of them consider English spoken by Indian people as not authentic (#8). This interesting finding indicates that these students are aware of different varieties of English, but they are more assertive with the privileged status of British and American English. Furthermore, few of them have heard of the phrase “World Englishes” (#13), as evidenced by the median (2.5) and mode (2) scores; whereas, a majority of them have heard of the phrase “China English” (#14) since both the median and mode scores are 5. This result reveals that the students are not familiar with the notion of World Englishes. Instead, they are more familiar with “China English.”

Another interesting finding is the comparison between items 16 and 17. In item 16, 88% of the respondents expressed agreement with the statement “When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker.” Meanwhile, 58% of them also agreed with the next item (#17), “When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.” This is a fascinating finding that the respondents wanted to sound like a native speaker of English and remain Chinese accents at the same time. The follow-up interviews provided possible reasons for the seemingly inconsistent responses of participants on the Likert-scale items. Such inconsistency may be due to their mixed attitudes toward varieties of English. Some students prefer native English pronunciation because of its international intelligibility and recognition while other students think it is an unrealistic goal for non-native English speakers to achieve native-like pronunciation. They also think it is understandable that

Chinese students speak English with an accent because English is not their first language. This issue is discussed in-depth in the interview results.

#### *4.2.2 Interview Results*

The majority of data presented in this chapter are from the primary data source: questionnaires. Data from the secondary source (student interviews) are also presented to enrich the discussion by supporting findings from the primary data. All of the interviews were conducted in Chinese. Relevant parts of the interviews, which could explain and extend the quantitative results, were transcribed and then translated into English. An English-Chinese bilingual professional verified the accuracy of the translation.

##### *4.2.2.1 Attitudes of Interviewees toward English*

All students who were interviewed agree that learning English is important to them for several reasons. The most common reasons are (1) English is an international language; (2) English is the main tool for communication with people from other countries; and (3) English plays an important role in future career development.

Most of the interviewees believe that English symbolizes internationalization and plays a crucial role in international communication. As the following quotations illustrate, the students acknowledge the function of English as a *lingua franca*.

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 1: English, as an international language, is important for China's development.

Interviewer: What do you think about English?

Interviewee 16: With the globalization, each part of the world has a closer connection. The spread of English contributes to the communication between different parts of the world.

Students are also attracted to the increasing opportunities provided by English for China to have intercultural communication with other countries. The following quotations elaborate this point:

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 5: Since China entered WTO, there are more and more contacts with the Western world. English, as a communication tool, contributes to build a friendly relationship among countries. So I think learning English is very important in China.

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 9: English is a window through which China gets to know the world and the world learns about China. It is a medium and tool. We learn this language in order to know Western countries and their cultures.

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 14: I think English is a tool. On one hand, it is for communication with foreigners. On the other hand, we can use English to introduce our culture to the world. So it is a medium for communication.

Some of them study English because it would allow them to access a wider range of information.

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 13: I enjoy learning English. I can get access to more information with this language than before.

They also express passion for English learning:

Interviewee 1: I admire those people who can speak English fluently. Also I feel accomplished when I learn English.

Interviewer: Do you mean when you make some progress in English learning, you have a sense of accomplishment?

Interviewee 1: Yes.

In addition, students believe that English is necessary for their future career development, namely job search and promotions.

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 5: I think learning English is very useful for my future career development. You know, it is a basic skill, because nowadays everybody needs to know English in this diversified society. So I think learning English is very important.

Interviewer: What do you think about learning English?

Interviewee 19: I think learning English is a necessary process to get adjusted in this modern society.

Some interviewees already know what they want to do for their career, and their career plans may require the knowledge of English. Others do not know exactly what they will do in the future, but they believe English is necessary for whatever they decide to do. In a word, most of them hold the view that the knowledge of English will broaden future possibilities for the job market.

#### *4.2.2.2 Attitudes of Interviewees toward Different Varieties of English*

First of all, for some students, North Americans and Europeans are the two groups who came to mind when they hear the term “English speakers.” Eight of the 20 interviewees (40%) acknowledge that only native speakers of English are the “English speakers.”

Interviewer: Who do you think of when you hear the term “English speakers”?

Interviewee 1: Foreigners. They are from a different culture. They have a lot of things different from us.

Interviewer: How do you define “foreigners”? For example, Japanese and Korean people are foreigners. Would you define them as “English speakers”? Or you think only people from English-speaking countries are “English speakers”?

Interviewee 1: People from English-speaking countries (are “English speakers”).

On the other hand, the remaining 12 interviewees (60%) define “English speakers” as people who use English for various purposes, regardless they are native speakers or not.

Interviewer: Who do you think of when you hear the term “English speakers”?

Interviewee 4: When I hear the phrase “English speakers,” I think of Americans, returned overseas graduates (it is also called returned talents after studying abroad) and international experts, because they speak English a lot.

Interviewer: No matter which country they are from?

Interviewee 4: No, as long as they are using English.

Interviewer: Who do you think of when you hear the term “English speakers”?

Interviewee 5: Foreigners who speak English, Chinese who are learning and using English, researchers on English language, people in companies using English to do business, and so on.

Interviewer: So you think people who are using English as “English speakers,” no matter whether English is their native language?

Interviewee 4: Yes, I think so.

Interviewer: Who do you think of when you hear the term “English speakers”?

Interviewee 8: “English speakers” are who speak English as their native language, like British or American people. Also, speakers of other Englishes like Japanese English or India English.

Interviewer: Would you categorize them as English speakers?

Interviewee 8: Yes, even though their pronunciation may not be standard, I think their reading and writing abilities in English are similar to that of native speakers. So I think they are also “English speakers.”

In addition, those 12 interviewees mentioned the following people as “English speakers”: Chinese English teachers, native English-speaking teachers, interpreters in international conferences, officials working in the United Nations, people from English-speaking countries, and Chinese students who have learned English for many years.

Even though many students acknowledge that the phrase “English speakers” are not restricted to people from English-speaking countries, they often express preferences for American and British English rather than other varieties of English. In the questionnaire, item 11 asked about their agreement with the statement: *I want to learn American English rather than Singapore English*. The majority of them (75%) agreed with that. In the interviews, they were asked to explain why they had this preference. The following quotations illustrate their impression of American English and Singapore English.

Interviewee 1: I think Singapore English is not authentic.

Interviewee 13: I feel Singapore English sounds awkward.

Interviewee 7: I like the accent of American English.

Interviewee 9: I want to learn American culture.

Interviewee 8: I am planning to go to the U.S.A. for graduate study. So I want to learn American English.

Interviewee 2: I think American English is used most widely in the world. You know, America is the leader in science, technology, and economics nowadays. So it is useful to learn American English well in order to communicate with American people.

Interviewee 4: I think we should learn authentic English. American English is the authentic English. To be frank, I have no idea what Singapore English is. I do not know what its distinct characteristics are.

All of the 20 interviewees prefer to learn American English, but one exception shows interest in Singapore English.

Interviewee 16: I think each country in the world has its own English. You do not have to learn the American accent, as long as you make yourself understood.

Their comments about outer circle varieties reveal ambivalent attitudes. The above quotation of interviewee 4 indicates that the lack of knowledge of outer circle varieties may lead the students to stick with the two major inner varieties of English—American and British English. They do not know English spoken in Singapore, and thus have no idea what Singapore English is like.

Most of the interviewees have heard of the terms “Hong Kong English” and “Singapore English,” although they have limited knowledge of these two varieties of English. In the interviews, they were asked this question: “If you were in Hong Kong or Singapore, do you think your English proficiency would be higher?” Fifteen of them (75%) said yes with the following reasons:

Interviewee 1: Yes, because I think the context is very important for English learning.

Interviewee 2: Yes, because people there start to learn English at a very young age. I think their English proficiency is higher than that of people in China.

Interviewee 14: In Singapore, English is the official language. So I think it is used more widely than it is in China.

The other 5 (25% of them) do not think their English proficiency will be necessarily higher if they were in Hong Kong or Singapore.

Interviewee 16: No, because I started to learn English at a very young age (5 years old). I think my pronunciation is as good as that of American people. It is mainly determined by what education you received in childhood, no matter where you are living, China or Singapore.

Interviewer: So you think starting to learn English at a very young age is very important?

Interviewee 16: Yes.

Interviewee 17: No, because I have some former classmates who study abroad now. And I found their English proficiency has not been improved. So I think the learning environment is not the determinable factor.

As presented above, although most of them think learning context plays a crucial role in their English proficiency, some are critical of the importance of English-speaking environments. They imply that attitudes and diligence are more important than learning context in determining the English proficiency that a student could achieve.

#### *4.2.2.3 Attitudes of Interviewees toward “China English”*

Whereas students have positive attitudes toward the English language, their attitudes are more complex when the context is specific to China. In the interviews, the participants were asked about their opinion regarding Chinese-accented English and “China English.” Seven interviewees (35% of them) were concerned about and expressed negative attitudes toward Chinese accents in pronunciation of English:

Interviewee 1: I think it is funny. If I heard a person speak English with a strong Chinese accent, I would think he/she did not learn English well.

Interviewee 2: I think it is an abnormal phenomenon. If people in different countries learn different varieties of English, then they might have misunderstanding in communication with each other, so I think people should learn authentic English.

At the same time, 13 of them (65%) demonstrate positive attitudes toward “China English.” They think it is acceptable, given that it is comprehensible. They also point out that “China English” embodies Chinese ways of thinking, which makes it easier for them to understand.



Interviewee 3: I think it does not matter... (You can speak “China English”) as long as people understand you. English is just a communication tool. It is not for performance.

Interviewee 4: It is OK if I can understand what he/she is talking about.

Interviewee 10: I think it is normal. We learn English in order to communicate with foreigners; anyway we are not native speakers of English.

Interviewee 14: It is normal that people in China do not speak the same English with people grown up in English-speaking countries. I think it is understandable.

Interviewee 15: I am glad that people pay attention to “China English” recently. Language developed in each country should bear its own local characteristics. People are free to speak “China English” or Singapore English, as long as they do not have difficulty in communication with each other.

Interviewee 19: I think “China English” is the localization of English in China. “China English” embodies Chinese culture; it would benefit Chinese people to learn English.

In summary, students in general have positive attitudes toward the English language. They consider English to be important for its usefulness in international communication and educational/career advancements. They are aware that “English speakers” are not restricted to people from English-speaking countries. They also believe that different varieties of English are acceptable, but their knowledge of language varieties is limited. Although some students show negative attitudes toward Chinese-accented English, the majority think “China English” is acceptable, as long as it is comprehensible.

### 4.3 Attitudes of Learners toward the Current English Education Policies

This part reports research findings relevant to answer Research Question 3:

**“What are their attitudes toward the current English education policies of national government in China?”**

#### *4.3.1 Questionnaire Results*

Since the summated scale of items for each respondent is interval, a mean was calculated for each respondent; and the mean of all the respondents has also been calculated. Therefore, for the second domain, the mean of all respondents is 3.5, indicating that the participants hold a neutral attitude toward the current English education policies of national government in China.

Same with the first domain, this section also includes 18 items. First, central tendency measures (median and mode) for each item was calculated for data analysis. Then, frequencies and percentages for the rating scales (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) for each item were also calculated (Table 6).

Statement f / %	Disagreement %			Agreement %			MD	MO
	SD	D	SLD	SLA	A	SA		
19. All Chinese students should learn English.	<u>90</u> 22.6	<u>98</u> 24.6	<u>71</u> 17.8	<u>45</u> 11.3	<u>65</u> 16.3	<u>29</u> 7.3	3	2
20. Chinese college students should use English in either spoken or written communications among each other.	<u>103</u> 25.9	<u>94</u> 23.6	<u>70</u> 17.6	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>57</u> 14.3	<u>15</u> 3.8	3	1
21. English education should start from elementary school in China.	<u>56</u> 14.1	<u>43</u> 10.8	<u>40</u> 10.1	<u>74</u> 18.6	<u>132</u> 33.2	<u>53</u> 13.3	4	5
22. English should not be a compulsory subject in the National College Entrance Examination in China.	<u>65</u> 9.5	<u>61</u> 26.4	<u>65</u> 16.1	<u>64</u> 16.3	<u>105</u> 15.3	<u>38</u> 16.3	3	2
23. I would not take English if it were not a compulsory subject in school.	<u>70</u> 5.0	<u>136</u> 6.8	<u>75</u> 12.1	<u>54</u> 31.4	<u>36</u> 34.4	<u>27</u> 10.3	2	2
24. If English were not taught at school, I would study it on my own.	<u>20</u> 5.0	<u>27</u> 6.8	<u>48</u> 12.1	<u>125</u> 31.4	<u>137</u> 34.4	<u>41</u> 10.3	4	5
25. Oral language skills are more important than literacy skills in college English education.	<u>14</u> 3.5	<u>27</u> 6.8	<u>47</u> 11.8	<u>66</u> 16.6	<u>145</u> 36.4	<u>99</u> 24.9	5	5
26. College English classes should be entirely conducted in English.	<u>25</u> 6.3	<u>53</u> 13.3	<u>87</u> 21.9	<u>78</u> 19.6	<u>96</u> 24.1	<u>59</u> 14.8	4	5
27. College English classes should be conducted in both English and Chinese.	<u>21</u> 5.3	<u>55</u> 13.8	<u>61</u> 15.3	<u>74</u> 18.6	<u>136</u> 34.2	<u>51</u> 12.8	4	5
28. Besides English classes, other college classes, such as math, should be also conducted in English.	<u>100</u> 25.1	<u>148</u> 37.2	<u>94</u> 23.6	<u>37</u> 9.3	<u>15</u> 3.8	<u>4</u> 1.0	2	2

