

**A SYNTHESIS OF SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING STUDIES IN THE
PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA (1949-2018)**

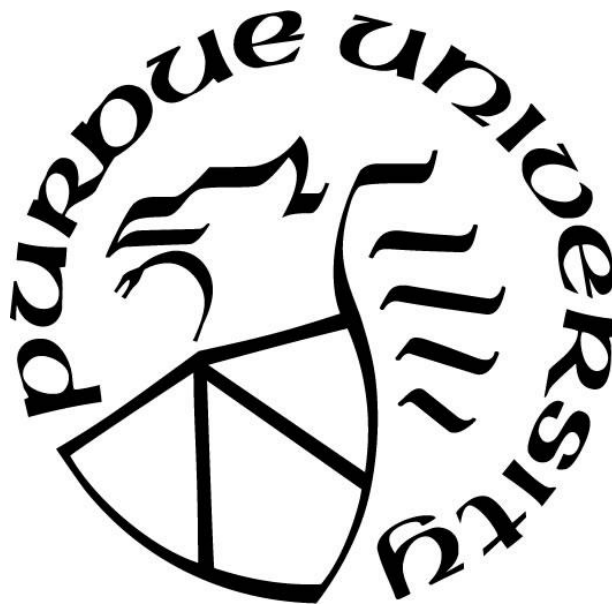
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*To my Savior and Lord, Jesus Christ,
and
To my family*

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ABSTRACT

Although L2W practice has been present in China for a long time, limited existing research has investigated its origin and development. My study aims at reviewing and synthesizing L2W articles published in major linguistic/foreign language journals in the People's Republic of China in the past seven decades (1949-2018). By collecting and analyzing the 1,340 articles, I identified four developmental periods in China's L2W history, nine major topics covered in the scholarship. Features in research methods and article contexts are also discussed. I conclude that L2W in China emerged from the pedagogical practices and that its development has been heavily influenced by the country's social and political movements. After seventy years of development, L2W in China has become a promising field of study with an increased number of journals articles, investigating diverse topics related to L2W, with various research methods, in rich contexts.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Second language writing (L2W) is a field of study focusing on the writing done in languages that are not the writer's native language(s). Since witnessing its first publications in the 1950s, its first journal (*Journal of Second Language Writing*) in 1993, and its first international symposium (Symposium on Second Language Writing) in 1998, the field has become a widely investigated area of study by scholars from all across the globe. After seventy years of development, L2W has grown from a pedagogy-focused field in the United States to an interdisciplinary area of inquiry, drawing theories from related fields (e.g., applied linguistics, rhetoric and composition, psychology) to facilitate the investigation of second language writing practice and instruction. With the increase in globalization and cross-cultural communication during the past two decades, L2W has gone beyond its English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) context in the United States and has begun to attract a large group of international academic professionals to explore its theoretical and practical spheres in other L2 contexts (Silva, 2016). The fast development and expansion of L2W has made it necessary to examine how L2W has developed beyond the United States in traditionally less represented contexts.

The study of L2W has a long history in China, with English being the most frequently taught and studied foreign language in various educational settings. China now has the largest foreign-language-learner and L2 writer population in the world. According to various estimates, China had at least 200 to 350 million people who were identified as English language learners at the beginning of the 21st century, ranking first in the world (Bolton, 2002; J. Yang, 2006), and making up over one fourth of the nation's overall population.

Mapping the history and development of L2W in China will facilitate the continuous development of the field. Such an historical account will not only help scholars in China to see how the field has developed in the Chinese context, but also how it has contributed to the design of research agendas in other English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) contexts. China now has the world's largest EFL population, so the findings from this study will add to the existing knowledge of how L2W emerges and develops in an EFL environment, and hopefully will encourage researchers and practitioners in other EFL contexts to document the history of L2W in their settings and propose research directions in the era of globalization.

Another purpose of this study is to facilitate global intellectual exchange by introducing the current findings in the Chinese context to the global audience. Although China has the largest EFL population in the world, Chinese scholars' contributions to the field of L2W have been limited because most journal articles on L2W in China are published exclusively in Chinese—not in English, the medium of a majority of the L2 writing publications in the world. Given that a small proportion of L2W scholars to date have been bilingual in Chinese and English, few have been able to read the Chinese L2W scholarship. This work will open up the possibility for L2W scholars in other countries to learn about the traditionally underrepresented voices of L2W scholars in China.

L2W in China:

Early Contacts (prior to 1949 A.D.)

Writing in a second/foreign language is not an unfamiliar concept in Chinese history; China, as a multi-ethnic country, has a long history of using different languages in writing. Before *Qin Shi Huang* (秦始皇), the first emperor of the *Qin* (秦) dynasty (221-206 BC), multiple languages were used in China, and many of them were not mutually intelligible in writing. Since *Qin Shi Huang* unified China and standardized its written language in the third century B.C., China has had a standardized official written language across the country.

In the following 20 centuries, written Chinese has developed from ancient Chinese to traditional Chinese to simplified Chinese, which is commonly used in Mainland China today. During this time, China has also encountered written languages from other civilizations. For example, as early as the *Han* (汉) dynasty, several eminent Buddhist monks (e.g., Kasyapa Matanga) from ancient India came to China and brought with them their own written language, Sanskrit. During the same time period (207 B.C.-220 A.D.), the Silk Road was developed to connect China with the middle East and later Europe and Africa for economic and political purposes. International trade between China and other countries promoted the development of L2W in China.

However, L2W during that time was restricted to only certain areas to a certain group of people, not enjoying the popularity among or influence on common people's everyday lives as it

does today. People engaged in L2W were primarily government-trained officials, missionaries, and some businessmen. In the Yuan dynasty, by the end of thirteenth century A.D. and beginning of the fourteenth, the emperor established a special academy, *Hui Hui Guo Zi Xue* (回回国子学), to facilitate translation between Chinese and Persian, in order to interpret written border defense reports (Liu, 1998), and the academy only had a total of 52 students and teachers. Such L2 training schools all included writing instruction in their curriculum, but none of them lasted very long, due to political concerns. In the Ming and early Qing dynasties, a sea ban was enforced by Chinese government, restricting maritime trading and coastal settlement. This practice greatly slowed the development of L2W in China until the mid 1800s.

Since the beginning, political issues have greatly affected the use of L2s in China. For example, the Opium War in the 1800s and the treaties signed afterwards became milestones in the spread of modern English in Mainland China. According to the treaties, the British had the privilege of doing business in five ports in southeast China and living in the interior. The treaties encouraged many cross-cultural and cross-language activities, for example, interactions among missionaries, customs officials, and local residents. Through these activities, the English language began to “penetrate” the Great Wall in China (Gil & Adamson, 2011, p. 26). By that time, English was used not only by British people with local Chinese residents but also among Chinese residents whose dialects were not mutually comprehensible. A good command of this language brought economic benefits to both local residents and the British.

In the history of Modern China (1840-1949), English was the most frequently used L2 in Mainland China. English writing has been a part of the Chinese educational system since the early 1860s, when the first government-supported foreign language institute in China was established. After the Second Opium War, the *Qing* (清) government realized the importance of learning to read and write in English because, according to the Tianjin Treaty signed after the War, all of the future treaties would be written in English and French. In 1862, *Tongwen Guan* (同文馆, the Academy of Interpreters) was established under the guidance of *Zongli Yamen* (总理衙门, the Office of Foreign Affairs) to provide training in foreign languages. English was the first foreign language taught at the Academy. The establishment of *Tongwen Guan* represented the beginning

of formal English education in China. Since one of the goals of *Tongwen Guan* was to train translators to read and translate treaties, English writing was included in its curriculum.

Beyond official government-supported institutions, L2W was also taught in schools established by western missionaries even prior to *Tong Wen Guan* (You, 2010). English writing was an important part of English education in mission schools for local Chinese, where students were taught both English grammar and literary works in their English classes. The first Protestant mission school that taught English in China was the Bridgman School (贝满学校) in the 1930s, where several students were recruited to learn about Christianity and English through translating Christian doctrine and compiling *The Chinese Repository* (《中国从报》). By the time *Tong Wen Guan* was established in 1862, there were over 50 mission schools in China, teaching English to local Chinese (Gu, 2003). The assignments in these mission schools included writing pieces on given topics in English (You, 2010). In addition to mission schools that taught English to local Chinese, there were also institutions teaching Chinese to foreign missionaries. For example, the North China Union Language School, Peking, (北京华北协和华语学校) was established by W. Hopkyn Rees from the London Missionary Society to prepare non-Chinese missionaries for their mission trips in China (Bian, 2010). At the School, writing in Chinese was one of the main subjects taught.

Ups and Downs (1949 A.D. - 2000 A.D.)

Upon the establishment of the People's Republic of China (PRC)¹ in 1949, China began a new era of development, during which L2W, especially the teaching of writing in foreign languages, has become a part of Chinese contemporary education, almost at the same time when scholars in the United States began to formally study L2W (Silva, 2013). Since then, L2W in China developed slowly and with fluctuation as the political and social environment changed.

Between 1949 and 1955, the communist government assembled its first Five-Year Plan, a national social and economic development plan. During this five-year period, English classes were canceled in middle schools and reduced in universities and colleges. Especially after 1950, when

¹ Since my dissertation only focuses on L2W journal articles published in Mainland China, henceforth China refers to the People's Republic of China, if not specified otherwise.

the Korean War broke out, English was recognized as the enemy's language since the United States became China's direct opponent in the War. During the Korean War, a nation-wide anti-American movement was launched in China, and the English language was almost completely excluded from Chinese people's daily lives and its educational system. Instead, Russian became the main foreign language to be taught at all levels. As the academic exchange between China and the Soviet Union increased, multiple Russian language schools were established. By 1951, 36 universities in China had Russian programs, and there were another seven Russian Language Colleges that were founded to train Chinese students to improve their Russian (Wang & Meng, 2005). In these schools and programs, writing in Russian was an important part of their curricula.