Continued

Table 6: Attitudes toward the Current English Education Policies

Table 6 continued

29. CET-4 (College English Test – band 4) should not be a requirement for obtaining a university degree in China.	<u>19</u> 4.8	<u>63</u> 15.8	<u>68</u> 17.1	<u>59</u> 14.8	<u>107</u> 26.9	<u>82</u> 20.6	4	5
30. I am satisfied with the English education policies in China.	<u>88</u> 22.1	<u>123</u> 30.9	<u>110</u> 27.6	<u>54</u> 13.6	<u>20</u> 5.0	<u>3</u> .8	2	2
31. I am satisfied with the college English education curriculum in China.	<u>66</u> 16.6	<u>88</u> 22.1	<u>117</u> 29.4	<u>71</u> 17.8	<u>51</u> 12.8	<u>5</u> 1.3	3	3
32. I am satisfied with the English learning textbooks and other materials used in our school.	<u>41</u> 10.3	<u>61</u> 15.3	<u>84</u> 21.1	<u>123</u> 30.9	<u>83</u> 20.9	<u>6</u> 1.5	4	4
33. I am satisfied with the English teaching methods used in our school.	<u>52</u> 13.1	<u>72</u> 18.1	<u>95</u> 23.9	<u>114</u> 28.6	<u>58</u> 14.6	<u>7</u> 1.8	3	4
34. American English is the best model for Chinese learners of English.	<u>23</u> 5.8	<u>70</u> 17.6	<u>102</u> 25.6	<u>107</u> 26.9	<u>78</u> 19.6	<u>18</u> 4.5	4	4
35. British English is the best model for Chinese learners of English.	<u>25</u> 6.3	<u>76</u> 19.1	<u>132</u> 33.2	<u>112</u> 28.1	<u>44</u> 11.1	<u>9</u> 2.3	3	3
36. I prefer native speakers rather than non-native speakers as my English teachers.	<u>10</u> 2.5	<u>42</u> 10.6	<u>56</u> 14.1	<u>77</u> 19.3	<u>146</u> 36.7	<u>67</u> 16.8	5	5

\* Strongly Disagree = SD, Disagree = D, Slightly Disagree = SLD, Slightly Agree = SLA, Agree = A, Strongly Agree = SA, Range / Item = 5

As shown in the above table, the questionnaire respondents were not satisfied with the English education policies in China (#30), since both the median and mode scores are 2. Respectively, their perceptions about the implementation of English education in elementary school, English as a compulsory subject in the National College Entrance Exam, and the national standardized College English Test were examined. According to

the questionnaire results, 65% of the respondents agreed that “English education should start from elementary school in China” (#21); 48% of them thought that “English should not be a compulsory subject in the National College Entrance Examination in China” (#22); and 62% of the participants argued that “CET-4 (College English Test – band 4) should not be a requirement for obtaining a university degree in China” (#29). This state of affairs suggests that the students are supportive of the policy that early English education begins at Grade 3 in elementary schools (Hu, 2008). However, they argue against the practice that college students have to pass the national standardized college English test (CET-4) in order to obtain a bachelor’s degree. This issue is also frequently mentioned by students participated in the follow-up interviews. They argue that not everyone needs to be proficient in English, since some students will not use English frequently in their future jobs. Therefore, it is not fair for every college students to be expected to achieve the same benchmarks of English language proficiency.

An important finding is that 78% the respondents regard oral language skills more important than literacy skills in college English education (#25). In relation to this, a majority of them prefer native speakers rather than non-native speakers as their English teachers (#36), as evidenced by the median (5) and mode (5) scores. Given the fact that English plays a more critical role in the field of information technology, finance, foreign trade, and law in China, more college graduates with strong English communication abilities are needed. Consequently, Chinese college students have also acknowledged the importance of oral language skills and expect to receive instruction particularly in spoken English. In order to understand students’ preference for native English-speaking

teachers, the context of English education in public schools needs to be taken into consideration. In China, Chinese English language teachers shoulder the responsibility of preparing students for standardized exams while native English-speaking teachers are recruited only for oral English courses. Since the students have high expectation for improving their English communication skills, they show strong preference for oral English classes conducted by native English-speaking teachers.

Along with English as an important school subject throughout China, a number of colleges and universities have experimented with the use of English as a teaching medium (Nunan 2003). The questionnaire also investigated the attitudes of students toward English as a medium of instruction. Approximately 59% of the respondents think “College English classes should be entirely conducted in English” (#26) while 66% of them consider that: “College English classes should be conducted in both English and Chinese” (#27). Only 14% of the questionnaire respondents agree that “Besides English classes, other college classes, such as math, should be also conducted in English” (#28). This result suggests evidence in favor of English classes conducted entirely in English and those conducted in both English and Chinese. This seemingly contradictory result could be explained by the fact that some students prefer the English-only classes so they can have the context to learn this language while other students favor English classes conducted in both English and Chinese because they see the usefulness of Chinese in helping them understand the course content. What is notable is that most of the students do not think it is necessary to conduct other school subjects, such as math, in English. This finding suggests that the participants are not supportive of the policy implemented in

September 2001 which calls for all colleges and universities under the control of the Ministry of Education to use English as the main teaching language in information technology, biotechnology, new-material technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and law courses (Nunan, 2003). Therefore, it seems that the policy on content-based English instruction (CBEI) should be reviewed taking into account of the students' perceptions.

#### *4.3.2 Interview Results*

In the interviews with the students, English education policies were an unavoidable topic, since they had been required to learn English for approximately nine years. For Chinese college students, English classes constitute the most significant contact with the language, both in terms of the intensity and level of personal investment. In fact, their satisfaction with college English instruction varies in different contexts. Most of them have learning experience with native English-speaking teachers. Therefore, their preference for native English-speaking teachers and Chinese English teachers and their expectation for a good English teacher are also discussed in this section.

##### *4.3.2.1 Attitudes of Interviewees toward English Education policies in China*

In the questionnaire, participants were asked about their opinions concerning the English education policies and practices in China. In general, the participants hold a neutral attitude (3.5/6.0) toward the current English education policies of the Chinese national government, as evidenced by the fact that 81% of the questionnaire respondents

were not satisfied with the English education policies in China (#30). This result is consistent with the interview results that most of the interviewees revealed concerns about English education policies in China. The majority of interviewees affirm that the Chinese government has attached much importance to English education. However, most of them think they learn English solely for passing exams, and they are not satisfied with their spoken English. Some of them also express concerns about this “utilitarian type of education.” The following quotations elaborate this point:

Interviewer: What are your thoughts on the English education policy in China?

Interviewee 9: I think nowadays English education in China is kind of the utilitarian type of education. Some students learn English for earning high scores in exams, such as TOEFL and GRE to going abroad. And some of them are working hard to achieve high oral English proficiency in order to get a good job offer. As I know, few of them learn English because they like English or they have interests in this language.

Interviewee 4: All Chinese are learning English nowadays.

Interviewer: So what is your opinion about this phenomenon? Do you think it is good or bad?

Interviewee 4: Well, it is good to learn more. But some students are just learning English to get high scores in standardized exams, such as TOEFL and IELTS. They can not speak English well and they do not know how to use this language for communication.

At the same time, some interviewees do not think English is as important as the government believes. They argue that not everyone needs to be proficient in English. And they do not believe that it should be necessary to pass the national standardized college English test (CET-4) in order to obtain a bachelor’s degree.

Interviewer: What are your thoughts on the English education policy in China?

Interviewee 12: You know, China actively participates in the international affairs nowadays. The nationwide English education is the symbol of its participation. Objectively, it promotes the English education. However, sometimes it goes too far.



For example, we have to pass the CET-4 (College English Test – band 4) in order to get the bachelor’s degree. That is too much.

Interviewer: What are your thoughts on the English education policy in China?

Interviewee 10: I like the old Chinese saying “teaching students according to their aptitude.” To be frank, I really do not understand why all the college students in China have to achieve certain benchmarks of English language proficiency, no matter what are their majors. If my future job is closely related to English, OK, it is reasonable I should learn it well. However, some students are learning Chinese linguistics. Why do they have to learn English? I surely do not understand.

Some of them also mentioned the imbalanced development of English education within China. They suggested that the government should implement appropriate policy according to the local condition of English education to solve this problem.

Interviewee 8: Because of the imbalanced economic development within China, there are regional differences in English education.

Interviewer: So how do you think those differences? Do you think the central government should balance the investment on English education in different areas?

Interviewee 8: Well, on the macro level, the central government should implement regional inclination on those underdeveloped areas. Meanwhile, they should encourage and support the continued development of English education in well-developed areas.

In addition, the interviewees indicate that it is unfair for students from underdeveloped areas to be expected to achieve the same benchmarks as students in developed regions for college entrance exams and CET-4 (College English Test – band 4).

#### *4.3.2.2 Attitudes of Interviewees toward College English Instruction in China*

Some items (#26) in the questionnaire addressed the possible use of English as a medium of instruction. In college English classes, about 59% of the students believe that

conducting the class entirely in English will help them improve their English proficiency.

Interviewee 20, for example, expresses dissatisfaction with current English classes saying that lessons do not help her to communicate.

Interviewer: What do you think about the college English instruction in China?

Interviewee 20: To be frank, I am not satisfied with my current English teacher's way of teaching of. Firstly, I do not like that she switches back and forth from English to Chinese. Since I am learning English, the class should be conducted entirely in English. Even though there are some words I do not understand, I prefer to guess its meaning rather than the teacher translates it for me. Secondly, I lack the context and opportunity to use English for communication in English class.

Some students are interested in English but are frustrated with English classes and teachers because the oral communication skills which they think should be addressed are not being addressed in class. Nine of the interviewees (45%) are satisfied with the current college English instruction; whereas 11 of them (55%) are dissatisfied with that. They complained, "we work hard to learn English, but could not use it well" and "there is no context to use English for us." They also claim that the textbooks are dated and the content is unappealing. Students, in general, believe that the goals of English instruction should focus on communication skills, particularly oral.

#### *4.3.2.3 Attitudes of Interviewees toward a good English teacher*

In the interviews, the students were asked this question: "How do you define a good English teacher?" In response, the students generally expect that a good English teacher has a high English proficiency, excellent teaching methods, and engaging personalities which could motivate them to learn this language. The most frequently mentioned qualifications of good English teachers are summarized in the following table:

Definition of a Good English Teacher	Specific Qualifications
High English Proficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Knowledgeable about the English language</li> <li>● High proficiency in English conversation</li> <li>● Able to teach western culture and the way of thinking in the western world</li> </ul>
Excellent Teaching Methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Students-centered</li> <li>● Train students to be self-learners</li> <li>● Facilitate students to use English in communication with each other</li> <li>● Multiple ways of teaching, such as playing English movies and talk-shows and asking students to write movie reviews or giving presentations</li> </ul>
Engaging Personalities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Passionate</li> <li>● Patient</li> <li>● A good guider</li> <li>● Know learners' needs</li> <li>● Motivate students to learn English</li> <li>● Making the learning process enjoyable</li> </ul>

Table 7: Definition of a Good English Teacher

An interesting and fundamental finding of questionnaire results is that a majority of the respondents prefer native speakers rather than non-native speakers as their English teachers (#36). In the interviews, however, attitudes of participants are more complex: 20% of them prefer native English speakers as their English teachers while 45% of them prefer Chinese English teachers, 20% have no preference, and the remaining 15% want to have both native English-speaking teachers and Chinese English teachers. This group believes that Chinese teachers are good at teaching grammar, but that native English-speaking teachers provide the best models to learn oral English. Those students who prefer Chinese English teachers are concerned with problems in communication with native English-speaking teachers caused by cultural differences, and they think native

English-speaking teachers do not understand the education system in China. The following two quotations further illustrate their preference for Chinese English teachers.

Interviewee 19: Chinese English teachers share the same culture with us. They know my difficulties in learning English. They understand Chinese students' way of thinking

Interviewee 20: The sole advantage of native English-speaking teachers is their native pronunciation. If a Chinese teacher of English has near-native pronunciation, I would choose the Chinese teacher.

In order to better understand the beliefs of these students, the context of English education in public schools needs to be taken into consideration. In China, Chinese English language teachers shoulder the responsibility of preparing students for standardized exams, such as the college entrance exam, CET-4 (College English Test – band 4), and CET-6 (College English Test – band 6). Native English-speaking teachers are recruited only for oral English courses or introduction courses to western culture. Therefore, students usually assume that Chinese teachers of English are good at grammar and exams while native English-speaking teachers are experts in oral English and communication skills.

With regards to gender, 17 interviewees (85%) do not show any preference. Three male students (15%) prefer female English teachers, since they feel female teachers are more affable than male teachers are.

To conclude, the majority of interviewees acknowledge the efforts that the central government has made to promote English education in China. Some of them, however, reveal concerns about this “utilitarian type of education,” since most of the students focus solely on obtaining high scores on English exams. They suggest the policymakers should

shift focus from the scores on standardized exams to the English communication skills of the students. Some interviewees also point out that the importance of English is overemphasized. They argue that not everyone needs to be proficient in English. Considering the fact that some students in China are forced to learn English, as the interviewees suggest, students should learn English because they want to learn it. Regarding English teachers, some of them imply that the quality of English teachers in China should be improved. The students expect that a good English teacher has a high English proficiency, excellent teaching methods, and engaging personalities which could motivate them to learn this language.

#### 4.4 Attitudes of Learners toward the Purposes for Learning English

This part reports research findings relevant to answer Research Question 4:

**“What are their attitudes toward the purposes for which Chinese college students learn English?”**

##### *4.4.1 Questionnaire Results*

Since the summated scale of items for each respondent is interval, a mean was calculated for each respondent; and the mean of all the respondents has also been calculated. Therefore, for the third domain, the mean of all respondents is 4.1, indicating that the participants hold a positive attitude toward the purposes of Chinese students for learning English.

This section includes 10 items. For each item, central tendency measures (median and mode) were calculated. In addition, frequencies and percentages for the rating scales (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) for each item were also calculated (Table 8).

Statement f / %	Disagreement %			Agreement %			MD	MO
	SD	D	SLD	SLA	A	SA		
37. In China, knowing English is more useful than knowing any other foreign language.	<u>41</u> 10.3	<u>92</u> 23.1	<u>85</u> 21.4	<u>61</u> 15.3	<u>87</u> 21.9	<u>32</u> 8.0	3	2
38. Learning English is important for me, because English is a very useful tool in contemporary society.	<u>9</u> 2.3	<u>14</u> 3.5	<u>18</u> 4.5	<u>73</u> 18.3	<u>191</u> 48.0	<u>93</u> 23.4	5	5
39. I learn English to catch up with economic and technological developments in the world.	<u>12</u> 3.0	<u>33</u> 8.3	<u>61</u> 15.3	<u>103</u> 25.9	<u>143</u> 35.9	<u>46</u> 11.6	4	5
40. Before entering university, an important purpose for my English learning was to obtain high scores in the National College Entrance Examination.	<u>13</u> 3.3	<u>30</u> 7.5	<u>28</u> 7.0	<u>69</u> 17.3	<u>157</u> 39.4	<u>101</u> 25.4	5	5
41. An important purpose for my English learning is to obtain a university degree.	<u>30</u> 7.5	<u>76</u> 19.1	<u>71</u> 17.8	<u>81</u> 20.4	<u>104</u> 26.1	<u>36</u> 9.0	4	5
42. An important purpose for my English learning is to get a decent job.	<u>15</u> 3.8	<u>44</u> 11.1	<u>58</u> 14.6	<u>94</u> 23.6	<u>137</u> 34.4	<u>50</u> 12.6	4	5
43. An important purpose for my English learning is to obtain high scores in English examinations, such as CET-4, CET-6, and TOEFL.	<u>20</u> 5.0	<u>70</u> 17.6	<u>70</u> 17.6	<u>83</u> 20.9	<u>107</u> 26.9	<u>48</u> 12.1	4	5

Continued

Table 8: Attitudes toward the Purposes for Learning English

Table 8 continued

44. I learn English in order to obtain better education and job opportunities abroad.	<u>23</u> 5.8	<u>64</u> 16.1	<u>79</u> 19.8	<u>98</u> 24.6	<u>88</u> 22.1	<u>46</u> 11.6	4	4
45. I learn English so that I can go abroad to experience English-speaking cultures.	<u>19</u> 4.8	<u>62</u> 15.6	<u>89</u> 22.4	<u>103</u> 25.9	<u>98</u> 24.6	<u>27</u> 6.8	4	4
46. My parents believe that learning English is important.	<u>11</u> 2.8	<u>21</u> 5.3	<u>31</u> 7.8	<u>63</u> 15.8	<u>168</u> 42.2	<u>104</u> 26.1	5	5

\* Strongly Disagree = SD, Disagree = D, Slightly Disagree = SLD, Slightly Agree = SLA, Agree = A, Strongly Agree = SA, Range / Item = 5

In the questionnaire, 10 items were developed to investigate the purposes for which Chinese college students learn English. These 10 items were elaborated from previous studies on the motivations and attitudes of Chinese English learners (Chen et al., 2005; Gao et al., 2007; Young, 2006). The analysis results reveal that the students hold a positive attitude toward the purposes of Chinese students for learning English. This finding corroborates the results of previous studies and suggests that the purposes of Chinese students for learning English remain unchanged, namely, while 90% of the questionnaire respondents agree that knowing English is important, because English is a very useful tool in contemporary society (#38) and English can help them catch up with economic and technological developments in the world (#39); they also learn English because it is tested in a national standardized exam. For example, 82% of them admit that before entering university, their motivation to study English was to obtain high scores in the National College Entrance Examination (#40). Now, an important purpose for their English learning is to get high scores in English examinations (#43) in order to obtain a

university degree (#41), as evidenced by the median (4) and mode (5) scores. Interview data corroborated the questionnaire results as discussed in the next section. .

The questionnaire results also indicate that the respondents think English will play an important role in their future life. Approximately 71% of them agree that they learn English in order to fulfill future job requirements (#42) and 58% of them learn English to pursue continued education opportunities abroad (#44). In addition, 84% of the respondents admit that their parents believe that learning English is important, which indicates that parents may influence their motivations for learning English.

#### *4.4.2 Interview Results*

In the interviews, the students were asked about their purposes for learning English. Most of their responses are overlapping with the 10 items in the questionnaire discussed above. In general, students are motivated by the immediate goal before them—to do well on the CET-4 exam (College English Test – band 4), which is required in order to get a bachelor’s degree. However, they also believe that the real goal should be the acquisition of English communication skills, because they consider English to be very useful in their future career development.

Some of the students study English in order to learn western cultures. Others are interested in English and want to become proficient in English because English is a medium for them to achieve future goals.

Interviewee 7: I have a passion for English. I want to learn it well to travel abroad.

Interviewee 11: I have a desire to learn English, because I want to go abroad for graduate study.



When the students were asked how they would use English in the future, they believe that English will play a crucial role in their future life: (1) to fulfill job requirements, such as working in foreign enterprises or in the field of foreign trade; (2) for the academic and continued education purposes, for instance, reading books and articles in international journals, browsing English websites, and learning advanced technology; and (3) for entertainment, such as watching English movies and listening English music. In a word, they consider English to be very useful in their future lives and career development.

One thing interesting is that all the interviewees are not satisfied with their current English proficiency. They complained, “my oral English is not good”; “my English vocabulary is limited”; and “I lack practical communication skills, for example, I do not know how to introduce Chinese culture to foreigners in English.” So they aim to achieve such English proficiency that they have no difficulty in communicating with foreigners, reading English articles and newspaper, and writing academic papers.

Overall, Chinese college students are motivated to learn English for various reasons. The short-term goal is to pass standardized exams such as CET-4, TOEFL, and GRE; and the long-term goal is to acquire communication skills. Although they are not satisfied with their current English proficiency, the students are working on goals they themselves have set.

#### 4.5 Relationship between Demographic Characteristics and Attitudes of Participants

This part reports research findings relevant to answer Research Question 5:

**“What factors may explain the variability of their attitudes, such as gender, age, grade, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience?”**

##### *4.5.1 Questionnaire Results*

This part summarizes and discusses the findings about the relationships of attitudes of learners with each of the factors concerned in Research Question 5. Correlations among variables, independent group t-tests, and One-Way Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs) were performed to examine the possible associations between selected demographic characteristics and the attitudinal measurements. Table 9 summarizes the associations found between the ten demographic characteristics (gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of parents, teachers, and peers, and international experience) and the three attitudinal measurements (attitudes toward English, attitudes toward the current English education policies, and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English).

In this study, Davis' (1971) convention is used for describing the magnitude of correlation coefficients (see Table 1). The majority of the Cramer's V values found moderate associations among variables (values of .20 and less than .50). However, according to Davis (1971), international experience of participants and their attitudes toward the purposes for learning English had a substantial association ( $crv = .54$ ).

Negligible Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) and Spearman rank-order coefficients ( $r_s$ ) were obtained for all the variables except for years spent in English learning and their attitudes toward English ( $r = .11$ ) and grade in college and their attitudes toward English ( $r_s = .14$ ). These findings can be interpreted using a coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ).

Squaring ( $r = .11$ ) produced a value of .0121. When .0121 is multiplied by 100, the value can be interpreted as 1.2%. This means that 98.8% of the variability ( $1 - r^2$ ) in attitudes of learners toward English is unexplained by their years spent in English learning. Although the correlation is low (Davis, 1971), a relationship does exist between years spent in English learning and their attitudes toward English. The longer a student has studied English, the more likely he/she has positive attitudes toward English.

For  $r_s = .14$ , grade in college explains 2.0% of the variability in their attitudes toward English. Grade level and attitudes toward English also had a low correlation coefficient (Davis, 1971). The result suggests that the higher grade a college student is in, the more likely he/she has positive attitudes toward English. This finding could be explained by the fact that the higher grade a student is in, the longer he/she has studied English, and thus the more likely he/she has positive attitudes toward English. In light of interview findings, some interviewees also state that the longer they learn English, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes toward English.

	Attitudes toward English	Attitudes toward English Education policies	Attitudes toward Purposes for Learning English
Gender	.32 <sup>c</sup>	.35 <sup>c</sup>	.32 <sup>c</sup>
Age	-.01 <sup>a</sup>	-.02 <sup>a</sup>	-.04 <sup>a</sup>
Grade in College	.14 <sup>b</sup>	-.02 <sup>b</sup>	.04 <sup>b</sup>
College Major	.30 <sup>c</sup>	.32 <sup>c</sup>	.28 <sup>c</sup>
Starting age for learning English	-.08 <sup>a</sup>	.07 <sup>a</sup>	.00 <sup>a</sup>
Years Spent in English Learning	.11 <sup>a</sup>	-.06 <sup>a</sup>	-.03 <sup>a</sup>
Experience with native English-speaking teachers	.33 <sup>c</sup>	.29 <sup>c</sup>	.30 <sup>c</sup>
English Knowledge of Parents	.33 <sup>c</sup>	.33 <sup>c</sup>	.32 <sup>c</sup>
Experience with friends who are native English speakers	.28 <sup>c</sup>	.41 <sup>c</sup>	.32 <sup>c</sup>
International Experience	.25 <sup>c</sup>	.12 <sup>c</sup>	.54 <sup>c</sup>

\*a=r (Pearson correlation coefficient)

b=r<sub>s</sub> (Spearman rank correlation coefficient)

c=crv(Cramer's V)

Table 9: Association between Demographic Characteristics (gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, influence of teachers, parents, and peers, and international experience) and Attitudes of Learners toward English, the Current English Education Policies and Practices in China, and the Purposes for Learning English

In order to further examine associations between selected demographic characteristics and the attitudinal measurements, independent group t-tests and One-Way Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs) were performed to identify significant differences among dichotomous nominal variables (i.e., gender, major, influence of teachers, parents, and peers, and international experience), multichotomous nominal variables (i.e., grade in college and starting age for learning English), and the dependent variables (attitudes

toward English, attitudes toward the current English education policies, and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English).

A Likert scale, referred to as a summated rating scale, was used to generate means summed across items. The sums are assumed to be internal in scale of measurement. An alpha level of .05 was appropriate and is commonly used in the social sciences.

Table 10 presents the t-tests for the independent groups of six dichotomous nominal variables (gender, major, influence of teachers, parents, and peers, and international experience) and three dependent variables (attitudes toward English, attitudes toward the current English education policies, and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English). Significant differences were found in three groups: major and attitudes toward English, experience with native English-speaking teachers and attitudes toward English, and international experience and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English. Results found those majoring in social science had significantly higher attitudes toward English than those majoring in science with a small effect size ( $d = .46$ ). Participants having experience with native English-speaking teachers had significantly higher attitudes toward English than those without this experience with a small effect size ( $d = .36$ ). And participants without international experience had significantly higher attitudes toward the purposes for learning English than those that had this experience with a large effect size ( $d = .80$ ). Since statistical significance is greatly affected by sample size, effect sizes were calculated to examine the practical significance. In this study, Cohen's "effect size" index (Cohen, 1988, pp. 19-74) was adopted to describe the magnitude of relationships.

An interesting and important finding from Table 10 is that social science students had significantly higher attitudes toward English than science students did. In fact, in the follow-up interviews, a similar emergent theme is that compared with science students, social science students had more positive attitudes toward English. The reason is that social science students, such as English, Journalism and Law majors, see the usefulness of English in their future career advancement. Instead, most of the science majors do not think they will use English frequently in their future jobs. Another fascinating but fundamental issue is that students having experience with native English-speaking teachers had more positive attitudes toward English than those without this experience. This finding is also evidenced from following interview results. Most of the interviewees regarded their learning experience with native English-speaking teachers as enjoyable, enlightening and fruitful. However, they often expressed disappointment with the dull lectures of grammar and exercises conducted by Chinese English teachers. Therefore, the students are more motivated to learn English with native English-speaking teachers. The third finding from Table 10 is that students without international experience had more positive attitudes toward the purposes for learning English than those that had this experience. This result has not been verified by the interview findings. In fact, only 2.3% (9/398) of the participants had international experience. Therefore, future studies with a larger sample of students with experience traveling abroad may provide a different perspective.