The blossoming of Russian language programs did not last long. Foreign language education almost disappeared during the Cultural Revolution (1966 A.D. - 1976 A.D.). During the Cultural Revolution, students had to spend more time in factories and on farms, and thus spent less time studying. Foreign language education was on the verge of extinction. Foreign languages, especially English, were associated with the western bourgeoisie, and people who spoke foreign languages were investigated as potential foreign spies. Foreign films, books, and broadcasts were all banned during the Revolution (Yao, 1993). Only a few universities had foreign language courses, but the content of the courses was about cultivating communist servants to praise communism and the communist leaders. For example, one of the lessons in the university English textbook was about worshipping Chairman Mao Zedong, the first PRC chairman. Students were required to read and recite sentences like "Long live Chairman Mao!" in their English class. Foreign language at that time was taught in order to serve the communist government, and all of the textbooks and teaching materials were developed locally by native Chinese speakers.

After the Cultural Revolution, came the historically significant Reform and Opening-up movement in China in the early 1980s, when the new leader in China, Deng Xiaoping, called for economic modernization and emphasized the learning of English as "the touchstone for getting ahead" (Xiong, 1982, p. 275). Due to the open and welcoming economic policy, an increasing number of foreign companies and investors came to China to look for opportunities. Foreign languages were no longer seen as the enemy's languages or the representation of the western bourgeoisie; instead, during this period, English became a sign of internationalization and modernization. It is also during this post-Cultural-Revolution era that college education was resumed, with English being an independent major in China's higher education system. In 1978,

Guidelines for the Practical Course at the Basic Level for University English Programs (高等学校英语专业基础阶段实践课教学大纲) was established as the first independent and complete set of national guidelines for college English majors in the PRC (Jiang, 2018). By the early 1980s, English courses were taught in different types of schools and in different ways. For example, English major students usually spent four years at universities with 16-18 class sessions per week devoted to different English courses, such as reading, speaking, writing, literature, and linguistics, and for non-English majors in Arts and Sciences, English became a required subject for two years with four class sessions every week (Xiong, 1982). Besides English, other foreign language programs (e.g., Russian, German, French, Japanese, Arabic, Spanish, Greek, Italian) were also recovered and re-took their positions in higher education in China. By the end of the 20th century, foreign language education in Chinese universities and colleges was fully recovered from the Cultural Revolution and became systematic. Eight foreign language universities were established with each offering multiple foreign language programs. In all of these foreign language programs, writing in the target language was one important component in their syllabi.

Fast Development (2000 A.D. - Present)

The development of L2W education in China in the 21st century can be seen in the changes in the status of foreign languages in China from an educational tool to a representation of China's international stature. In preparation for the Beijing 2008 Olympics, China experienced "English fever" (Wolff, 2010, p. 53) when the government unprecedentedly supported both formal and informal education in English and other foreign languages (Gao, 2012). During the first ten years of the 21st century, foreign language education, especially English education, spread to different academic levels, from kindergarten to graduate programs, with an increasing popularity in both public education systems and private language schools. According to Gil and Adamson (2011), English carries an instrumental function in both formal and informal education systems in China.

In the first decade of the 21st century, English was the foreign language that attracted the most attention of L2W educators. In order to encourage the study of English at the postsecondary level, China's Ministry of Education implemented the College English Test (CET) for all college students and the Test for English Majors (TEM) for all college English majors. At the beginning, CET Band Four (CET-4) was required for all college students to get their degrees, and they were

encouraged to pass CET-6 for better job opportunities, for example, employment in international companies (Lam, 2002). Even though passing CET-4 is no longer a graduation requirement, taking and passing these tests still make the graduates look good on job market. English was even suggested as the medium of instruction in some subjects in China's higher education system. In September 2011, the Ministry of Education suggested a national curriculum in which all universities and colleges should use English as the medium of instruction for information technology, biotechnology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and law (Gil & Adamson, 2011). These top-down policies from the government made English education one of the most important subjects in higher education in China. English regained its popularity and became the most popular foreign language in China, and the teaching of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English has become systematic and organized.

As foreign language education regained its popularity in China, L2 writing, recognized as crucial in international communication and business exchange, became embedded in China's national curriculum. The 2007 College English Curriculum Requirements (大学英语课程教学要求) by the Ministry of Education specified the requirement for College English curricula in terms of six skill areas, which are listening, speaking, reading, writing, translation, and vocabulary. According to the Requirements, after four years of study, all college undergraduate students should be able to complete general writing tasks, including the description of personal experiences, reflections, feelings, and events, in English. They should be able to produce essays of no less than 120 words in half an hour based on general topics/outlines, with complete content, clear main ideas, proper word choice, and coherent organization, and a mastery of basic writing skills is required. A higher-level requirement includes the ability to write short reports or theses on topics in their areas of study with rich content, clear logic, and strong organization.

In addition to the massive attention given to foreign language education in China, teaching Chinese to international students from other countries has also become an important part of L2 education in China in the 21st century. In 2008, there were a total of 80,000 degree-seeking international students in China, and 10,000 of them were graduate students (Cai, 2012). Currently in 2019, 51 universities² in China are accepting international students from various countries and

² A list of Chinese universities accepting international students can be found in Appendix A.

regions. Most international students are required to take Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (HSK), a standardized Chinese proficiency test when they apply for degree-seeking programs in China. HSK consists of six levels, and in Level III and above, a writing test is a required component. The difficulty of these writing tasks ranges from constructing a sentence with given words (Level III) to rewriting a narrative article in 400 characters within 35 minutes (Level VI).

With the rapid globalization in the 21st century, China has been experiencing a dramatic change regarding language education in the 2000s, whether it is teaching/learning foreign languages by local Chinese or preparing international students coming to China. L2W has spread into various aspects of China's society. Therefore, there is noticeably increased attention to studies on L2W related subjects in China since the establishment of the PRC in 1949.

L2W Studies in China

L2W has been part of the curriculum of the People's Republic of China since its establishment. Even though there were times when foreign language teaching was looked down upon for social and political reasons (e.g., during the Cultural Revolution), the rich and long history of L2W practice in China has provided fertile ground for research on this topic.

In recent years, L2W in China has been described as a single-parent child (e.g., Wu & Shang, 2013, October 19), with reference to the two parent fields of L2W in the United States. L2W as a discipline of study first developed in the U.S. context, and has been studied as a dynamic field, with applied linguistics and rhetoric and composition as its parents (Matsuda, 1999). However, in China, L2W has not been visibly influenced by the field of rhetoric and composition, thus leading scholars to describe L2W in China as a single-parent child with applied linguistics as its only parent.

In my dissertation study, I argue that L2W in China is a *different child* who comes from a different family, compared to that of L2W in the United States. It is not necessary and even dangerous to adopt one single framework to investigate the history of and to describe the works on L2W in various contexts. Always adopting the framework developed in the U.S. context may limit the development of L2W as an independent field in other contexts, in this case, China. Therefore, I plan to trace the history of L2W in the People's Republic of China and to identify the major driving forces behind its development in order to argue for a separate developmental framework.

L2W Journal Articles in China

Although the teaching of L2 writing in formal foreign language schools in China started as early as the 1860s, the earliest publication on L2 writing in the PRC did not appear until the late 1950s and early 1960s, 100 years after *Tongwen Guan* was established. One of the earliest journal articles on L2W was published in 1959 by Wangdao Ding (丁往道), entitled “A brief discussion of English writing and the writing class” (略談筆語和筆語課). Published in *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, this article discusses important areas of English writing that need to be addressed in teaching and suggests the establishment of a separated writing course in the English curriculum. Since then, scholars have investigated various topics related to L2W in the Chinese context. This has led to a dramatic increase in the number of publications on L2 writing in China since the end of the 20th century. According to Wang (2016), 92.76% of the journal articles on English writing in China were published in the 21st century (See Figure 1).



Figure 1 A Chronological Analysis of Journal Articles on EFL Writing in China

Early work on L2W in China focuses on finding ways to improve Chinese students' writing abilities through formal education. Journal articles published in the 1990s started to argue that English writing should be one of the core elements in China's English education (Zhu & Ye, 1996). Meanwhile, scholars began to investigate why Chinese students' English writing has been the weak link in improving their overall English proficiencies (Zhang, 1998). Therefore, Chinese

scholars applied western-oriented theories and pedagogies to Chinese teaching practice in order to improve students' English writing performances (Cai, 2001; Chen & Li, 1999; Su & Yang, 2001; Zhang, 2000). Most of the early journal articles on L2W in China were on practical issues such as methods to improve students' L2 writing, ways to make L2 writing teaching more effective, and features of writing in the L2.

As the field of L2 developed, Chinese scholars started to investigate and publish on other topics that are not directly related to teaching pedagogies in their published journal articles on EFL writing, which facilitated the blossoming of L2W writing scholarship in China. Discourse analysis, feedback, writing assessment, and corpus analysis became popular topics investigated and published by L2 scholars in China (Bai, 2012; Wu, 2003; Zhou et al., 2009). Currently, Chinese researchers publish articles on both theoretical and pedagogical topics related to students' EFL writing performance (He, 2013; Wang & Wang, 2004; F. Xu, 2011; You, 2004). As international academic exchanges have developed, more and more Chinese L2W scholars started to publish not only in China but also globally in internationally known journals, discussing many of the frontier topics with L2W scholars from all over the globe.

L2W Professional Development in China

To meet the need for more frequent academic communication on L2W topics among Chinese scholars, the Conference on Teaching and Researching EFL Writing in China (CEFLW) was established in 2003. The first Conference was held at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China, focusing on improving the effectiveness of English writing instruction in China (Zhang & Zhan, 2010). Since then, a total of 11 conferences have been held at different universities in China. Most CEFLW attendees are L2W teachers and scholars in China, although with the increasing globalization, CEFLW has attracted more and more international participants in recent years. With 15 years of development, CEFLW has also witnessed a more diverse range of topics (from focusing mainly on instruction to various L2W research topics) and form of presentations (from plenary talks and paper presentations to various forms including plenary talks, workshops, roundtables, colloquia, paper presentations and electronic posters). The major working language of the Conference is English; however, it welcomes abstracts written in either English or Chinese, and presenters can choose to use English or Chinese to present their research. This has been a tradition of CEFLWs, and such use of both languages enables smooth communication and

interactions between Chinese and international scholars and also provides an opportunity for Chinese scholars who are not proficient in or confident at presenting in English to share their work with other colleagues and to find a position in the Chinese L2W community.

CEFLW has been organized by the National Association of EFL Writing Teaching and Research³ (NAEFWTR), a national association exclusively devoted to EFL writing and responsible for organizing CEFLWs and other events related to EFL writing teaching and research, publishing conference proceedings, journal articles and books, as well as coordinating social media groups to promote academic exchange among Chinese L2W scholars. Besides CEFLW, NAEFLWTR has organized four week-long national events for English writing teaching and research and four international expert forums, which are accessible to all writing scholars in China. The combination of large-scale conferences and other relatively small-scale events provides Chinese L2 scholars with ample opportunities for professional development and academic exchanges (Zhang et al., 2019). In 2012, China's first journal on EFL writing, *Journal of EFL Writing Teaching and Research*, was started by NAEWTR. *Journal of EFL Writing Teaching and Research* is a biannual journal that publishes on English writing theories, rhetoric and composition, writing instruction, writing assessment, ESP/EAP writing, computer-assisted writing, and other related topics. In 2020, China published its journal on L2W, *Chinese Journal of Second Language Writing (CJSLW)*. CJSLW is hosted by NAEWTR and co-hosted by Foreign Language Teaching and Researching Press, with its editorial department at Shandong University, Jinan, China. CJSLW is devoted to publishing research and discussions that contribute to the understanding of L2W and its related issues. The establishment of CJSLW completes another puzzle for the professional development of L2W in China.

³ As of October 2021, NAEFWTR has become a member of China Association for Comparative Studies of English and Chinese (CACSEC).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

L2W Syntheses in English

Reviewing and synthesizing research articles to provide insights into the development of the field is nothing new in the field of second language writing. As early as the 1990s, L2W researchers began to see the importance of reviewing and evaluating existing publications on the topic. For example, Silva (1993) is one of the earliest L2W review articles, examining 72 empirical research studies to reveal the salient differences between L2 writing and L1 writing. Through the review, Silva (1993) shows that despite the similarity between L1 and L2 writing in the broad sense of both involving a recursive composing process to develop ideas and using proper rhetorical and linguistic resources to express, L2 writing has its distinct features in theory, research, and practice.

It is also from the early 1990s that L2W scholars started the practice of writing and publishing selected bibliographies of recent scholarship in L2W (Silva & Brice, 1995; Silva & Matsuda, 1998; Silva & Reichelt, 1993). Such periodical bibliographies can be found in the *Journal of Second Language Writing*. In 1999, a compiled annotated bibliography of L2W scholarship was published (Silva et al., 1999), and it presents 676 entries (including journal articles, book chapters, dissertations, and ERIC documents) on the teaching and learning of L2 writing. These annotated bibliographies (both periodical and compiled) help scholars in the field to keep track of what is going on and demonstrate the trajectory of the field's development over the years.

Such practice continues in the 21st century. In 2004, Silva and Brice examined L2W scholarship between 2000 and 2004 on the topic of L2W instruction (Silva & Brice, 2004). They discussed both basic and applied research to present an overview of relevant research, to provide implications for L2W teaching, and to evaluate the status quo of the field at that time. Four years later, the first and by-far the most comprehensive L2W synthesis was published. In order to promote understanding of L2W and to provide access to research in the field, Leki, Cumming, and Silva (2008) thematically synthesized the most significant and influential findings of published studies on L2W in English in the previous 20 years. The synthesis presents an analytical discussion of three major topics: 1) contexts for L2 writing, 2) instruction and assessment, and 3) basic research on second language writing. The important research findings analyzed in the synthesis

inform not only novice but also veteran researchers and provide motivation and direction for the future of the field (Reichelt, 2009). Since then, there has been an urgency for scholars to conduct review studies and synthesize existing and new findings.

Starting from 2011, the practice of presenting and publishing a yearly review of L2W scholarships in English began in the United States. Realizing the difficulty in keeping track of an increasing number of L2W publications every year, scholars synthesized, presented, and published yearly reviews of SLW scholarship, including journal articles, book chapters, books, dissertations, and ERIC documents (Silva, Chen, et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2011; Silva et al., 2012; Silva, Park, et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2017). They retrieved publications from a search of databases including Educational Information Resources Center (ERIC), Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA), ProQuest Dissertations and Theses (PQDT), and Worldcat (an online database that provides access to the collections of 71,000 libraries in 112 countries). Such yearly reviews were presented at the annual TESOL International Convention and published in *SLW News*⁴. This consistent review practice helps students, teachers, and researchers who are interested in L2W to keep up with research in the fast-developing field.

These review studies help novice researchers get familiar with the field quickly, encourage established scholars to identify gaps in the research, and promote the field's healthy development in the long run. Since the field of second language writing first came to be an area of study, efforts like these were never absent. To move forward, the field needs continuous and systematic review and synthesis studies not only to picture what is behind, but also to inspire what is ahead. In addition, such syntheses should not be limited to the ESL context in the United States but to be expanded to traditionally under- and unrepresented contexts, for example, the EFL context in China.

L2W Syntheses in China

Similar reviews and syntheses of research are also seen in the Chinese context. A number of Chinese L2W scholars have recognized the need to review existing studies not only to reflect on what is past but also to suggest future research topics. According to Wang (2016), there are over 100 journal articles published in China that review either one aspect of L2W (e.g., He, 2018, on writing anxiety) or the overall development of the field (e.g., Zhu, 2011). However, the number

⁴ SLW News is the online Interest Section Newsletter by TESOL International Association. SLW News publishes on the views, research, and pedagogical practices related to L2W in all contexts across levels.

of review articles on only one aspect of L2W is greatly more than review articles on L2W as a field.

Only nine existing studies (Cheng, 2011; S. Guo, 2009; He, 2013; Huang & Yu, 2009; Z. Li & S. Li, 2003; Qin, 2009; J. Wang, 2016; Yan & Cui, 2011; Yao & Cheng, 2005; Zhu, 2011) have identified “EFL writing” or “L2W” as their target context for review and synthesis, within which only two articles (S. Guo, 2009; Yan & Cui, 2011) extensively review China’s publications on L2W. Guo (2009) is the first study in China to expand beyond English writing and reviews articles on L2W in eight major linguistic journals published within a 18-year period. See Table One for data collection information from these nine review studies. These review studies collected data from different year ranges and from different sources and analyzed different numbers of articles, but all of them present L2W as a field of study.

Table 1 *Data Collection in L2W/EFL Writing Syntheses in China*

	Collecting Period	Year Range	Data Sources	Number of Articles	Context
Li & Li (2003)	1993-2002	10	8 major linguistic journals	127	English writing
Yao & Cheng (2005)	1980-2003	24	7 major linguistic journals	165	English writing
Huang & Yu (2009)	1993-2007	15	9 major linguistic journals	251	English writing
	2003-2007	5	17 linguistic journals	229	
Guo (2009)	1991-2008	18	8 major linguistic journals	164	L2W in China
Zhu (2011)	1980-2010	31	10 major linguistic journals	426	English writing
Cheng (2011)	2000-2009	10	9 major linguistic journals	273	English writing
Yan & Cui (2011)	2006-2010	5	9 major linguistic journals	149	L2W
He (2013)	2001-2010	10	14 major linguistic journals	402	EFL writing
Wang (2016)	1962-2015	44	1,417 journals	11,889	EFL writing

Most of these review studies draw data from major linguistics journals in China, with only one exception. Wang (2016) is by-far the most comprehensive review study on L2W research in terms of the time coverage and number of journal articles reviewed. Not limiting her data collection to major linguistics journals, Wang (2016) comprehensively searched the China Academic Journals Database (CAJ), the China Online Journal Database (COJ), and the Chinese Technology Periodical Database (CTP) with a total of 29 keywords. A large number of articles were read and analyzed in terms of developmental tendency, level of scholarship, focus of study, and subject matter. Although Wang (2016) is the most inclusive review study on L2W research in China, because it is in the form of a book chapter, it does not provide a detailed account on the content of these articles reviewed. For example, Wang (2016) identified the important focal areas discussed in the articles she retrieved, but she did not elaborate on what the reviewed articles say about these topic areas. Additionally, she only reviewed articles on EFL writing and did not include L2 writing that is produced in languages other than English.

Topics Revealed in the Syntheses

Although these review studies developed different codes⁵ to analyze their data, they do share some similarities in terms of main topics explored in existing L2W literature in China. An analysis across these review studies indicates that the four most commonly investigated topics in Chinese studies of L2 writing are: (1) L2 writing instruction, (2) characteristics of students' written texts, (3) factors influencing L2 writing abilities, and (4) L2 writing assessment.

Writing Instruction

Writing instruction is identified as one of the most studied areas by each of the synthesis studies. Qin (2009) identifies writing instruction as the most commonly researched topic in her data (she found 54 articles, comprising 40% of the total data). He (2013) lists teaching methodology as the second most heavily discussed topic (he reviewed 50 articles in this category). In Y. Zhu's (2011) review, 107 out of 426 studies are directly related to EFL teaching practices,

⁵ Refer to Table 3 for the coding schemes for topics used in these review articles.

and in Wang (2016), the teaching of writing is the focus of study for 5,595 articles, representing 47.06% of her total data.

In the published scholarship on English writing instruction, researchers have tracked the development of different teaching approaches and methodologies and put great effort into localizing these approaches to improve EFL writing instruction in China (Cai, 2001; Chen & Li, 1999). One of the most comprehensive descriptive studies on how EFL writing instruction developed in China is from (You, 2010), who reviewed the history of English composition in China, describing how Anglo-American rhetoric and composition affected English composition teaching practice in China from 1862 to 2008 and providing an integrative knowledge of how China's English writing instruction has changed due to political, historical, cultural, and economic reasons. Other researchers (Su & Yang, 2001; Wen, 2012) have examined the feasibility of different approaches to EFL writing instruction in China and have provided insights into how Chinese teachers can adopt the research-based L2 writing methodologies from western countries and adjust these approaches to facilitate Chinese students' EFL writing development.

Characteristics of Students' Written Texts

The distinct features in Chinese students' written texts in English is another heavily discussed area in the research of L2 writing in China. In two of the review studies, the authors identify "features of students' written texts" as the most commonly researched topic in China's EFL writing studies (He, 2013; Zhu, 2011). In He's (2013) study, 59 journal articles published between 2001 and 2010 are identified as direct investigation of students' written texts, making this topic the most researched topic in his review. According to the researchers, one of the characteristics of studies on this topic is the large number of corpus-based studies (Liang et al., 2004; Qin, 2009). The four main written corpuses used to investigate this topic are: Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners (WECCL), Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners (SWECCCL), International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE), and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS).