	Attitudes toward English			Attitudes toward English education policies			Attitudes toward the purposes for learning English		
	mean (sd)	df	t	mean (sd)	df	t	mean (sd)	df	t
<u>Gender</u>									
Female(n=232)	4.44(.43)	396	-.33	3.54(.44)	396	1.69	4.05(.57)	396	-.51
Male(n=166)	4.45(.40)			3.47(.41)			4.08(.65)		
<u>Major</u>									
Science(n=260)	4.38(.43)	396	-4.40*	3.53(.42)	396	.36	4.05(.61)	396	-.58
Social science(n=138)	4.60(.36)			3.5(.43)			4.09(.60)		
<u>Experience with native English-speaking teachers</u>									
No(n=227)	4.38(.40)	396	-3.55*	3.50(.44)	396	-.55	4.10(.60)	396	1.16
Yes(n=171)	4.53 (.42)			3.53(.42)			4.03(.60)		
<u>English Knowledge of Parents</u>									
No(n=353)	4.44(.42)	396	-1.50	3.51(.43)	396	-.92	4.07(.59)	396	.31
Yes(n=45)	4.53(.40)			3.57(.43)			4.04(.68)		
<u>Experience with friends who are native English speakers</u>									
No(n=356)	4.44(.42)	396	-.69	3.52(.43)	396	1.18	4.08(.60)	396	1.00
Yes(n=42)	4.49(.36)			3.44(.40)			3.98(.60)		
<u>International experience</u>									
No(n=389)	4.45(.42)	396	.014	3.51(.43)	396	.32	4.08(.60)	396	2.36*
Yes(n=9)	4.44(.33)			3.47(.22)			3.60(.79)		

\* =  $p < .05$ . Standard Deviations appear in parentheses after means.

Table 10: Independent Group t-tests between Dichotomous Nominal Variables (gender, major, influence of teachers, parents and peers, and international experience) and the Dependent Variables (attitudes toward English, attitudes toward English education policies, and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English).

Table 11 presents the statistical findings of ANOVA that was performed to identify significant differences between the multichotomous nominal variables (grade in college) and the dependent variables (attitudes toward English, attitudes toward the current English education policies, and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English). The participants were from three grades in college: freshmen, sophomore, and junior. Significant differences were found among grade in college and the attitudes toward English and toward English education policies. To further examine the differences, the post-hoc tests (Table 12) found that juniors had significantly higher score on the attitudes toward English than freshmen did with a small effect size ( $f = .14$ ). The same post-hoc tests (Table 13) found that juniors had significantly higher score on the attitudes toward English education policies than sophomores did with a small effect size at  $f = .15$  (Cohen, 1988). These results indicate that compared with freshmen and sophomores, juniors had more positive attitudes toward English and English education policies in China. This finding is also consistent with the previous result that the higher grade a college student is in, the more likely he/she has positive attitudes toward English.



Attitudes toward English		Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	
	n	204	99	95	
	Mean	4.40	4.46	4.54	
	sd	.45	.37	.36	
	Source	df	ss	ms	F
	Between Groups	2	1.29	.65	3.81*
	Within Groups	395	67.01	.17	f = .14
	Total	397	68.31		
Attitudes toward English education policies		Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	
	n	204	99	95	
	Mean	3.53	3.41	3.58	
	sd	.44	.39	.41	
	Source	df	ss	ms	F
	Between Groups	2	1.56	.78	4.35*
	Within Groups	395	70.93	.18	f = .15
	Total	397	72.50		
Attitudes toward the purposes for learning English		Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	
	n	204	99	95	
	Mean	4.05	4.10	4.06	
	sd	.62	.57	.61	
	Source	df	ss	ms	F
	Between Groups	2	.19	.09	.26
	Within Groups	395	144.10	.37	
	Total	397	144.29		

\* Statistically significant at the .05 alpha level

Table 11: ANOVA of Attitudes of Learners by Grade in College

(I)Grade in college	(J) Grade in college	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Freshman	Sophomore	-.07	.05	.38
	Junior	-.14*	.05	.02
Sophomore	Freshman	.07	.05	.38
	Junior	-.07	.06	.44
Junior	Freshman	.14*	.05	.02
	Sophomore	.07	.06	.44

\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 12: Tukey's HSD Test for the Effects of Grade in College on Attitudes toward English

(I) Grade in college	(J) Grade in college	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Freshman	Sophomore	.12	.0	.06
	Junior	-.05	.05	.55
Sophomore	Freshman	-.12	.05	.06
	Junior	-.17*	.06	.01
Junior	Freshman	.055	.05	.55
	Sophomore	.17*	.06	.01

\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 13: Tukey's HSD Test for the Effects of Grade in College on Attitudes toward English Education Policies

Table 14 presents the statistical findings of ANOVA that was performed to identify significant differences between the multichotomous nominal variables (starting age for learning English) and the dependent variables (attitudes toward English, attitudes toward the current English education policies, and attitudes toward the purposes for learning English). Starting age for learning English was blocked into three categories (i.e., from elementary school, from middle school, and from high school). No significant difference was found. Therefore, starting age for learning English does not play a significant role in the attitudes of learners toward English, attitudes toward English education policies, or attitudes toward the purposes for learning English.

		Elementary School	Middle School	High School	
Attitudes toward English	n	130	258	10	
	Mean	4.48	4.43	4.48	
	sd	.41	.42	.33	
	Source	df	ss	ms	F
	Between Groups	2	.29	.14	.84
	Within Groups	395	68.02	.17	
	Total	397	68.31		
		Elementary School	Middle School	High School	
Attitudes toward English education policies	n	130	258	10	
	Mean	3.51	3.51	3.58	
	sd	.45	.42	.43	
	Source	df	ss	ms	F
	Between Groups	2	.045	.02	.12
	Within Groups	395	72.45	.18	
	Total	397	72.50		
		Elementary School	Middle School	High School	
Attitudes toward the purposes for learning English	n	130	258	10	
	Mean	4.08	4.06	4.17	
	sd	.69	.56	.57	
	Source	df	ss	ms	F
	Between Groups	2	.17	.08	.23
	Within Groups	395	144.12	.37	
	Total	397	144.29		

\* Statistically significant at the .05 alpha level

Table 14: ANOVA of Attitudes of Learners by Starting Age for Learning English

#### 4.5.2 Interview Results

The relationships between specific factors and attitudes were investigated through statistical methods as discussed above. English learning experience of students repeatedly came up during the interviews, suggesting their influence on attitudes in some ways. Some of the interviewees state that the longer they have learned English, the more likely they have positive attitudes toward English. Their experience with native English-

speaking teachers and their majors are even specifically presented as an explanation for their attitudes toward English.

#### *4.5.2.1 Native English-speaking teachers and Attitudes toward English*

Statistical analysis of questionnaires has shown that students having experience with native English-speaking teachers have more positive attitudes toward English than those without this experience. This finding could be further explained by the recurring themes in the interviews.

Interviewee 1: In high school, I had a native English-speaking teacher. He taught us the western culture, holidays, and the way of people living in the western world. I was attracted by these topics. Since then, I become more and more interested in learning English.

Interviewee 10: When I was a freshman, I had an intensive class of oral English in a private training company which is called EF (English First). The teacher is an Australian. His English is very good, and he is graduated from a famous university in Australia. I like his lively class. My oral English has been improved a lot after that intensive training. I really appreciate him since I have been more confident in my spoken English with his help.

Interviewee 18: I was lucky to have native English-speaking teachers since the third grade in primary school. I really like this language. Even though there was pressure for preparing the college entrance exam, I enjoyed learning English these years.

These results need to be interpreted with caution because the interviewees do not imply Chinese English teachers are inferior to native English-speaking teachers. Rather, as discussed earlier, more interviewees (45% versus 20%) prefer to have Chinese teachers of English. To understand the beliefs of students, the context of English education in public schools needs to be taken into consideration. In China, Chinese teachers of English shoulder the responsibility to prepare the students for standardized

exams, such as college entrance exam, CET-4 (College English Test – band 4), and CET-6 (College English Test – band 6). Native English-speaking teachers are recruited only for oral English courses or introduction courses to western culture. Therefore, students usually like classes of native English-speaking teachers rather than the dull lectures of grammar and exercises conducted by Chinese English teachers. The following dialogue between one of the interviewees and the researcher elaborates this point:

Interviewee 12: I had a native English-speaking teacher in high school. He taught us once or twice per week.

Interviewer: What did he teach you?

Interviewee 12: Basically, he gave us a topic each class and asked us to discuss about that topic. He is quite active. For example, when he taught tableware, he would present us such as knives, forks, spoons, chopsticks, and ask us to discuss their functions.

Interviewer: So in your opinion, what is the difference between native English-speaking teachers and Chinese English teachers?

Interviewee 12: Native English-speaking teachers are focusing on my oral communication skills; while Chinese teachers pay more attention to my English exam scores. So I am more motivated to learn English with native English-speaking teachers.

Interviewer: Do you mean you like native English-speaking teachers rather than Chinese English teachers?

Interviewee 12: No, I did not mean that. I like native English-speaking teachers' way of teaching. They could help me develop communication skills (in English). But they are not good at exams. I still need Chinese English teachers to help me prepare for the exams.

#### *4.5.2.2 Major and Attitudes toward English*

Questionnaire results demonstrate that students majoring in social science have more positive attitudes toward English than those majoring in science. This finding is also confirmed by the interview data. The interviewees of social science majors are from the disciplines of Chinese, journalism, and English. Their opinions are illustrated as follows:

Interviewer: Would you explain why you are learning English now?

Interviewee 12: Because my major is Chinese linguistics, I am interested in learning other languages, such as English.

Interviewer: Would you explain why you are learning English now?

Interviewee 11: You know my major is journalism. I want to go abroad for advanced study after graduation from college. Then I will come back to China to work in the field of mass media. I may interview some foreigners, so English will play an important role in my future career.

Interviewee 13 is also majoring in journalism. His experience of listening to lectures in an international conference reaffirmed his positive attitudes toward English. He believes he will benefit from his knowledge of English for future career development.

Interviewee 13: Now I learn English mainly for getting access to more information. Sometime I could not find enough resources to write final papers, so I would search English articles on line, and then translate it into Chinese for reference. Also, last semester, there was an international conference held in my university. Some renowned experts gave speech and presentations in English. I found English is very important at that time. I felt pretty accomplished when I understood what they were talking about. I think English is a medium through which I could obtain knowledge and information.

Interviewer: How do you think you will be using English in the future?

Interviewee 13: I want to become a bilingual broadcaster. I will use my English knowledge to get more information, and broadcast it to my audience.

Interviewee 16 started to learn English at five years old. His mother was his first English teacher. At the age of ten, he had his first native English-speaking teacher. Now, he is a junior majoring in English. He aimed to become a translator or interpreter in the future. He is enthusiastic about learning English. Same with interviewee 16, interviewee 15 is also majoring in English. She said:

Interviewee 15: My major is English. I want to work in foreign trade companies. I like learning English very much.

Compared with social science majors, science majors do not have high expectation for using English in their future jobs. Interviewee 19, a freshman on mathematics, expressed his opinion:

Interviewee 19: After graduation from college, I will be a mathematics teacher in high school. So I do not think I will use English in my future job.

Questionnaire results also found students without international experience had higher attitudes toward the purposes for learning English than those that had this experience. This finding could not be verified by interview data, because only one interviewee had international experience.

#### 4.6 Summary

In this chapter, the quantitative results of questionnaires and qualitative results of interviews are discussed in conjunction with the research questions. The primary data source is from questionnaires. Data from the secondary source (student interviews) is examined for the purposes of explaining and expanding the quantitative data.

In short, Chinese college students have positive attitudes toward the English language and “China English.” They are aware of different varieties of English. Nativization of English in China is perceived as a manifestation of Chinese culture. English education, the function most familiar and relevant to students, is discussed in great details but their comments are often filled with frustration and dissatisfaction. Chinese college students are motivated to learn English for various purposes. Their short-term goal is to pass standardized exams such as CET-4, TOEFL, and GRE; and their long-term goal is to acquire strong communication skills. Factors influencing their

attitudes are also investigated. Results show that the longer students have learned English, the more likely they have positive attitudes toward English. Their experience with native English-speaking teachers and their major also explain their positive attitudes toward English.

In the following chapter, the findings are discussed in terms of contributions of the study and its implications for better understanding of English education in China.



## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the findings about attitudes of Chinese college students toward English and the current English education policies in China, their purposes for learning English, and factors that may explain their attitudes. In addition, contributions of the study, implications of the study, and suggestions for future studies are discussed. Since this study employed a mixed method, the quantitative data (questionnaires) were considered the predominant data source in answering the research questions while the qualitative data (interviews) served as the secondary data source providing a supporting role in explaining and expanding the questionnaire results. Therefore, in summarizing the findings of the study, the qualitative interviews are selectively discussed to extend and elaborate the questionnaire results.

#### 5.1 Summary of Findings and Discussion

By adopting the notion of World Englishes (e.g., Brown, 2002; Crystal, 1997; Kachru, 1992; Widdowson, 1994) and English as an International Language (e.g., Crystal 1997; Jenkins, 2000; Matsuda, 2000; McKay, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2001) as the theoretical framework, the study has explored the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English, different varieties of English, and “China English.” The study also investigated

their attitudes toward the current English education policies in China and their purposes for learning English. Furthermore, the attitudes of Chinese college students have been examined in relation to the factors that are likely to explain their attitudes, namely, gender, age, grade in college, major, starting age for learning English, years spent in English learning, experience with native English-speaking teachers and friends who are native English speakers, English knowledge of parents, and international experience.