Chinese researchers have also investigated the lexical, syntactical, and rhetorical patterns in Chinese students' EFL writing texts. Researchers identify that Chinese students do not demonstrate a large variety of vocabulary in their EFL writing (Pan & Feng, 2004), and the

organization and development (Wu, 2003) of their English texts indicate their use of L1 in EFL composition.

Factors Influencing L2 Writing Abilities

Chinese researchers also investigate factors that influence students' L2 writing processes, including both linguistic and non-linguistic factors. These factors were originally neglected by L2W researchers in China because researchers focused previously on analyzing the written products produced by English learners in China (Yao & Cheng, 2005; Zhu, 2011). The increasing number of articles on writing process indicates that researchers have come to identify L2 writing as a complex process that is influenced by numerous linguistic and non-linguistic factors.

Linguistic factors that affect students' EFL writing include students' L1 writing abilities, English proficiencies, and L2 writing knowledge (L. Wang, 2002a). In recent years, more attention has been paid to non-linguistic factors that influence L2 writing. Researchers have identified the most frequently studied non-linguistic influential factors as the differences in writing strategies (Yang, 2002), language transfer processes (C. Wang, 2013), and writing environment and tasks (Liu et al., 2017). These factors are not directly related to students' language proficiencies but have been found to be significant factors that affect students' L2 writing development and performance.

L2 Writing Assessment

Writing assessment is also among the most commonly researched topics in Chinese studies of L2 writing. In his review study, He (2013) lists writing assessment as the fourth most studied topic in China's EFL writing scholarship. Research in this topic area covers various testing tools for L2 writing in China. One of the most explored topics is the investigation of national standardized English tests for Chinese college students. Researchers have examined the rubric, reliability, validity, and washback effects of two national standardized tests, The National College English Test (CET) and Test for English Majors (TEM) (Cai & Wang, 2009; Gu & Yang, 2009). In addition to the discussion of CETs and TEMs, other researchers (Bai, 2012; Y. Li, 2015) also develop their own assessment tools to evaluate students' English writing development in classroom settings.

Research Methods Discussed in the Syntheses

After identifying the frequently studied topics in the scholarship, most of the review studies (eight out of ten) discuss research methods involved in the scholarship. Except for Guo (2009), all the other review studies apply the same coding scheme for research methods, which are empirical and non-empirical respectively. Guo (2009) uses qualitative, quantitative, and experimental as the codes for research methods in the scholarship she reviewed. These review studies indicate that non-empirical studies are traditionally more favorable to Chinese researchers, but the number of empirical studies on SLW has been increasing and has started to become dominant.

In conclusion, L2W research has been conducted in the Chinese context with a focus on English writing since the establishment of the PRC in 1949, but the history of L2W research hasn't been well recorded yet in China. Both the long history of teaching practice and the large amount of research demand a more comprehensively recorded history of L2W in China. It is significant to know how L2W research studies started to grow in Mainland China and where their future may lie. Such a comprehensive and up-to-date synthesis will help scholars navigate the increasing scholarship and make the Chinese scholarship visible to speakers of other languages. In addition, it will encourage researchers in other EFL countries/regions to trace the history of L2W in their contexts.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

In my dissertation study, I synthesized journal articles on L2W in China's major linguistic journals since the establishment of People's Republic of China in 1949. The last seventy years (1949-2018) were chosen as the time period for my analysis due to the dramatic changes in academic environment and rapid development of L2W during this time. My synthesis aims at developing a picture of the field's developmental path with regard to the number of articles published each year on each topic and the major topics represented in the literature. The field of L2W has developed quickly in the past 70 years in China. The communist People's Republic of China with its central government have changed its educational policies in Mainland China multiple times, and these changes have influenced the way scholars investigate L2W and how L2W is perceived in the Chinese context. However, only several syntheses and You's (2010) chapters on English writing instruction in China have explored L2W development during parts of this time period. No existing synthesis provides an in-depth analysis of L2W studies between 1949 and 2018 in Mainland China. In order to address L2W development in China during this important time period, I synthesized L2W articles in China's major linguistic/foreign language journals from the past 70 years, presenting a numerical trend of development, with descriptions of major topics explored, research methods used, and contexts investigated in the 70 years of literature.

Data Sources

My data are from the existing L2W articles from major linguistics/foreign language journals in Mainland China. Major linguistics /foreign language journals are identified and classified based on the impact factors of each journal and the quality of its articles. Articles from these major journals are generally considered the most respected publications in linguistic and foreign language studies in China. In the field of foreign language studies and applied linguistics, there are two general classification indexes that are widely accepted by scholars and considered the most authoritative: 1) the Chinese Core Journals Index (中文核心期刊) compiled by Beijing University Library, and 2) the Chinese Social Sciences Citation Index (中文社会科学引文索引来源期刊) compiled by Nanjing University. Both classification indexes are updated regularly; at

the time of writing, the most recent update for Chinese Core Journals Index was published in 2017, and the most recent update for Chinese Social Sciences Citation Index was in 2019. These different classification systems use slightly different criteria for inclusion, but they both cover the most distinguished journals in the field. Now many leading universities in China use these two indexes as a basis for evaluation for promotion and academic achievements in the fields of English, applied linguistics, and foreign language studies. If one journal is included in both indexes, it is considered an authoritative journal, and if it is only listed in one of the two indexes, the journal is considered a key journal. More information (names of the journals, years of establishment, publishers, etc.) on these major linguistic/foreign language journals can be found in Figure 7 in the Results Chapter.

The most recent index⁶ published by Beijing University includes 13 major foreign language journals, which are 1) 外语教学与研究 (*Foreign Language Teaching and Research*), 2) 外语界 (*Foreign Language World*), 3) 外语教学 (*Foreign Language Education*), 4) 外国语 (*Journal of Foreign Language*), 5) 现代外语 (*Modern Foreign Language*), 6) 外语与外语教学 (*Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*), 7) 中国外语 (*Foreign Languages in China*), 8) 外语学刊 (*Foreign Language Research*), 9) 外语教学理论与实践 (*Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice*), 10) 外语电化教学 (*Computer-Assisted Foreign Language Education*), 11) 解放军外国语学院学报 (*Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages*), 12) 外语研究 (*Foreign Languages Research*), and 13) 外国语文 (*Foreign Language and Literature*). These journals are identified as major journals in foreign language studies in Mainland China by scholars from the Periodical Department of the Beijing University Library, the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), and the China Periodicals Association.

The index published by Nanjing University is known as the Chinese Social Science Citations Index (CSSCI). Twenty-four journals are included in the linguistic category of CSSCI (2019-2020) index. These journals are 1) 当代修辞学 (*Contemporary Rhetoric*), 2) 当代语言学

⁶ By the time I collected my data, the most recent Chinese Core Journals Index was from 2017.

(*Contemporary Linguistics*), 3) 方言 (*Dialect*), 4) 古汉语研究 (*Research in Ancient Chinese Language*), 5) 汉语学报 (*Chinese Linguistics*), 6) 汉语学习 (*Chinese Language Learning*), 7) 民族语文 (*Minority Languages of China*), 8) 上海翻译 (*Shanghai Journal of Translators*), 9) 世界汉语教学 (*Chinese Teaching in the World*), 10) 外国语 (*Journal of Foreign Language*), 11) 外语电化教学 (*Computer-Assisted Foreign Language Education*), 12) 外语教学 (*Foreign Language Education*), 13) 外语教学理论与实践 (*Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice*), 14) 外语教学与研究 (*Foreign Language Teaching and Research*), 15) 外语界 (*Foreign Language World*), 16) 外语与外语教学 (*Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*), 17) 现代外语 (*Modern Foreign Language*), 18) 语文研究 (*Linguistic Research*), 19) 语言教学与研究 (*Language Teaching and Linguistic Studies*), 20) 语言科学 (*Linguistic Sciences*), 21) 语言文字应用 (*Applied Linguistics*), 22) 中国翻译 (*Chinese Translators Journal*), 23) 中国外语 (*Foreign Languages in China*), 24) and 中国语文 (*Studies of the Chinese Language*).

Data Collection

The journal articles for this study were collected from China Academic Journals Full-text Database (中国期刊全文数据库). The Database includes 11,274 China academic journals, with 66,032,014 full-text journal articles⁷. It is considered the largest and the most constantly updated Chinese journal article database in the world, including journals on the academy, technology, policy guidance, popular science, and education. The Database's articles date back to 1915 and cover multiple disciplines, such as science, engineering, agriculture, philosophy, pharmacy, humanities, and social sciences.

⁷ These numbers for periodicals and articles were retrieved from China Academic Journal Full-text Database through CNKI on May 30, 2019.

I retrieved the journal articles with three sets of keywords, which are 二语 AND 写作 (second language AND writing), 英语 AND 写作 (English AND writing) and 外语 AND 写作 (foreign language AND writing). I used additional keywords to 二语 AND 写作 (second language AND writing) for my search because English is the most popular and the most frequently studied foreign language in China, and many scholars use “English writing” or “foreign language writing” as an alternative to “second language writing” in their L2W studies. To retrieve all the related articles, I searched with Chinese keywords and allowed cross-language search because even though some journals include English abstracts and titles, most of them only accept and publish manuscripts that are written in Chinese.

The initial search was completed on March 25, 2019 and yielded a total of 2,421 articles. the search yielded journal articles on second language writing, English education, literary studies, and translation studies. I reviewed the abstract of each journal article to decide whether or not it focused specifically on second language writing. The primary criteria I used to examine the relevance of the abstracts are 1) the purpose of the article, 2) the main subject of the study, and 3) the main argument(s) in the article. I excluded literary studies that analyze the word choice or writing style of a certain author; I also excluded translation studies that focus on oral translation. However, I included literary studies that compare western and oriental writing styles and translation studies that discuss reconstructing meaning in written translation practice. After the two rounds of review, I narrowed my data set to 1,340 articles. All these articles present research or opinions on writing that is done in a language that is not the subject’s first language.

Data Analysis

After retrieving these 1,340 articles, I grouped them based on their years of publication and developed coding schemes in terms of topic, research method, and context. Each article was read and coded with regards to these three aspects.

Coding Schemes

To develop my coding schemes, I applied a mixed two-step approach: 1) a top-down approach to draw codes from the existing synthesis studies, and 2) a bottom-up approach to let the

codes emerge from my data. In the literature I reviewed, articles were coded in different ways. See Table Two for the types of coding schemes in existing syntheses. Most of the syntheses coded their data in terms of topics/content and research methods, and only a couple of more recent syntheses (He, 2013; J. Wang, 2016) have additional coding schemes. In my dissertation study, I decided to use three types of coding schemes: a coding scheme for topics, a coding scheme for research methods, and a coding scheme for contexts.

Table 2 *Types of Coding Schemes in the Literature I Reviewed*

Article	Type of Schemes
Li & Li (2003)	Topics and Methods
Yao & Cheng (2005)	Methods and Topics
Huang & Yu (2009)	Methods and Content
Guo (2009)	Content and Methods
Zhu (2011)	Methods and Content
Cheng (2011)	Content and Methods
Yan & Cui (2011)	Methods and Topics
He (2013)	Journals, Authors, Topics, and Methods
Wang (2016)	Level of Scholarship, Focus of Study, and Subject Matter

Coding Schemes for Topics

To begin the coding of my data, I first analyzed the coding schemes for major topics in existing literature. Although all of the existing syntheses include coding schemes for focus of study, the codes are different in each study. Table Three lists the major coding schemes developed in these syntheses. Some syntheses have only several general codes (e.g., S. Guo, 2009), and others have very detailed and specific codes (e.g., He, 2013). However, there are some common codes that appeared in multiple schemes, such as writing instruction, assessment and evaluation, written product, and influential factors.

Table 3 *Coding Schemes for Topics in the Literature I Reviewed*

Article	Codes
Li & Li (2003)	1) Discourse structure, 2) Pedagogy, 3) The relationship between writing and its related disciplines, 4) Writing evaluation and assessment, 5) Influential factors, 6) Language, and 7) Problems in writing and others.
Yao & Cheng (2005)	1) Problems in English writing, 2) Influential factors, 3) Reasons for ineffective English writing instruction, 4) Contrastive rhetoric between English and Chinese, 5) Discussions on writing pedagogy, and 6) English writing evaluation and assessment.
Huang & Yu (2009)	1) Discourse structure, 2) Writing instruction, 3) Writing evaluation and assessment, 4) Influential factors, 5) Problems related to writing, 6) Writing and its related disciplines, 7) Written language, 8) Writing textbooks, and 9) Other.
Guo (2009)	1) L2 written product, 2) L2 writing context, and 3) L2 writing instruction.
Zhu (2011)	1) Students' strategies, 2) Teachers' instruction, 3) Language factors, 4) Writing environment, and 5) Feedback & reflection.
Cheng (2011)	1) Writing instruction, 2) Textual characteristics, 3) Influential Factors, and 4) Feedback and evaluation.
Yan & Cui (2011)	1) Writing instruction, 2) Written product, 3) Writing evaluation and assessment, 4) Writing process, 5) Contexts of writing, 6) Readers' feedback, and 7) Reviews and meta-studies.
He (2013)	1) Students' written texts, 2) Writing instruction, 3) Modern technology and writing, 4) Writing assessment, 5) Feedback, 6) Cognition/Metacognition, 7) Coherence in writing, 8) Vocabulary, 9) Process approach, 10) Reviews, 11) L1-related, 12) Reading and writing, 13) Learners' mentality, 14) Experience writing, 15) Functions of writing, 16) Writing tasks, 17) Thesis and dissertation, 18) Genre, 19) Writing textbooks, 20) Contrastive rhetoric, 21) Abstract writing, 22) Scaffolding theory, 23) Conference reports, 24) Book reviews, and 25) Others.
Wang (2016)	1) Teaching of writing, 2) Written text, 3) Approaches to writing, 4) Writing ability, 5) Influential factors, 6) Writing process, 7) Writing assessment, 8) Textbooks on writing, 9) Meta-studies on writing, and 10) Others.

Drawing from the existing schemes and a preliminary reading of my data, I created a coding scheme for topics with six basic codes: 1) writing instruction, 2) written product, 3) writing process, 4) writer development, 5) writing assessment, and 6) writing and technology. In order to see how well these codes worked with my data set, I randomly chose and coded 100 pieces from my data set, representing 7.5% of my entire corpus of data. This initial coding revealed that these six categories are not sufficient to code the journal articles I retrieved. Some articles cannot be coded with any of these six codes. Therefore, I developed three additional codes: 1) cross-area studies, 2) discourse rhetoric, and 3) disciplinary studies. Table Four shows the codes I used in this study along with example topics under each code. The final coding scheme I used for topics includes eight codes, which are 1) writing instruction, 2) written product, 3) writing process, 4) writer development, 5) writing assessment, 6) cross-area studies, 7) discourse analysis, and 8) disciplinary studies.

Table 4 *Codes Used in This Study*

No.	Codes	Examples
1	Writing instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development and application of various pedagogies • Problems in writing instruction • Influential factors in writing instruction • Curriculum development • Teacher training
2	Written product	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rhetorical features • Sentence structure • Word choice and vocabulary variety
3	Writing process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing tasks • Brainstorming, drafting, composing, and revising • Editing
4	Writer development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identity and cognition • Struggles and difficulties
5	Writing assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standardized writing tests • Teacher/peer feedback • Self-evaluation
6	Cross-area studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Translation studies • Reading and writing • Speaking and writing
7	Discourse analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L1 writing versus L2 writing • Genre analysis
8	Disciplinary studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta-analysis and reviews • Translingual writing

Each code is used for a variety of articles of similar focus. Code One, Writing Instruction, includes articles that directly discuss the teaching of L2W. Such topics include the current status of L2W instruction, the development and localization of different pedagogical approaches, curriculum development at all levels of education, thoughts/ideas on classroom instruction for the future, and teacher training in both formal and informal education settings. Code Two, Written Product, is comprised of articles that focus on the product of L2W. Many aspects of the L2W product are included in the articles with Code Two, ranging from word level (word choice and spelling) to discourse level (rhetorical patterns and structure). Code Three, Writing Process, is given to articles that explore the specific elements of writing processes, from brainstorming and drafting, to revising and editing. Code Four, Writer Development, is similar to Code Three in the sense that articles with either code examine writing as an ongoing process rather than a finished product, but Code Four is used especially for articles that look at writers instead of writing itself. These articles present struggles in a writer's development, suggestions for writers' improvement, or cognitive and identity issues related to L2 writers. Code Five, Writing Assessment, includes articles on feedback and assessment. Articles with this code describe the reliability and validity of different writing tests, present different classroom and self-assessment tools and techniques, examine the effectiveness of various types of feedback, and discuss test takers' and writers' reactions to different evaluation tasks.

The last three codes were not pre-developed but rather emerged during my coding process. Code Six, Cross-Area Studies, refers to articles that link writing to other aspects of language learning. These articles are about the relationship between reading and writing, writing techniques in translation practice, and how speaking and listening tasks can help improve students' L2W abilities. Code Seven, Discourse Analysis, is comprised of articles that compare L1W and L2W and articles that analyze different genres. Articles on technical writing, business writing, news writing are all coded in this category. The last code, Disciplinary Studies, encompasses articles that are meta-analysis or studies whose subject is the field of L2W itself.

Coding Scheme for Research Methods

Research method is another heavily investigated area in review studies; eight out of the nine syntheses I reviewed discuss the type of methods used in the synthesized articles. Different from the coding scheme for topics, codes for research methods in the existing literature are

relatively less diverse. Table Five shows the coding schemes used in existing syntheses. Generally, there are two types of coding schemes for research methods: one-tier schemes and two-tier schemes. Most syntheses (He, 2013; Huang & Yu, 2009; Z. Li & S. Li, 2003; Yan & Cui, 2011; Zhu, 2011) adopt one-tier coding with only two codes: Empirical and Non-empirical, and three syntheses (Cheng, 2011; S. Guo, 2009; Yao & Cheng, 2005) used two-tier coding schemes with the second tier for specific techniques used under each research type.

Table 5 *Codes for Research Methods in the Literature I Reviewed*

Articles	Codes for Research Methods
Li & Li (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empirical • Non-empirical
Yao & Cheng (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empirical <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Quantitative ○ Qualitative ○ Mixed-method • Non-empirical <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Personal thoughts ○ Operation description ○ Theoretical reflection
Huang & Yu (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empirical • Non-empirical
Guo (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quantitative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Questionnaire ○ Empirical studies • Qualitative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Observation ○ Think aloud ○ Participation experience • Experimental
Zhu (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empirical • Non-empirical
Cheng (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-empirical <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Personal experiences and suggestions ○ Theoretical application and description of current situation ○ Operation description • Empirical <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Quantitative ○ Qualitative ○ Mixed method
Yan & Cui (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empirical • Non-empirical
He (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empirical • Non-empirical

In my study, a two-tier coding scheme was developed for research methods. Articles were first coded as empirical studies or non-empirical studies based on the description of the research design. In current literature, there is ambiguity in the differentiation of empirical and non-empirical studies. Some scholars define empirical research as studies using observed and measured data to answer particular research questions; others adopt a broader definition that empirical research derives knowledge from actual experience rather than from theory or belief (Matsuda & Silva, 2005; Silva, 2005). I made the decision for this study that empirical studies are studies involving data collection and analysis, while non-empirical studies involve no actual data collection process. After dividing all my data into two groups (empirical and non-empirical), I further categorized articles in each group in terms of their specific data collection techniques and research design. The empirical studies identified in my study were further coded as 1) qualitative studies, 2) quantitative studies, and 3) studies with mixed methods. The non-empirical studies identified in my study were further coded as 1) description of experiences, 2) theoretical discussions, and 3) personal suggestions and opinions.

Coding Scheme for Contexts

The last set of coding scheme I developed for my study was for context. In the syntheses I reviewed, only Wang (2016) analyzed the context in the section she titled Subject Matter. Wang (2016) divided the contexts of articles into 11 categories: 1) Undergraduate L2 writing, 2) L2 writing of unspecified students, 3) L2 writing in general sense, 4) Approaches to writing, 5) Professional L2 writing, 6) Secondary L2 writing, 7) Vocational L2 writing, 8) Primary L2 writing, 9) Postgraduate L2 writing, 10) L2 writing of adult part-time students, and 11) Others (e.g., minority students). Based on Wang's (2016) codes and a preliminary reading of my data, I developed a two-tier coding scheme based on writers' academic levels. Table Six presents my coding scheme for contexts.