Overall, the study finds that Chinese college students have positive attitudes toward the English language and “China English.” They are aware of different varieties of English and the majority of them consider nativization of English in China as a manifestation of Chinese culture. Regarding the English education policies in China, attitudes of participants are complex. On the one hand, the students affirm that the Chinese government has attached much importance to English education; while on the other hand, they express concerns about this “utilitarian type of education” since most of the students focus solely on obtaining high scores on English exams. The main goals for Chinese college students in learning English remain unchanged from the results of previous studies (Chen et al., 2005; Gao et al., 2007; Young, 2006). Results of the study show that the longer students have learned English, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes toward English. Their experience with native English-speaking teachers and their majors also explain their positive attitudes toward English.

Using World Englishes (WE), English as an International Language (EIL), and English as a *lingua franca* (ELF) as the framework, the following section presents discussions of the findings in relation to previous studies in the field.

### 5.1.1 Attitudes toward English in the World

Chinese college students, in general, hold a positive attitude toward English. They consider English to be important for its usefulness in international communication and educational/career advancements. They are aware of different varieties of English, but their knowledge of those varieties is limited. They also point out that “English speakers” are people who use English for various purposes, regardless they are native speakers or not.

Although the students acknowledge the fact that many varieties of English exist in the world, they prefer to learn American and British English rather than other varieties of English. Interview results provide useful insights into students’ mixed attitudes toward different varieties of English. Most of the interviewees have heard of terms such as “Singapore English” and “India English.” However, because they lack exposure to the English spoken in Singapore or India, they have no idea what “Singapore English” or “India English” is actually like. Therefore, the majority of the participants believe that American and British English are the best models to follow for Chinese learners of English.

In her book *English as a lingua franca: attitude and identity*, Jenkins (2007) reviewed several prominent studies on attitudes of learners toward English (pp.103-104). In the following table, brief summaries for each study are presented in order to compare results with the present study.

Study	Methods	Results
Matsuda's (2000) study on attitudes of Japanese high school students toward the English language	Questionnaires Interviews Classroom Observation	The participants showed positive attitudes toward English, especially American English while they had negative attitudes toward the Japanese variety of English. In other words, the attitudes of these students toward English were "Inner-Circle" bound.
Friedrich's (2000) study on attitudes of adult Brazilian learners toward the English language	Survey	All the participants recognized the status of English as an international language and expressed desire to be included in the global society where English serves as the communication tool. However, they recognized only two varieties of English, American and British English. In other words, the participants were not aware of the existence of other varieties of English.
Timmis (2002) examined almost 600 participants (both teachers and students) in over 45 countries with regard to their attitudes toward the English language	Questionnaires	Both teachers and students revealed an overall tendency to conform to NS norms, although the teachers seemed less attached to those norms. They were uncertain about what kind of forms belonged to nonnative speakers while they had an idealized notion of what the native-speaker norms are.
Shim's (2002) study on attitudes of Korean learners toward the English language	Survey involved playing recording of five different speakers (US, Canadian, Australian, Pakistani, and Korean) to the respondents, who were asked if they could like to have the speaker as their English teacher.	One hundred percent of the participants answered yes with regard to the US and Canadian speakers, forty-nine percent voted for the Australian speaker, and none of them chose the Pakistani and Korean speakers.
Present Study (2010) explored attitudes of Chinese college students toward the English language	Questionnaires Interviews	Chinese college students have positive attitudes toward the English language and "China English." They are aware of different varieties of English, but their knowledge of those varieties is limited.

Table 15: Summary of Studies on Attitudes of Learners toward English

The above table shows that participants in these studies have generally positive attitudes toward the English language. Most of them believe that English symbolizes internationalization and plays a crucial role in international communication. Given that, English has become the main means of communications in this globalized era, this is not surprising. However, some studies indicate that students were not aware of English varieties, for example, Friedrich's (2000) study found that Brazilian learners of English recognized only two varieties of English, American and British English. In this study, Chinese college students are aware of different varieties of English, but their knowledge of those varieties is limited. Although they have heard of terms such as "Singapore English" and "India English," they have no idea what "Singapore English" or "India English" is actually like. As Timmis' (2002) study suggested, whereas students had an idealized notion of what the native-speaker norms are, they were uncertain about what kind of forms belonged to nonnative speakers. This study also found that students' lack of knowledge about outer and expanding circle varieties of English may lead them to show preference for the two major inner varieties of English—American and British English. This finding corroborates Matsuda's (2000) study that limited knowledge about English varieties in the outer and expanding circle countries could explain and reinforce the lack of awareness of varieties other than American and British English.

Compared with Matsuda's (2000) study that high school students showed negative attitudes toward the Japanese variety of English, in this study, Chinese college students exhibit generally positive attitudes toward "China English." Although the questionnaire results reveal that less than one-half (47%) of the respondents are supportive of "China English," the attitudes of interview participants are more positive: thirty-five percent of

the interviewees express negative attitudes toward “China English,” especially for the Chinese accents in English pronunciation; whereas 65% of them demonstrate positive attitudes toward “China English.” Participants consider it acceptable, given that it is comprehensible. One reason to explain the difference between results of these two studies is that participants in Matsuda’s study were high school students whereas participants in this study are college students. Results from this study have shown that the longer students have studied English and the higher grade they are in, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes toward English and English varieties. Therefore, it is possible that attitudes of Chinese college students toward “China English” are more positive than attitudes of Japanese high school students toward Japanese variety of English. Another possible explanation is that this study is conducted ten years later than Matsuda’s study. Given the fact that attitude is changing over time, especially in this globalized era, Matsuda’s study may no longer accurately represent Japanese students’ attitudes toward English.

Another interesting but fundamental issue among these studies is that most of the English learners want to sound like a native speaker of English. In this study, participants’ attitudes are more mixed. Questionnaire results reveal that some students want to sound like a native speaker of English and sound Chinese at the same time. Such inconsistency may be due to their mixed attitudes toward varieties of English. On the one hand, inner circle varieties of English are preferred over other varieties for their international intelligibility, recognition, and privileged status. On the other hand, the students think it is an unrealistic goal for non-native English speakers to achieve native-like pronunciation and they do not believe that they should have to speak like native speakers.

In relation to the English learners' eagerness to acquire native pronunciation, previous studies also examined students' preference for native English-speaking teachers, such as Shim (2002) examined attitudes of 57 Korean English learners and Butler (2007) investigated attitudes of 312 Korean elementary students toward teachers with American-accented and Korean-accented English. These two studies indicated that Korean students showed strong preference for American-accented English teachers. In this present study, questionnaire results reveal that the Chinese students prefer native speakers over non-native speakers as their English teachers; in the interviews, however, a majority of the participants show preference for Chinese English teachers. They think Chinese English teachers have an advantage in that they share the same culture with them and understand their difficulties in learning English. In addition, the interviewee students consider the teachers' understanding of students' needs, a passion for teaching English, appropriate teaching methods, classroom management skills, and engaging personalities to make the English class fun and interesting to the students as important qualifications to be a good English teacher, no matter he/she is native speaker or not. Therefore, this study suggests that learners' conceptions of a good English teacher consist of many important qualifications as discussed above rather than a native English pronunciation.

In summary, consistent with previous studies, participants in this study have positive attitudes toward the English language. Different from Friedrich's (2000) study, Chinese college students are aware of different varieties of English, although their knowledge of those varieties is limited. In comparison with Matsuda's (2000) study that Japanese students showed negative attitudes toward the Japanese variety of English, this study suggest that Chinese college students have generally positive attitudes toward "China

English.” A distinguished finding of this study is that a majority of the students do not show strong preference for native speakers over non-native speaker as their English teachers as previous studies (Butler, 2007; Shim, 2002) suggested; rather, they think Chinese English teachers have an advantage in that they share the same culture with them and understand their difficulties in learning English. This finding shed light on our understanding that students’ preference for native English-speaking teachers could not be a foregone conclusion.

#### *5.1.2 Attitudes toward “China English”*

In this study, the majority of participants think “China English” is acceptable, as long as it is comprehensible. They also point out that “China English” embodies Chinese ways of thinking, which makes it easier for them to understand it. He and Li (2009) summarized several salient linguistic features of “China English” focusing on four aspects: phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse pragmatics. The responses of interviewees suggest that some students do not like “China English” because of its phonological feature. However, a majority of the interviewees are in favor of the lexis, syntax, and discourse pragmatics aspects of “China English.” A notable finding is that the students do not have a clear definition of “China English” (see Chapter 2 pp.44-45 for discussion). To them, “China English” mainly embodies two salient characteristics: a Chinese accent and a Chinese ways of thinking.

In relation to the two significant studies on “China English” conducted by Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) and He and Li (2009), the results of four similar questions in these three studies are compared in the following table.



Items	Agree (%)		
	K*	H*	P*
1. Many varieties of English exist in the world. **	53.2	54.7	87.1
2. The non-native English speakers can also speak Standard English.	75.5	79.6	94.2
3. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.	17.5	25.3	41.6
4. Like “Singaporean English” and “Indian English,” China should have its own variety of English: “China English.” ***	28.1	60.5	46.8

\*K: Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002); H: He and Li (2009); P: present study

\*\*The wording in Kirkpatrick and Xu’s (2002) and He and Li’s (2009) studies was “There are many standard Englishes.”

\*\*\* The wording in Kirkpatrick and Xu’s (2002) study was “One day there will be a variety of English called Chinese English” and in He and Li’s (2009) study was “There will be a variety of English in China one day.”

Table 16: Comparison between Results of Four Questionnaire Items in Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), He and Li (2009), and the Present Study

As Table 16 shows, the participants in these three studies show a growing tendency in supporting these items, except for the last one. Most of them agree that “many varieties of English exist in the world” and that “non-native English speakers can also speak Standard English.” In addition to this, a growing number of students, although less than 50% of them, no longer feel embarrassed about their Chinese accent when speaking English. These results reveal evidence that Chinese college students become more and more tolerant of different varieties of English and they no longer see their Chinese accents in English pronunciation as a disadvantage. To find a way to explain this kind of phenomenon, the social background of China’ development in the past ten years should be taken into consideration. It is commonly recognized that the massive boom in English is due largely to the active participation of China in the international affairs, such as Beijing’s hosting of 2008 Olympic Games and Shanghai’ hosting of World Expo 2010. As China opens its door to the world, more and more people from other countries travel,

study, work, and live in China. Therefore, college students have more opportunities to use English in communication with foreigners consisting of both native and non-native speakers of English. When they find other non-native English speakers also speak English with an accent, they feel this is a common phenomenon and they no longer feel embarrassed about their Chinese accent.

The most notable difference between the findings of these three studies lies in their responses toward “China English.” The percentage of participants who favor the development of “China English” as a legitimate variety in these three studies is 28.1, 60.5, and 46.8 respectively, which is not a steady trend. This finding raises an intriguing but fundamental issue that although participants in this study exhibit positive attitudes toward “China English,” their perceptions toward “China English” as a legitimate variety are still far from supportive. Therefore, He and Li (2009) may have drawn an early conclusion in stating that “the attitudes of mainland Chinese learners and teachers of English seem to be shifting toward accepting ‘China English’ as a legitimate, indigenized variety” (p. 86). Similarly, they may also be premature in launching a discussion of pedagogic model(s) for “China English.” Unless the college students accept and support “China English” as a legitimate variety, it seems impossible to implement a pedagogic model of “China English” in college English instruction. In light of this finding, more studies with college students in different regions of China are needed to provide a comprehensive understanding of their attitudes toward “China English.”

## 5.2 Contributions of the Study

Although the participants in this study were not recruited through a random sampling method, its findings contribute to and have implications for a variety of different areas, such as World Englishes, affective variables of Second Language (L2) learners, language attitude research, English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in China, and English education policies and practices in China. First, this study contributes to the field of World Englishes (WE), English as an International Language (EIL), and English as a *lingua franca* (ELF). By providing a detailed example from an expanding circle country, this study adds to the research on learners' attitudes toward English varieties. The study also demonstrates the usefulness of the Concentric Circle Model (Kachru, 1985) and adds to the growing body of studies on the spread of English in expanding circle countries.

Second, this study provides insights into how Chinese college students perceive various aspects of English and English education in China. By providing insights into attitudes of Chinese learners toward the English language, English education policies, and their purposes for learning English, this study makes a valuable contribution to our understanding of English learning and teaching in China. Although the Chinese government strongly encourages its citizens to learn English, the voices of students have not been examined. Findings from this study have shown that the students acknowledge the efforts that the central government has made to promote English education in China. Some of the students, however, express deep concerns about this “utilitarian type of education,” since most of them learn English in order to pass certain national standardized English exams. At the same time, they do not think that English is as

important as the government believes. They argue that not everyone needs to be proficient in English, since some students will not use English frequently in their future jobs. Therefore, they do not believe that it should be necessary to pass the national standardized college English test (CET-4) in order to obtain a bachelor's degree.