Table 6 *Coding Scheme for Contexts*

No.	Primary Code	Secondary Codes
1	K-12 L2 writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elementary • Middle school • High school
2	Undergraduate L2 writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English majors • Non-English majors
3	Graduate L2 writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Master's students • Doctoral students
4	Professional L2 writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scientific L2 writing • Medical L2 writing • News L2 writing • Other

Compilation of Findings

After coding all the articles, I first analyzed the developmental tendency of my data by calculating the number of articles in each year and the number of articles on each topic, each research method used, and in each context. The developmental trends of the field of L2W in China were depicted by each code's numerical changes during the past 70 years. After analyzing the numerical trends of L2W articles, I focused on the features of major topics, research methods, and contexts. The most frequently studied topics, the methods preferred by China's researchers and teachers, and the most heavily investigated populations were identified. The next chapter will use concrete examples from the articles I reviewed, along with charts and tables, to illustrate these features, followed by Chapter Five, Six, Seven, and Eight each on a detailed synthesis of a major topic.

CHAPTER FOUR: MAJOR FINDINGS

The past seventy years have witnessed a dramatic increase in the number of journal articles⁸ on L2W in China, with a broader range of theoretical, pedagogical, and empirical topics from scholars both within and outside China. A total of China's 28 major linguistic/foreign language journals have published 1,340 articles on L2W topics between 1949 and 2018. This chapter reports on general numerical trends, major topics, research methods, and major contexts in these articles.

General Tendency

In all of the 28 journals I surveyed, 23 journals published at least one article on L2W in the past 70 years (1949-2018). Most of these articles are in Chinese: 1,024 out of 1,340 articles are written in Chinese with English abstracts, and 307 articles are in Chinese with no English abstracts. Only eight of the 1,340 articles are completely in English (four with Chinese abstracts and another four with no Chinese abstracts). The number of L2W articles published each year has increased dramatically, from zero in 1949 to 114 in 2018 (See Figure 2). In June of 1957, the People's Republic of China established its first academic journal in the field of foreign language studies, *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, and since then scholars have published on related issues in these language/linguistic journals. The seventy years can be divided into four major developmental periods, reflecting the numerical trend in journal article publication: 1) Silent Period (1949-1958), 2) Slow Start (1959-1997), 3) Rapid Growth (1998-2015), and 4) Prosperous Period (2016-2018). The following sections will provide a detailed analysis of characteristics in each time period.

⁸ In this chapter, the term "journal articles" refers journal articles in the major linguistic/foreign language journals.

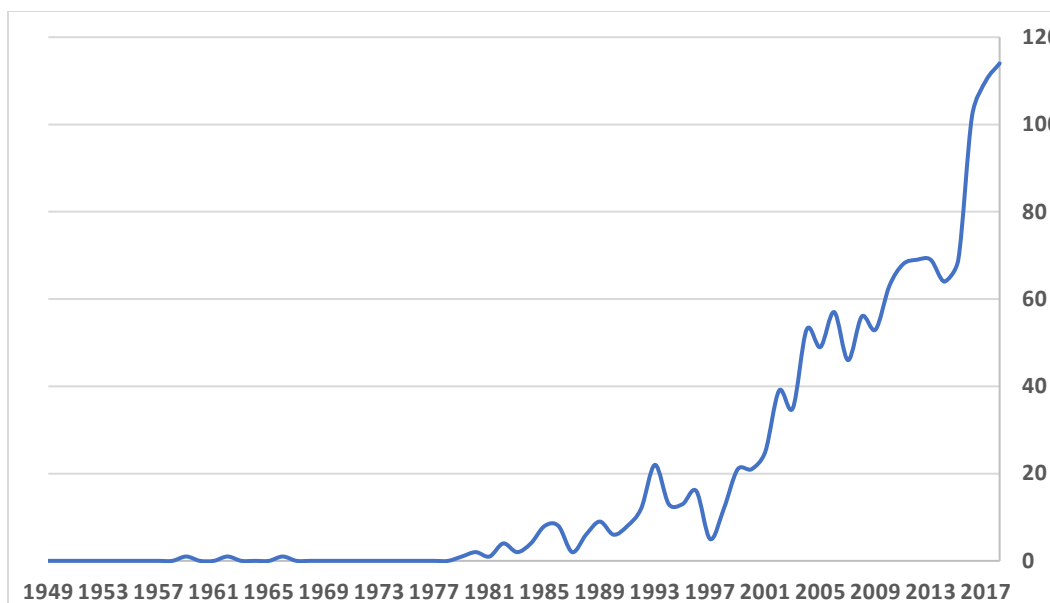


Figure 2 A Chronological Analysis of L2W Articles in the Major Journals (1949-2018)

Chronological Analysis of the L2W Journal Articles

Since China's first journal article on L2W, published in 1959 by Professor Wangdao Ding in *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, the publication of L2W journal articles experienced a slow increase during the next 38 years, with an average of four articles per year. The next two periods saw more rapid development of L2W in China in terms of a dramatic increase in L2W journal articles per year, from an average of 48 articles per year in the Rapid Growth Period (1998-2015) to a yearly average of 109 articles in the Prosperous Period (2016-2018). The most recent 10 years have witnessed the publication of 58.33% of the total L2W journal articles in China.

Silent Period (1949-1958)

During the first 10 years (1949-1958) of the People's Republic of China, there was complete silence in academic publishing on the topic of L2W. In these silent years, China focused its national resources on economic recovery from the wars and political stability rather than academic development or educational investment. For political reasons, English composition disappeared from the college curriculum in China after 1949. It was not until the early 1960s that English came back to higher education in China and was perceived as a bridge between China and

the West (You, 2010). This lack of academic publications shows how the beginning of L2W studies in China was heavily influenced by the local political environment.

Although three⁹ of the 28 journals I surveyed were established during this period, none of them published anything on L2W until late in the 1960s. Early publications from these three linguistic/foreign language journals mainly discussed specific linguistic aspects of different languages (e.g., English, French, German) or analysis of western literary works. The content of these early linguistic/foreign language journal articles was strongly political. For example, in one of the early articles in *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, the Rightists in the field of western language teaching were rebuked for their denial of the Communist Party's leadership in language teaching, their resistance to Russian pedagogies, and their promotion of so-called Bourgeois teaching (Editorial Board, 1957). During this political transition, academic communications served a political with regard to teaching and interacting with western language and culture.

Slow Start (1959-1997)

The 1959 journal article by Professor Wangdao Ding marks the beginning of Chinese scholars' academic publishing on the topic of L2W in the People's Republic of China. The next 35 years witnessed a slow but sturdy start of L2W development in the PRC. A total of 145 journal articles on L2W were published during this period of time. As shown in Figure Three, only a couple of journal articles appeared in the 1960s and 1970s, partially due to the political turmoil during that time in China. It was in the late 1970s, after the Cultural Revolution, that academic communication resumed its development. The number of L2W articles in each year increased from only a couple between the 1960s and 1980s to an average of 10 articles per year in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

⁹ *Zhongguo Yuwen* (中国语文) was founded in 1952; *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* (外语教学与研究) was founded in 1957; *Contemporary Linguistics* (当代语言学) was founded in 1961.

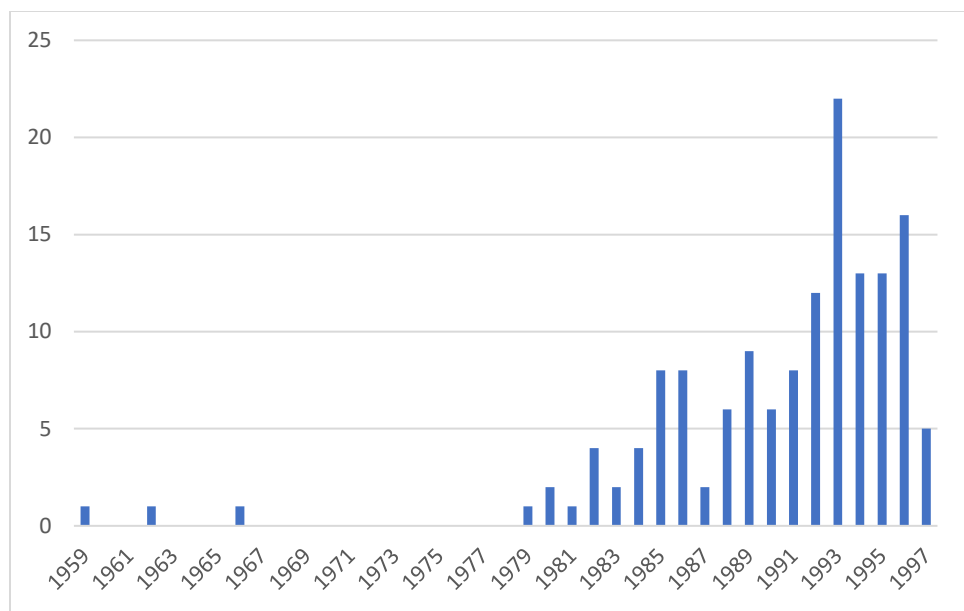


Figure 3 Number of Articles in Each Year During the Slow Start Period (1959-1997)

Early studies in the 1960s focus on providing general suggestions on writing development (Dai, 1962; Yu, 1966). Dai (1962) suggests three general ways to improve students' writing ability, which are 1) instructors should provide students with opportunities to write on various topics and in different genres, 2) students should be writing more narratives than argumentative essays, and 3) intensive reading, extensive reading, and reciting should be integrated into the teaching of writing in foreign languages. Yu (1966) summarizes his teaching experiences and provides suggestions regarding improving students' foreign language writing skills. According to Yu (1966), foreign language instructors should start with the teaching of texts in the textbook, focus on the use of newly learned vocabulary, and help students in brainstorming ideas and outlining drafts. In addition, teachers are encouraged to create extra-curricular writing opportunities for their students to practice what they had learned in class.

Another feature of the early L2W journal articles is the inclusion of different language contexts. Five languages represented in these articles are Russian (e.g., Yu, 1966), English (e.g., Zhang, 1979), Chinese (e.g., Yang, 1982), French (e.g., Zhang, 1983), and German (e.g., Feng, 1995). The variety of languages addressed in the limited amount of literature shows that multiple languages were taught and studied in China as the country recovered from political disorder and prepared for economic revival. The interaction between local Chinese with people from various

language backgrounds reflects how the early development of L2W studies in China were heavily influenced by interactions with and studies in other cultural backgrounds.