Many students also expressed dissatisfaction with the current college English instruction. They are frustrated with English classes and teachers because the oral communication skills which they believe should be addressed are not being addressed in class. They also point out that the current class time allotted for English is insufficient to properly develop their communication skills. Furthermore, they claim that the textbooks are dated and that their content is unappealing. The study findings indicate that these areas of concern need to be addressed in order to improve college English education in China. In short, the students in general believe that developing and maintaining students' interests in English and building up strong communication skills should be the main goals of English education in China.

Another contribution of this study is that some of the students express concerns about the uneven development in English proficiency levels of students in different regions of China. They point out that it is unfair for the educationally disadvantaged students in less privileged areas to be expected to achieve the same benchmarks as students in developed regions for college entrance exams and CET-4 (College English Test – band 4). In reference to the above concerns, the students suggest that the government should implement appropriate policies considering the situation of English education in different regions. This finding is in accordance with studies carried out by Liu (2007) and Hu (2008), in which the researchers suggest that because of a number of

constraints such as lack of qualified English teachers, large class size, and inconsistency of curriculum and syllabi, the government should be cautious in implementing education policies in the various geographic locations of China.

Last, this study examined the relationship between attitudes of learners and other factors related to their language learning experience. Thus, the study provides a more comprehensive picture of attitudes of Chinese learners toward English language learning in terms of possible factors affecting the construction of their attitudes. This study has found that the longer students have studied English, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes toward English. Their experience with native English-speaking teachers and their majors also explain their positive attitudes toward English. This results corroborate findings in Matsuda (2000)'s study that teachers appear to influence attitudes of students toward English in some ways. The influence of parents is also prevalent. Approximately 84% of the questionnaire respondents indicate that their parents believe that learning English is important (#46). In relation to this, Matsuda (2000) already pointed out that parents' attitudes toward English have great impact on the attitudes of learners (p. 172). In light of these findings, policy makers and administrators, as well as language teachers may take these influential factors into consideration in the practices of English education in China.

In Matsuda's (2000) study, international experience was found to be relevant to the attitudes of learners toward English. In this study, the questionnaire results also found that international experience of participants and their attitudes toward the purposes for learning English had a substantial association. However, the interview results did not suggest any relationship between international experience and attitudes. In fact, only

2.3% (9/398) of the participants had international experience. Therefore, future studies with a larger sample of students with experience traveling abroad may provide a different perspective.

### 5.3 Implications of the Study

In light of the contributions of this study presented above, this section discusses the implications for Chinese college English instruction and policy-making in English education in China.

#### Promoting the World Englishes Perspective among Chinese Learners of English

This study has several implications for English education in China and possibly in other expanding circle countries. The most crucial finding in relation to English learning is that the attitudes of Chinese college students toward English are basically Native-Speaker (NS) norm bound. While the students in this study consider English as an international language because of its usefulness in international communication, they do not think English belongs to the world. They are aware of different varieties of English, but their knowledge of such language varieties is limited. This in turn reinforces their belief that inner circle varieties (i.e., American and British English) are the best model from which to learn. As many scholars have argued (e.g., Crystal, 1997; Kachru, 1992, 1996; Matsuda, 2000; McKay, 2000), English learners in outer and expanding circle countries are likely to interact with both non-native and native speakers of English rather than to communicate predominantly with native speakers of English. Therefore, an important approach is to develop students' awareness and familiarity with different

varieties of English in order to prepare them for international communications. More importantly, policy makers in the Ministry of Education, curriculum writers, material writers, and English teachers at various educational levels in China should cooperate and coordinate to promote the World Englishes perspective of language learning. Without their help and assistance, students are most unlikely to share the World Englishes point of view.

Some scholars have suggested that increasing learners' exposure to different varieties of English could raise their awareness about English varieties. McKay (2002), for example, argues that classroom aims and teaching methods should be based on the requirements of an international language. Specifically, McKay explains that (1) sensitivity in the choice of cultural content in materials, (2) reflexivity in pedagogical procedures, and (3) respect for the local culture of learning are the most important elements in teaching English as an international language (p. 125). Similarly, Matsuda (2003), based on her research conducted in Japan, proposes some key suggestions for teaching EIL (English as an international language) in the classroom, including bringing in speakers of multiple English varieties, evaluating students based on their communicative effectiveness rather than solely on grammatical correctness according to the American or British norm, and using teaching materials representing EIL users by incorporating World Englishes (pp. 723-724). These solutions may assist Chinese learners of English perceive themselves as legitimate international English users and enhance their confidence in using English in this globalized era.

### Identifying the Needs of Chinese English Learners at Different Educational Levels

The study found that the needs of Chinese English learners have not been met. Some college students are interested in English but are frustrated with English classes and teachers because the oral communication skills which they believe should be addressed are not addressed in class. A majority of the students in the study are not satisfied with the current college English instruction. The main problems are identified as teacher-centered classes, monotonous teaching, test-oriented practices, too much mechanical teaching, and too little fostering of communicative competence. Among these, the most notable problem is that college English classes are mainly test-oriented, especially toward the College English Tests. The original purposes of CET-4 and CET-6 were to measure the English proficiency of college students in China and to ensure that Chinese undergraduate students reached the required English levels specified in the National College English Teaching Syllabuses (NCETS) (Syllabus for College English Test, 2006, p.1). However, the impact of CET on English learning has obviously already gone beyond its intended use and consequences on college English instruction in China. Universities should consider abandoning the CET-4 as one of the requirements for graduation. More importantly, the curriculum and syllabus writers and policy-makers should carry out research to identify the needs of learners and address their needs in their English classes and learning materials.

As China further opens up to the world, curriculum review in English teaching and learning is needed in order to prepare Chinese learners of English with a stronger communicative competence. The language learning process should be a cumulative one with varying sub-goals and approaches for different stages, shaped by the needs of



Chinese English learners at different educational levels. One example which may shed light on the reform of English education in China is the Hong Kong primary school English language curriculum, which was developed on the basis of the needs of English learners in Hong Kong. The curriculum identifies two overall aims for English learning as follows:

- to provide every learner of a second language with further opportunities for extending their knowledge and experience of the cultures of other people as well as opportunities for personal and intellectual development, further studies, pleasure and work in the English medium; and
- to enable every learner to prepare for the changing socio-economic demands resulting from advances in information technology; these demands include the interpretation, use and production of materials for pleasure, study and work in the English medium (as cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 388).

As government policy has an impact on attitudes and learning outcomes (Young, 2006), the authorities are suggested to consider the needs of learners and respond to these needs in terms of the content to be covered, teaching methods, assessment measures, and the outcome to be achieved. Indeed, students are more likely to achieve curriculum objectives that are designed in accordance with their learning needs.

#### Reconsidering the Content-Based English Instruction (CBEI) Policy

The study found that students do not think that it is necessary to have English as the medium of instruction in courses other than English classes. In the questionnaire, only 14% of the respondents agree that “Besides English classes, other college classes, such as math, should be also conducted in English” (#28). The content-based English instruction (CBEI) labeled by Chinese foreign language educators as “bilingual education” was first introduced in Shanghai and subsequently adopted in many other economically developed

regions. CBEI consists of using English as a medium language of instruction for several school subjects, such as mathematics, physics, and computer science (Hu, 2005).

According to Nunan (2003), from September 2001, all colleges and universities under the control of Ministry of Education were instructed to use English as the main teaching language in the following courses: information technology, biotechnology, new-material technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and law (p. 595). In general, content-based instruction is not a feature of the Chinese educational system. Also, it should be noted that in a country as large as China, any policy has to be able to accommodate the uneven development in English proficiency levels of its diverse students. The policy makers need to take into account a large number of contextual and resources factors. Indeed, the successful implementation of the content-based English instruction (CBEI) policy requires necessary conditions, such as “suitable learning materials, appropriately trained teachers, a perceived need for English as a medium of instruction, a threshold level of learner proficiency in the medium language, and a supportive language environment in the larger societal context” (Hu, 2005, p. 18). Therefore, educational authorities should review the CBEI policy and be cautious in its promotion in the different regions of China.

#### 5.4 Recommendations for Future Studies

This study, adopting the concurrent embedded strategy of mixed methods design (Creswell, 2009), explores attitudes of Chinese college students toward the English language, their awareness of the diversity of English, their attitudes toward the current English education policies and practices in China, and their purposes for learning English. The study also examines the factors that affect the participants’ different

attitudes. While the use of multiple data sources complemented the weakness of each data collection method, this study still has some limitations as discussed in Chapter 1.

Nonetheless, the study generated new questions that deserve further investigation. This section discusses several possible directions for future research.

### Studies of Other Population Groups

This study is limited in that the results are not generalizable beyond the research participants due to the sampling method. Thus, more studies with different samples would provide a more comprehensive understanding of Chinese English learners. Considering that China is a very large country with enormous regional differences in terms of geographic characteristics, ethnicity, economic development, demographic density, and educational development, similar types of studies should be conducted with students from different age groups and from various regions in China. Data from such studies could then be compared for variations as well as similarities.

In addition, studies with teachers, curriculum administrators, and educational policy makers are needed to capture a full picture of English education in China, considering the fact that people studying or working in different contexts may have different experiences with English.

### Studies on Factors that Influence Language Attitudes

Much research is needed to investigate how attitudes of Chinese English learners are formed. The study has found that the longer students have learned English, the more likely they are to have positive attitudes toward English. Experiences with native

English-speaking teachers also explain participants' positive attitudes toward English. In addition, social science majors have more positive attitudes toward English than science majors do. Yet, how and to what extent these factors affect the attitudes of learners toward English remains unknown. With respect to this, future research could be conducted to examine the relationship between language attitudes and affecting factors in specific learning contexts through observation and multiple interviews. Furthermore, cross-sectional studies are also recommended to examine such as how attitudes of learners can be affected by cohort differences.

The study is also recommended to be replicated with different college student samples or other age groups of students. In that way, the results of this study regarding the factors that influence attitudes could be compared with future studies. A more detailed and focused investigation of which factors influence attitudes and to what extent could be definitely useful for further understanding of the attitudes of Chinese learners toward English.

Attitudes of language learners may affect their language learning proficiency and the successful implementation of language education policies (Snow, 2007; Young, 2006). "Learners' positive attitudes may lead to increased motivation, which, in turn, may lead to successful attainment of proficiency due to increased input and interaction" (Young, 2006, p. 480). In this regard, future studies are suggested to more deeply delve into the relationships between attitudes and achievements. That finding can make valuable contributions to our understanding of language learning, by illuminating how attitudes could impact the language learners' achievements.

### Studies of Attitude Changes

Another limitation of this study is that it does not capture any change in attitudes. Attitudes, by nature, are not static but change (Baker, 1992). However, due to the limited time for data collection, this study could only describe the attitudes of participants within a specified time frame. Therefore, future longitudinal studies on attitude changes of participants could definitely enhance the understanding of attitudes of Chinese learners toward the English language.

In addition, the study indicates that the complicated nature of language attitudes may be difficult to investigate through Likert-scale items in a questionnaire. In light of this, future studies are worthy to consider adopting qualitative research methods to investigate the multi-faced aspects of language attitudes as well as the teaching and learning of the target language.

### Studies on the English Proficiency that Chinese College Students Need to Achieve

English will continue to play a major role in China's engagement with the world. Furthermore, English will be used as an international language in the fields of commerce, communication, and education in China (Bolton & Tong, 2002). However, this study found that the needs of Chinese English learners have not been met. Much research is needed to identify the kinds and levels of English proficiency that Chinese college students need to achieve, so that college English instruction can appropriately prepare them to meet their needs. To fulfill this objective, extensive needs analysis, multiple in-depth interviews with students and teachers, document analysis of college English

curricula and syllabi, and observation of English performance in actual working places in different contexts would be necessary.

## REFERENCES

- Adamson, B., & Morris, P. (1997). The English curriculum in the People's Republic of China. *Comparative Education Review*, 41 (1), 3-26.
- Baik, M. J., & Shim, R. J. (2002). Teaching world Englishes via the Internet. *World Englishes*, 21 (3), 427-430.
- Baker, C. (1992). *Attitudes and language*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Berns, M. (2005). Expanding on the expanding circle: where do WE go from here? *World Englishes*, 24 (1), 85-93.
- Bolton, K. (2002). Chinese English: from Canton jargon to global English. *World Englishes*, 21 (2), 181-199.
- Bolton, K., & Tong, Q. S. (2002). Introduction: interdisciplinary perspectives on English in China. *World Englishes*, 21 (2), 177-180.
- Brown, K. (2002). Ideology and context: world Englishes and EFL teacher training. *World Englishes*, 21 (3), 445-448.
- Brutt-Griffler, J., & Samimy, K. K. (1999). Revisiting the colonial in the postcolonial: Critical praxis for nonnative English-speaking teachers in a TESOL program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33 (3), 413-431.
- Butler, Y. G. (2004). What level of English proficiency do elementary school teachers need to attain to teach EFL? Case studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(2), 245-278.

- Butler, Y. G. (2007). How are nonnative-English-speaking teachers perceived by young learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41 (4), 731-755.
- Chang, J. (2006). Globalization and English in Chinese higher education. *World Englishes*, 25 (3/4), 513-525.
- Charkova, K. D. (2007). A language without borders: English slang and Bulgarian learners of English. *Language Learning*, 57 (3), 369-416.
- Chen, Y. (2007). Learning to learn: the impact of strategy training. *ELT Journal*, 61 (1), 20-29.
- Chen, J. F., Warden, C. A., & Chang, H. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: The case of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (4), 609-633.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dauer, R. M. (2005). The lingua franca core: a new model for pronunciation instruction? *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 543-550.
- Davis, J. A. (1971). *Elementary survey analysis*. Englewood, NJ: Prentice Hall.



- Davis, J. (2007). Resistance to L2 pragmatics in the Australian ESL context. *Language Learning*, 57 (4), 611-649.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). Introduction: the discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 1-28). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 379-398.
- Deterding, D. (2005). Listening to Estuary English in Singapore. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 425-440.
- Dewey, M. (2007). English as a lingua franca and globalization: an interconnected perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17 (3), 332-354.
- Elder, C., & Davies, A. (2006). Assessing English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26 (3), 282-304.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Feng, Z. (2002). *WTO and Chinese Education*. (In Chinese) Guangzhou: Zhongshan University Press.
- Field, J. (2005). Intelligibility and the listener: The role of lexical stress. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 399-424.
- Frankel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (1990). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw Hill Publishing Company.
- Friedrich, P. (2000). English in Brazil: functions and attitudes. *World Englishes*, 19 (2), 215-223.

- Gan, Z. (2004). Attitudes and strategies as predictors of self-directed language learning in an EFL context. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14 (3), 389-411.
- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2007). Relationship between English learning motivation types and self-identity changes among Chinese students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41 (1), 133-155.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The roles of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Golombek, P., & Jordan, S. R. (2005). Becoming "black lambs" not "parrots": A poststructuralist orientation to intelligibility and identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 513-534.
- Goto, Y. (2007). How are nonnative-English-speaking teachers perceived by young learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41 (4), 731-755.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Hahn, L. D. (2004). Primary stress and intelligibility: Research to motivate the teaching of suprasegmentals. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38 (2), 70-89.
- He, D., & Li, D. (2009). Language attitudes and linguistic features in the 'China English' debate. *World Englishes*, 28 (1), 445-448.
- Hu, G. (2005). English language education in China: policies, progress, and problems. *Language Policy*, 4(1), 5-24.
- Hu, Y. (2008). China' English language policy for primary schools. *World Englishes*, 27 (3/4), 516-534.
- Huang, Y., & Xu, H. (1999, November-December). Trends in English language education in China. *ESL Magazine* 2(6), 26-28.

- Jenkins, J. (2005). Implementing an international approach to English pronunciation: The role of teacher attitudes and identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 535-543.
- Jenkins, J. (2006a). Current perspectives on teaching world Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40 (1), 157-181.
- Jenkins, J. (2006b). The spread of EIL: a testing time for testers. *ELT Journal*, 60 (1), 42-50.
- Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jin, Y., & Yang, H. (2006). The English proficiency of college and university students in China: as reflected in the CET. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 19 (1), 21-36.
- Johnson, C. (2001, October 18). Shanghai puts the accent on English. *Christian Science Monitor*, 227, 7.
- Kachi, R. (2004). *Factors predicting native and nonnative listeners' evaluative reactions to Japanese English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
- Kachru, B. B. (1992). *The other tongue* (2nd ed.). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Kachru, B. B. (1996). World Englishes: Agony and ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic Education*, 30 (2), 135-155.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). Setting attainable and appropriate English language targets in multilingual settings: a case for Hong Kong. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17 (3), 376-391.

- Kirkpatrick, A., & Xu, Z. (2002). Chinese pragmatic norms and 'China English'. *World Englishes*, 21 (2), 269-279.
- Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 58 (2), 327-355.
- Kuo, I. (2006). Addressing the issue of teaching English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal*, 60 (3), 213-221.
- Kvale, S. (1996) *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. London: Sage Publications.
- Lam, S. L. A. (2005). *Language education in China: policy and experience from 1949*. Hong Kong, Hong Kong University Press.
- Lankshear, C., & Knobel, M. (2004). *A handbook for teacher research: from design to implementation*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Levis, J. M. (2005). Changing contexts and shifting paradigms in pronunciation teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 369-378.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lippi-Green, R. (1997). *English with an accent*. New York: Routledge
- Liu, J. (2007). Critical period hypothesis retested: the effects of earlier English education in China. In J. Liu (Ed), *English language teaching in China* (pp. 170-191). London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

- Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92 (1), 71-86.
- Llurda, E. (2004). Non-native-speaker teachers and English as an international language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14 (3), 314-323.
- Major R. C., Fitzmaurice S. F., Bunta F., & Balasubramanian C. (2002). The effects of nonnative accents on listening comprehension: Implications for ESL assessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36 (2), 173-190.
- Matsuda, A. (2000). *Japanese attitudes toward English: A case study of high school students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
- Matsuda, A. (2002). International understanding through teaching world Englishes. *World Englishes*, 21 (3), 436-440.
- Matsuda, A. (2003). Incorporating world Englishes in teaching English as an international language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37 (4), 719-729.
- Mauranen, A. (2003). The corpus of English as lingua franca in academic settings. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37 (3), 513-527.
- Mckay, S. L. (2000). *Teaching English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McKay, S. (2003). Teaching English as an international language: The Chilean context. *ELT Journal*, 57 (2), 139-146.
- Morrison, R., & White, M. (2005). Nurturing global listeners: increasing familiarity and appreciation for world Englishes. *World Englishes*, 24 (3), 361-370.

- Morse, J. M. (2003). Principles of mixed and multi-method research design. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ng, C., & Tang, E. (2000). *Teachers' needs in the process of EFL reform in China—A report from Shanghai*. Retrieved on July 9, 2006, from <http://sunzi1.lib.hku.hk/hkjo/view/10/1000116.pdf#search=%22EFL%20in%20China%22>
- Niu, Q., & Wolff, M. (2004). *English as a foreign language: The modern day Trojan horse?* Retrieved on July 17, 2006, from <http://www.usingenglish.com/esl-in-china/>
- Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37 (4), 589-613.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory*, 3rd Ed., New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pickering, L. (2006). Current research on intelligibility in English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26 (21), 219-233.
- Riney, T. J., Takagi, N. & Inutsuka, K. (2005). Phonetic parameters and perceptual judgments of accent in English by American and Japanese listeners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 441-466.
- Sakai, S., & F. D'Angelo, J. (2005). A vision for world Englishes in the expanding circle. *World Englishes*, 24 (3), 323-327.
- Sakui, K., & Gaies, S.J. (1999). Investigating Japanese learners' beliefs about language learning. *System*, 27 (4), 473-492.

- Samarin, W. (1987). *Lingua Franca*. In U. Ammon, N. Dittmar, & K. Mattheier (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: An international handbook of the science of language and society* (pp. 371–374). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Scales, J., Wennerstrom, A., Richard, D., & Wu, S. (2006). Language learners' perceptions of accent. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40 (4), 715-738.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2001). Closing a conceptual gap: the case for a description of English as a lingua franca. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11 (2), 133-158.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2004). Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 209-239.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2005). English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal*, 59 (4), 339-341.
- Sifakis, N. C., & Sougari, A. M. (2005). Pronunciation issues and EIL pedagogy in the periphery: A survey of Greek state school teachers' beliefs. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (3), 467-488.
- Sifakis, N. (2007). The education of teachers of English as a lingua franca: a transformative perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 17 (3), 355-375.
- Snow, D. (2007). Sustaining self-directed language learning in the Chinese context. In J. Liu (Ed), *English language teaching in China* (pp. 211-230). London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Syllabus for College English Test. (2006). National College English Testing Committee, Shanghai, China: Shanghai Language Education Press.
- Teddle, C. & Tashakkori (2003). Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed

- methods in the social and behavioral sciences. In Tashakkori & Teddlie (Eds.) *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (Chapter 1). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Timmis, I. (2002). Native-speaker norms and international English: a classroom view. *ELT Journal*, 56 (3), 240-249.
- Vogt, W. P. (1999). *Dictionary of Statistics & Methodology: A Nontechnical Guide for the Social Sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Wesche, M. B., & Skehan, P. (2002). Communicative, task-based, and content-based language instruction. In R. B. Kaplan (Ed), *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 207-228). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 377-389
- Wu, Y. (2001). TESOL in China: current challenges. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35 (1), 191-194.
- Yano, Y. (2001). World Englishes in 2000 and beyond. *World Englishes*, 20 (2), 119-132.
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: the Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*. 86 (1), 54-66.
- Yoshikawa, H. (2005) Recognition of world Englishes: changes in Chukyo University students' attitudes. *World Englishes*, 24 (3), 351-360.
- Young, M. (2006). Macao students' attitudes toward English: a post-1999 survey. *World Englishes*, 25 (3/4), 479-490.
- Zhang, Q. & Watkins, D. (2007). Conceptions of a good tertiary EFL teacher in China. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41 (4), 781-790.
- Zhao, Y. & Campbell, K. P. (1995). English in China. *World Englishes*, 14 (3), 377-390.



APPENDIX A  
QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION)

## Attitudes of Chinese College Students toward English

Thank you so much for participating in this study! This questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to finish and is concerned with your attitudes toward English and your purposes for learning English. You are the expert in this case. **Please be assured that your identity is completely confidential.** By completing this questionnaire, you consent to participate in this study.

### Part I. Your attitudes toward English

In this section, please read each of the following statements carefully; and then **write the number** that best represents the level of your agreement to the statement.

#### Level of agreement

- 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)  
 2= Disagree (D)  
 3= Slightly Disagree (SLD)  
 4= Slightly Agree (SLA)  
 5= Agree (A)  
 6=Strongly Agree (SA)

**EXAMPLE:** I like learning English.

6

Writing the number 6, this person indicates that he/she strongly agrees with this statement, thus, indicating he/she likes learning English.

#### YOUR ATTITUDES

#### Your level of Agreement

- English is an international language.
- English is the language used most widely in the world.
- Knowing English is important in understanding people from other countries.




please continue to the next page

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

### YOUR ATTITUDES

### Your level of Agreement

4. Knowing English is important in understanding the cultures of English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.
5. If I have a chance, I would like to travel to English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.
6. I do not like learning English.
7. British English and American English are the major varieties of English in the world.
8. The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.
9. Many varieties of English exist in the world.
10. The non-native English speakers can also speak Standard English. (Here, Standard English refers to English spoken in the English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.)
11. I want to learn American English rather than Singapore English.
12. As long as people understand me, it is not important which variety of English I speak.
13. I have heard of the phrase "World Englishes."
14. I have heard of the phrase "China English."


please continue to the next page

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

### YOUR ATTITUDES

### Your level of Agreement

15. Like “Singaporean English” and “Indian English,” China should have its own variety of English: “China English.”
16. When I speak English, I want to sound like a native speaker.
17. When I speak English, I want to be identified clearly as Chinese.
18. I am not confident in speaking English because of my Chinese accent.


### Part II: Your attitudes toward the current English education policy

In this section, please read each of the following statements carefully; and then **write the number** that best represents the level of your agreement to the statement.

**Level of agreement:** 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=slightly agree, 5=agree, 6=strongly agree

### YOUR ATTITUDES

### Your level of Agreement

19. All Chinese students should learn English.
20. Chinese college students should use English in either spoken or written communications among each other.


please continue to the next page

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

## YOUR ATTITUDES

## Your level of Agreement

- |   |                      |
|---|----------------------|
| 21. English education should start from elementary school in China.   | <input type="text"/> |
| 22. English should not be a compulsory subject in the National College Entrance Examination in China.               | <input type="text"/> |
| 23. I would not take English if it were not a compulsory subject in school.   | <input type="text"/> |
| 24. If English were not taught at school, I would study it on my own.   | <input type="text"/> |
| 25. Oral language skills are more important than literacy skills in college English education.                      | <input type="text"/> |
| 26. College English classes should be entirely conducted in English.  | <input type="text"/> |
| 27. College English classes should be conducted in both English and Chinese.  | <input type="text"/> |
| 28. Besides English classes, other college classes, such as Math, should be also conducted in English.              | <input type="text"/> |
| 29. CET-4 (College English Test – band 4) should not be a requirement for obtaining the university degree in China. | <input type="text"/> |
| 30. I am satisfied with the English education policy in China.  | <input type="text"/> |
| 31. I am satisfied with the college English education curriculum in China.  | <input type="text"/> |

please continue to the next page

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

### YOUR ATTITUDES

### Your level of Agreement

32. I am satisfied with the English learning textbooks and other materials used in our school.
33. I am satisfied with the English teaching methods used in our school.
34. American English is the best model for Chinese learners of English.
35. British English is the best model for Chinese learners of English.
36. I prefer native speakers rather than non-native speakers as my English teachers.


### Part III: Your attitudes toward the purposes for learning English

In this section, please read each of the following statements carefully; and then **write the number** that best represents the level of your agreement to the statement.