Rapid Growth (1998-2015)

The field of L2W studies started its rapid and sturdy growth in China at the end of 1990s. In the following 18 years, the number of L2W articles published in major journals in each year increased dramatically from 12 in 1998 to 69 in 2015 (as shown in the trend line in Figure Four). The increased annual publications resulted from the nation's open and reformed political and economic policies, as well as from the increased emphasis on international interaction and communication.

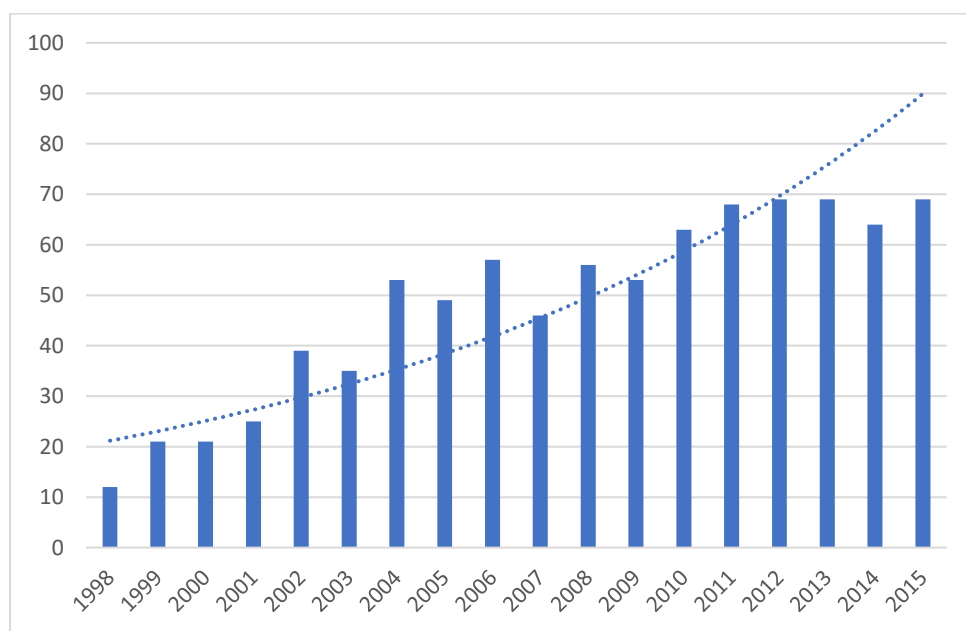


Figure 4 Number of Articles in Each Year During the Rapid Growth Period (1998-2015)

In the 869 L2W articles published during this period, the variety of issues discussed has expanded, compared with that of the Slow Start Period. Topics presented during this period are not limited to writing instruction but start to cover writing assessment, students' written products, writer development, writing processes, cross-area studies, disciplinary studies, genre analysis, and L1 and L2 interactions. Detailed discussion of issues under each topic will be presented in the next section, Major Topics, in this chapter.

Prosperous Period (2016-2018)

This three-year period is the shortest in terms of time but the most productive in terms of the number of journal articles on L2W. In recent years, the number of L2W articles published in each year reached 100 and continued to increase year by year. In 2016, 102 L2W articles appeared in the journals I surveyed; in 2017, the number increased to 110; and in 2018, 114 articles in the major journals were on the topic of L2W. The topics discussed in articles published in this period are diverse and represent the recent reform of China's educational system. All the major topics identified in this study are present in the articles published during the Prosperous Period.

Analysis by Publication Venue

A total of 28 journals are classified as major linguistic/foreign language journals in this study. Table Seven provides the basic information on the names, index types, years of 1st issue, and sponsors of these 28 journals. The newest edition of Chinese Core Journals Index (中文核心期刊) compiled by Beijing University Library has 13 journals in its category of foreign language journals, and the newest edition of Chinese Social Sciences Citation Index (中文社会科学引文索引来源期刊) compiled by Nanjing University identifies 24 journals in its linguistic category. Nine of these 28 journals are identified as major journals by both indices, and in this study, I identify these nine journals¹⁰ as authoritative periodicals. Among the 1,340 articles in my study, 951 are from the authoritative periodicals, constituting 71% of the total number of articles.

¹⁰ These nine authoritative periodicals are *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* (外语教学与研究), *Modern Foreign Language* (现代外语), *Journal of Foreign Language* (外国语), *Foreign Language Education* (外语教学), *Computer-Assisted Foreign Language Education* (外语电化教学), *Foreign Language World* (外语界), *Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice* (外语教学理论与实践), *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching* (外语与外语教学), and *Foreign Languages in China* (中国外语).

Table 7 *Basic Information on the Major Linguistic/Foreign Language Journals*

Name of the Journal	Index Type	Year of 1st Issue	Sponsor
Zhongguo Yuwen 《中国语文》	CSSCI	1952	Institute of Linguistics, CASS (中国社会科学院语言研究所)
Foreign Language Teaching and Research 《外语教学与研究》	Both	1957	Beijing Foreign Studies University (北京外国语大学)
Contemporary Linguistics 《当代语言学》	CSSCI	1961	Institute of Linguistics, CASS (中国社会科学院语言研究所)
Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages 《解放军外国语学院学报》	Core Journal	1978	PLA University of Foreign Languages (解放军外国语学院)
Modern Foreign Language 《现代外语》	Both	1978	Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (广东外语外贸大学)
Foreign Language Research 《外语学刊》	Core Journal	1978	Heilongjiang University (黑龙江大学)
Journal of Foreign Language 《外国语》	Both	1978	Shanghai International Studies University (上海外国语大学)
Foreign Language Education 《外语教学》	Both	1979	Xi'an International Studies University (西安外国语大学)
Computer-Assisted Foreign Language Education 《外语电化教学》	Both	1979	Shanghai International Studies University (上海外国语大学)
Language Teaching and Linguistic Studies 《语言教学与研究》	CSSCI	1979	Beijing Language and Culture University (北京语言大学)
Fangyan 《方言》	CSSCI	1979	Institute of Linguistics, CASS (中国社会科学院语言研究所)
Minority Languages of China 《民族语文》	CSSCI	1979	The Institute of Ethnology and Anthropology, CASS (中国社会科学院民族学与人类学研究所)
Foreign Language World 《外语界》	Both	1980	Shanghai International Studies University (上海外国语大学)
Foreign Language and Literature 《外国语文》	Core Journal	1980	Sichuan International Studies University (四川外国语大学)
Chinese Translators Journal 《中国翻译》	CSSCI	1980	Translators Association of China (中国翻译工作者协会)
Chinese Language Learning 《汉语学习》	CSSCI	1980	Yanbian University (延边大学)
Linguistic Research 《语文研究》	CSSCI	1980	Shanxi Academy of Social Sciences (山西省社会科学院)
Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice 《外语教学理论与实践》	Both	1981	East China Normal University (华东师范大学)
Contemporary Rhetoric 《当代修辞学》	CSSCI	1982	Fudan University (复旦大学)

Table 7 continued

Foreign Languages Research 《外语研究》	Core Journal	1984	Chinese PLA University of International Relations (中国人民解放军国际关系学院)
Foreign Languages and Their Teaching 《外语与外语教学》	Both	1985	Dalian University of Foreign Languages (大连外国语学院)
Shanghai Journal of Translators 《上海翻译》	CSSCI	1986	Shanghai Science and Technology Translation Society (上海市科技翻译学会)
Chinese Teaching in the World 《世界汉语教学》	CSSCI	1987	Beijing Language and Culture University (北京语言大学)
Research in Ancient Chinese Language 《古汉语研究》	CSSCI	1988	Hunan Normal University (湖南师范大学)
Applied Linguistics 《语言文字应用》	CSSCI	1992	Institute of Applied Linguistics Ministry of Education (教育部语言文字应用研究所)
Linguistic Sciences 《语言科学》	CSSCI	2002	Jiangsu Normal University, School of Linguistic Sciences and Arts (江苏师范大学语言研究所)
Foreign Languages in China 《中国外语》	Both	2004	Higher Education Press (高等教育出版社)
Chinese Linguistics 《汉语学报》	CSSCI	2004	Central China Normal University (华中师范大学)

Among the 28 journals, 24 have published articles on L2W. As Figure Five shows, *Foreign Language World* (外语界) is the most prolific journal in publishing articles on L2W topics, with a total of 172 articles since its first issue in 1980. Four journals (*Research in Ancient Chinese Language*, *Linguistic Research*, *Minority Languages of China*, and *Fangyan*) had zero articles on L2W, partially due to the nature of these journals focusing exclusively on Chinese linguistics or Chinese dialect studies.