**Level of agreement: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=slightly agree, 5=agree, 6=strongly agree**

### YOUR ATTITUDES

### Your level of Agreement

37. In China, knowing English is more useful than knowing any other foreign language.
38. Learning English is important for me, because English is a very useful tool in contemporary society.


please continue to the next page

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

### YOUR ATTITUDES

### Your level of Agreement

39. I learn English to catch up with economic and technological developments in the world.	<input type="text"/>
40. Before entering university, an important purpose for my English learning was to obtain high scores in the National College Entrance Examination.	<input type="text"/>
41. An important purpose for my English learning is to obtain a university degree.	<input type="text"/>
42. An important purpose for my English learning is to get a decent job.	<input type="text"/>
43. An important purpose for my English learning is to obtain high scores in English examinations, such as CET-4, CET-6, and TOEFL.	<input type="text"/>
44. I learn English in order to obtain better education and job opportunities abroad.	<input type="text"/>
45. I learn English so that I can go abroad to experience English-speaking cultures.	<input type="text"/>
46. My parents believe that learning English is important.	<input type="text"/>

please continue to the next page

#### **Part IV: Information about You**

1. Gender (Please check one.)

**Female**\_\_\_\_; **Male**\_\_\_\_\_

2. Age (Please fill in the blank.)

\_\_\_\_\_ **years old**

3. Which grade are you in college? (Please check one.)

**Freshman** \_\_\_\_\_; **Sophomore** \_\_\_\_\_; **Junior**; \_\_\_\_\_; **Senior**\_\_\_\_\_

4. What is your major? (Please fill in the blank.)

\_\_\_\_\_

5. How old are you when you started learning English? (Please fill in the blank.)

\_\_\_\_\_ **years old**

6. How many years have you studied English? (Please fill in the blank.)

\_\_\_\_\_ **years**

7. Have you had any English teacher(s) who is (a) native speaker(s) of English?

**Yes**\_\_\_\_; **No**\_\_\_\_\_

8. Do your parents know English?

**Yes**\_\_\_\_; **No**\_\_\_\_\_

9. Do you have any friend(s) whose mother tongue is English?

**Yes**\_\_\_\_; **No**\_\_\_\_\_

10. Have you spent time in an English-speaking country?

**Yes**\_\_\_\_; **No**\_\_\_\_\_

please continue to the next page



I would like to interview 20 students who have finished this questionnaire for further understanding of the English learning experience of Chinese college students. As a token of my appreciation, a small gift will be given to each interviewee. If you would like to participate in an interview, please write your contact information below. Your participation will be highly appreciated!

**Please indicate whether you would like to participate in an interview.**

\_\_\_\_\_ **Yes, I would like to be interviewed.**

My cell phone number is \_\_\_\_\_

My e-mail address is \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ **No, thanks, I do not want to be interviewed.**

**Thanks again for your participation! ☺**

APPENDIX B  
QUESTIONNAIRE (CHINESE VERSION)

## 中国大学生对英语的态度

非常感谢您参与这项调查。这份问卷大约需要您20分钟来完成。问卷的内容是关于您对英语的态度和学习英语的目的。您在这方面是专家所以您的观点非常重要。完成这份问卷即表示您同意参加这项调查。请放心您的个人信息是完全保密的。

### 第一部分: 您对英语的态度

在这一部分, 请仔细阅读下面每一句陈述。然后在每一句陈述旁边的空格内填写最能代表您同意程度的数字。

同意程度:

1= 强烈不同意

2= 不同意

3= 有点不同意

4= 有点同意

5= 同意

6= 强烈同意

**示例:** 我喜欢学习英语。

6

填写数字6表示此人强烈同意这一陈述。也就是说, 他/她喜欢学习英语。

#### 有关对英语的态度

#### 您的同意程度

1. 英语是一种国际语言。
2. 英语是这个世界上使用最广泛的语言。
3. 懂得英语对于了解其它国家的人很重要。
4. 懂得英语对于了解英语国家, 比如美国或者英国的文化很重要。

  
  
  

请继续到下一页

1 = 强烈不同意  
2 = 不同意  
3 = 有点不同意

4 = 有点同意  
5 = 同意  
6 = 强烈同意

有关对英语的态度	您的同意程度
5. 如果有机会, 我愿意到英语国家, 比如美国或者英国去旅游。	<input type="text"/>
6. 我不喜欢学习英语。	<input type="text"/>
7. 英式英语和美式英语是世界上主要的英语种类。	<input type="text"/>
8. 印度人讲的英语不是正宗英语。	<input type="text"/>
9. 这个世界上有很多种英语。	<input type="text"/>
10. 英语为非母语的人也可以讲标准英语。(这里, 标准英语指在英语国家, 比如美国或者英国所讲的英语。)	<input type="text"/>
11. 我想学美式英语, 而不是新加坡英语。	<input type="text"/>
12. 只要我说的英语别人听得懂, 我讲哪一种英语不重要。	<input type="text"/>
13. 我听说过“世界英语”这个词。	<input type="text"/>
14. 我听说过“中国英语”这个词。	<input type="text"/>
15. 像“新加坡英语”和“印度英语”那样, 中国应该有自己的英语种类: “中国英语”	<input type="text"/>
16. 我希望我讲的英语像英语为母语的人讲的那样。	<input type="text"/>
17. 当我讲英语时, 我想被很清楚地确认为中国人。	<input type="text"/>
18. 因为我的中国口音, 我讲英语的时候不自信。	<input type="text"/>

## 第二部分: 您对当今英语教育政策的态度

在这一部分, 请仔细阅读下面每一句陈述。然后在每一句陈述旁边的空格内填写  
最能代表您同意程度的数字。

**1 = 强烈不同意**

**2 = 不同意**

**3 = 有点不同意**

**4 = 有点同意**

**5 = 同意**

**6 = 强烈同意**

有关对英语教育政策的态度	您的同意程度
19. 所有的中国学生都应该学习英语。	<input type="text"/>
20. 中国大学生之间应该用英语进行口头或者书面的交流	<input type="text"/>
21. 在中国, 英语教育应该从小学开始。	<input type="text"/>
22. 在中国, 英语不应该是高考中的一项必考科目。	<input type="text"/>
23. 如果英语在学校不是必修科目, 我不会学习英语。	<input type="text"/>
24. 如果学校不开设英语课, 我会自学英语。	<input type="text"/>
25. 在大学英语教育中, 口语能力比读写能力更重要。	<input type="text"/>
26. 大学英语课应该完全用英语教授。	<input type="text"/>
27. 大学英语课应该用英语和汉语教授。	<input type="text"/>

请继续到下一页

1 = 强烈不同意  
2 = 不同意  
3 = 有点不同意

4 = 有点同意  
5 = 同意  
6 = 强烈同意

有关对英语教育政策的态度	您的同意程度
28. 除英语课外，其它的大学课程，比如计算机，也应该用英语教授。	<input type="text"/>
29. 在中国，大学英语四级考试不应该是获得大学学位的一项要求。	<input type="text"/>
30. 我对中国的英语教育政策满意。	<input type="text"/>
31. 我对中国的大学英语教学大纲满意。	<input type="text"/>
32. 我对于我们学校使用的英语教材和其它英语学习资料满意。	<input type="text"/>
33. 我对于我们学校采用的英语教学方法满意。	<input type="text"/>
34. 中国英语学习者最好学习美式英语。	<input type="text"/>
35. 中国英语学习者最好学习英式英语。	<input type="text"/>
36. 与英语为非母语的人相比，我更喜欢英语为母语的人当我的英语老师。	<input type="text"/>

请继续到下一页

### 第三部分: 您学习英语的目的

在这一部分, 请仔细阅读下面每一句陈述。然后在每一句陈述旁边的空格内填写  
最能代表您同意程度的数字。

1 = 强烈不同意

2 = 不同意

3 = 有点不同意

4 = 有点同意

5 = 同意

6 = 强烈同意

#### 有关英语学习的目的

#### 您的同意程度

37. 在中国, 会英语比会其它任何外语都有用。

38. 学习英语对我来说很重要, 因为英语是现代社会中非常有用的一种交流工具。

39. 我学习英语是为了跟上世界经济和科技的发展。

40. 上大学前, 我学习英语的一个重要目的是为了在高考中取得高分。

41. 我学习英语的一个重要目的是为了获得大学学位。

42. 我学习英语的一个重要目的是为了找一份好工作。

43. 我学习英语的一个重要目的是为了在例如大学英语四级, 大学英语六级, 和托福等英语考试中取得高分。

44. 我学习英语是为了出国获得更好的教育和工作机会。

45. 我学习英语是为了出国体验英语国家的文化。

46. 我父母认为学习英语很重要。

请继续到下一页

#### 第四部分: 您的个人信息

1. 性别 (请选择一项.)  
女\_\_\_\_; 男\_\_\_\_
2. 年龄 (请填写在下面空格处.)  
\_\_\_\_\_ 岁
3. 您现在是大学几年级? (请选择一项.)  
大学一年级\_\_\_\_; 大学二年级\_\_\_\_; 大学三年级; \_\_\_\_\_; 大学四年级\_\_\_\_
4. 您的专业是什么? (请填写在下面空格处.)  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. 您从几岁开始学习英语? (请填写在下面空格处.)  
\_\_\_\_\_ 岁
6. 您已经学习英语多少年了? (请填写在下面空格处.)  
\_\_\_\_\_ 年
7. 您有过英语为母语的英语老师吗? (请选择一项.)  
是\_\_\_\_; 否\_\_\_\_
8. 您父母会英语吗? (请选择一项.)  
是\_\_\_\_; 否\_\_\_\_
9. 您有英语为母语的朋友吗? (请选择一项.)  
是\_\_\_\_; 否\_\_\_\_
10. 您去过讲英语的国家吗? 如美国, 英国, 加拿大, 澳大利亚等。 (请选择一项.)  
是\_\_\_\_; 否\_\_\_\_

我会选择**20**名完成问卷的同学做进一步的访问, 以便更深入地了解中国大学生学习英语的情况。我会送给每一位参加访问的同学一份礼物以表谢意。如果您愿意参加这个访问, 请写下您的联系方式。

对您的参与, 我表示深深的感谢! 请选择下面一项以表示您是否愿意参加访问。

\_\_\_\_\_ 是的, 我愿意参加访问.

我的手机号码是 \_\_\_\_\_

我的电子邮件地址是 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ 不, 我不愿意参加访问.

再次感谢您参与这份问卷调查! ☺



## APPENDIX C

### STUDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE

#### **Role of English in the World**

- What do you think about learning English?
- Who do you think of when you hear the term “English speakers”?
- In the questionnaire, you agree/disagree with the statement *I want to learn American English rather than Singapore English*. Would you explain why?
- Have you heard of the terms of “Hong Kong English” and “Singapore English”? If you were in Hong Kong or Singapore, do you think your English proficiency would be higher? If yes, why do you think so?

#### **Use of English in China**

- What do you think about the roles of English in China?
- What is your opinion about Chinese-accented English and “China English”?
- On what occasions do you use English in China? For example, do you watch English language TV/movies, listen to English language songs, reading English magazines/books, get access to English language websites, e-mail people in English, and speak English with foreigners?

#### **College English education in China**

- What are your thoughts on the English education policy in China?
- What do you think about the college English instruction in China? Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with that? Please explain.
- How do you define a good English teacher? Do you prefer a native speaker of English to nonnative speaker? How about gender? Do you have a preference?

#### **Purposes for learning English**

- Would you explain why you are learning English now?
- How do you think you will be using English in the future?
- Are you satisfied with your English language proficiency?
- Do your parents believe learning English is important? Please explain.

#### **English learning experiences**

- Could you describe your English learning experience in your hometown? For example, from which grade did you receive English education; how often did you have English classes each week, how many students in the class, and the English teacher(s) is/are native speaker(s) or non-native speaker(s)?
- Have you traveled abroad? Could you describe the experience?

APPENDIX D  
PANEL OF EXPERTS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Dr. Keiko Samimy has been working as a faculty member in the Ohio State University since 1988. Her research interests include issues related to L2 learners' affective variables, syllabus design for L2 teaching and learning, communicative language teaching (CLT) in ESL/EFL settings, issues of non-native speakers (NNS), L2 learner's willingness to communicate (WTC), and World Englishes. She has multiple publications in journals such as *TESOL Quarterly*, *World Englishes*, *Language Teaching and Research*, and *Foreign Language Annals*.

Dr. Larry Miller has been working as a faculty member at the Department of Human and Community Resource Development in the Ohio State University since 1979. His research area focuses on rural development, agri-tourism, and adult education. He has published eight books and numerous articles in international journals. In addition, he has served as journal editor for *Agricultural Education Magazine* and *Journal of Agricultural Education*. He is an expert on quantitative research methods.

Dr. Alan Hirvela has been working as a faculty member at the Foreign and Second Language Education Program in the Ohio State University since 2000. His research focuses, in a number of ways, on second language literacy. In addition to his teaching and scholarship, he spent 10 years in editorial positions with the journal *English for Specific Purposes*. In 2010, he begins serving as co-editor of the journal *TESOL Quarterly*. He has published several books and multiple articles in international journals.

## APPENDIX E

### PANEL OF EXPERTS FOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Dr. Keiko Samimy has been working as a faculty member in the Ohio State University since 1988. Her research interests include issues related to L2 learners' affective variables, syllabus design for L2 teaching and learning, communicative language teaching (CLT) in ESL/EFL settings, issues of non-native speakers (NNS), L2 learner's willingness to communicate (WTC), and World Englishes. She has multiple publications in journals such as *TESOL Quarterly*., *World Englishes*, *Language Teaching and Research*, and *Foreign Language Annals*.

Dr. Alan Hirvela has been working as a faculty member at the Foreign and Second Language Education Program in the Ohio State University since 2000. His research focuses, in a number of ways, on second language literacy. In addition to his teaching and scholarship, he spent 10 years in editorial positions with the journal *English for Specific Purposes*. In 2010, he begins serving as co-editor of the journal *TESOL Quarterly*. He has published several books and multiple articles in international journals.