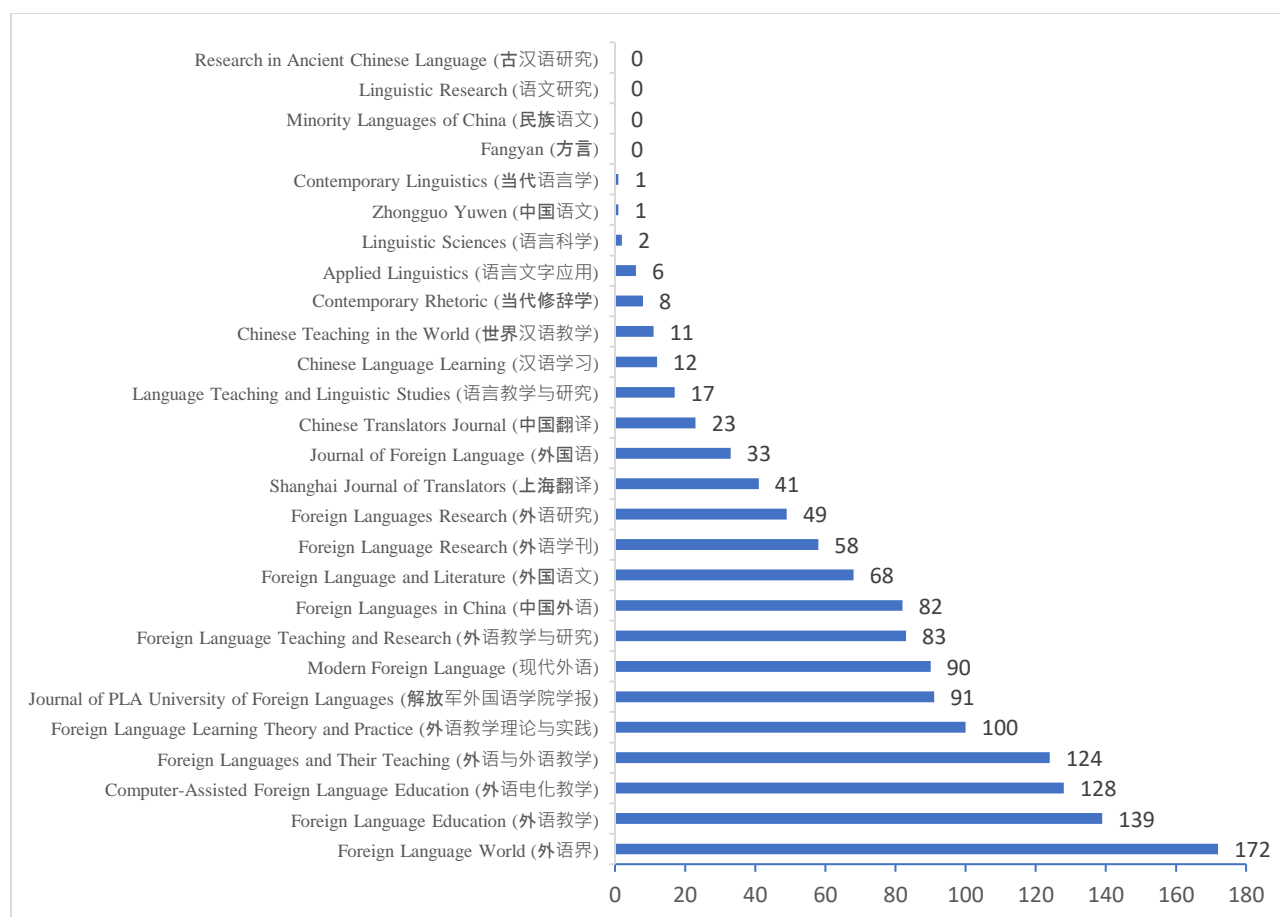


Figure 5 The Number of L2W Articles Published in Each Major Journal

Major Authors

In my study, major authors are identified as authors who have published more than five articles on L2W in the journals I surveyed. These five articles can be single-authored or co-authored with other scholars. A total of 1,392 authors have contributed to the 1,340 articles I collected, and I identified 35 of them as major authors. A list of names of major authors and the numbers of articles they contributed to can be found in Appendix B. Among these 35 authors, six of them are identified as prolific because they have contributed to more than ten L2W articles in the journals I surveyed. These six prolific authors are Lifei Wang (19 articles), Fang Xu (18 articles), Yonglin Yang (18 articles), Xiaoqing Qin (11 articles), Qiufang Wen (11 articles), and Chuming Wang (10 articles).

Lifei Wang has been actively publishing on L2W since 2002, and his works appear in ten of the core journals. Three of his 19 articles are single-authored. In his single-authored articles, L.

Wang (2005) reviews the empirical studies on English writing in China and provides a general picture of the field of study along with his own thoughts, and L. Wang (2002a; 2002b) analyze the effects of writing metaknowledge and after-class writing on Chinese students' writing ability in English. L. Wang also collaborated with nine other authors in publishing on L2W topics. These articles cover a large variety of topics, including developing computer-assisted writing systems, corpus-based analysis on linguistic features in Chinese students' writing in English, influences of L1 literacy on L2 writing, and genre analysis of business discourse.

Fang Xu is the second most productive author in my study. Since 2010, Xu has published 18 articles on L2W topics in nine core journals. Among these 18 articles, 14 are single-authored. Her single-authored articles touched many different aspects of L2W, such as academic writing in L2 (e.g., F. Xu, 2016), international publishing for L2 writers (e.g., Fang. Xu, 2017), and theoretical and pedagogical reviews (e.g., Xu, 2015).

Yonglin Yang has also published 18 articles on L2W in these major journals. Similar to Lifei Wang, most of Y. Yang's publications are collaborations with other scholars. Y. Yang has been actively publishing on L2W since 2004, and his articles have been relatively consistent in terms of major topics. Two major topics can be seen in Y. Yang's works: the development of L2W research methods and writing instruction. For example, Y. Yang and Li (2004, 2005) introduced the development of a digital English writing database, and Y. Yang (2005) reviews the changes in L2W research practice and theory. Y. Yang's other 15 articles are all about L2W instruction, including the development of computer-assisted learning and teaching tools and the application of the experiential teaching approach to L2W classrooms.

Xiaoqing Qin and Qiufang Wen each published 11 L2W articles in the journals I surveyed. All of Qin's 11 articles are co-authored with other scholars. Qin's articles address topics such as teacher-written feedback, L2 students' writing anxiety, L2W fluency measures, and application of topic knowledge in L2 students' writing, and Qin's recent publications focus on citation practice in L2 academic writing. Qiufang Wen started to publish on L2W topics much earlier than the previously mentioned scholars; Wen's first L2W article in the core journals was published in 1998, a collaboration with Chunjie Guo (Wen & Guo, 1998), on the relationship between senior middle school students' thinking in L1 and their L2W ability. Wen's later L2W articles also focus on the relationship between L2 writers' L1 and L2 competence. For example, Wang and Wen (2002) investigated the use of L1 in the L2W processes of Chinese learners of English in college. Some

of Wen's recent works look at a wider range of topics, such as the development of computer software to measure construct validity in L2W (Wen, 2007), the changes of register features in English language learners' texts (Wen, 2009), and the effects of critical thinking skills via linguistic factors on L2W performance (Gao & Wen, 2017).

Chuming Wang is the author of 10 L2W articles in my data, and his articles are mostly on pedagogical topics. His early works are on the development and application of the length approach to teaching L2W (e.g., C. Wang, 2005, 2006), and his recent works are on the topic of continuation tasks in L2W instruction and how such writing tasks facilitate L2 learning (e.g., C. Wang, 2018).

Major Topics

The 1,340 articles I collected have examined L2W from various perspectives, focusing on numerous topics. Nine major topics are identified in the articles I surveyed: 1) writing instruction, 2) features in written products, 3) writing assessment, 4) writer development, 5) analysis of different genres, 6) writing processes, 7) disciplinary studies of L2W as a research field, 8) cross-area studies, and 9) interactions between L1 and L2 (See Figure Six). In this section, the number of articles identified under each topic and the major issues discussed under each topic will be presented. A detailed synthesis of four topics will be presented in the following chapters. The findings in this section will be arranged according to frequency, from the most studied to the least-studied topic.

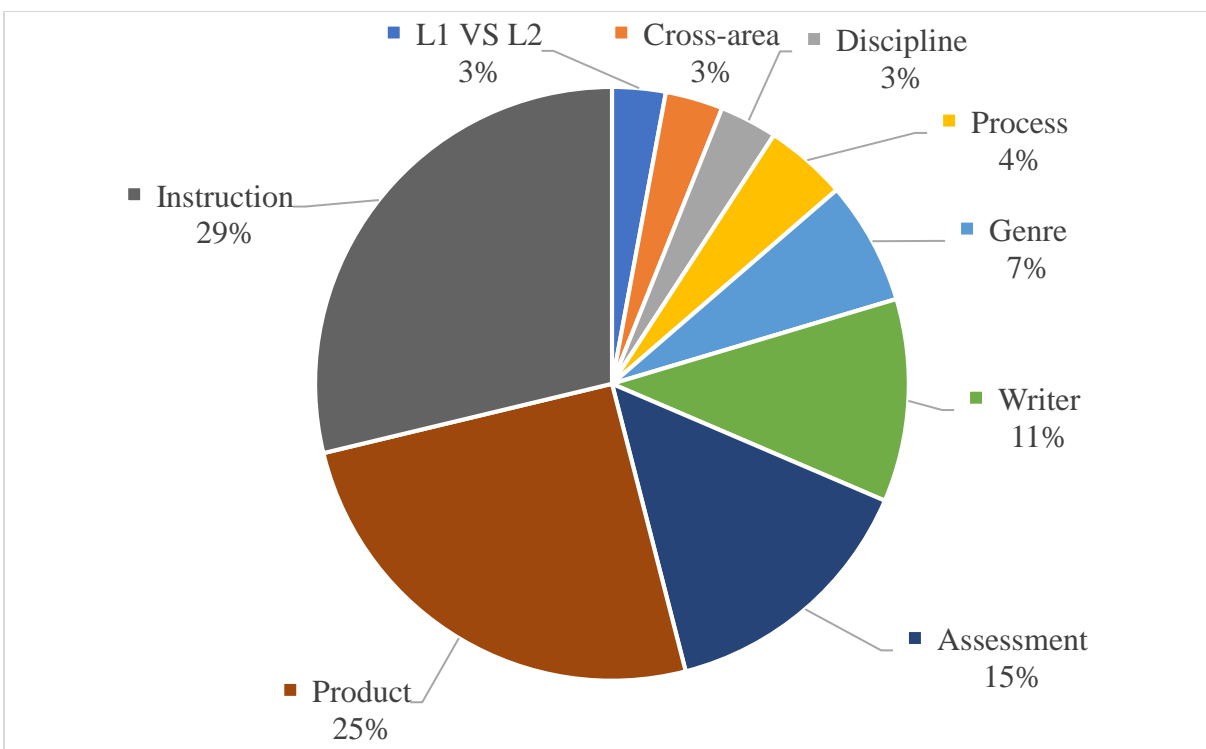


Figure 6 Major Topics of L2W Articles in Major Journals in China

Writing Instruction

Writing instruction is the most frequently investigated area, with 385 of the articles on the teaching of L2W, making up 29% of all L2W articles in my data. The number of articles on L2 writing instruction increased gradually from 1959 to 2018 (See Figure Seven). In the Slow Start Period (1959-1997), an average of 2.08 articles on L2W instruction were published in each year, and in the Prosperous Period (2016-2018), the number increased to 18.67 articles on L2W instruction per year. Although the absolute number of articles on writing instruction has increased over the years, the percentage of articles on this topic with regard to the total number of L2W articles has decreased. In the early years, most of the L2W articles in Chinese major linguistic/foreign language journals were on writing instruction. For example, in the Slow Start Period (1959-1997), 52% of the L2W articles (75 out of 144) were on writing instruction. In recent years, the percentage of articles on writing instruction has declined. In the Prosperous Period (2016-2018), only 17% of the L2W articles (56 out of 326) were on writing instruction.

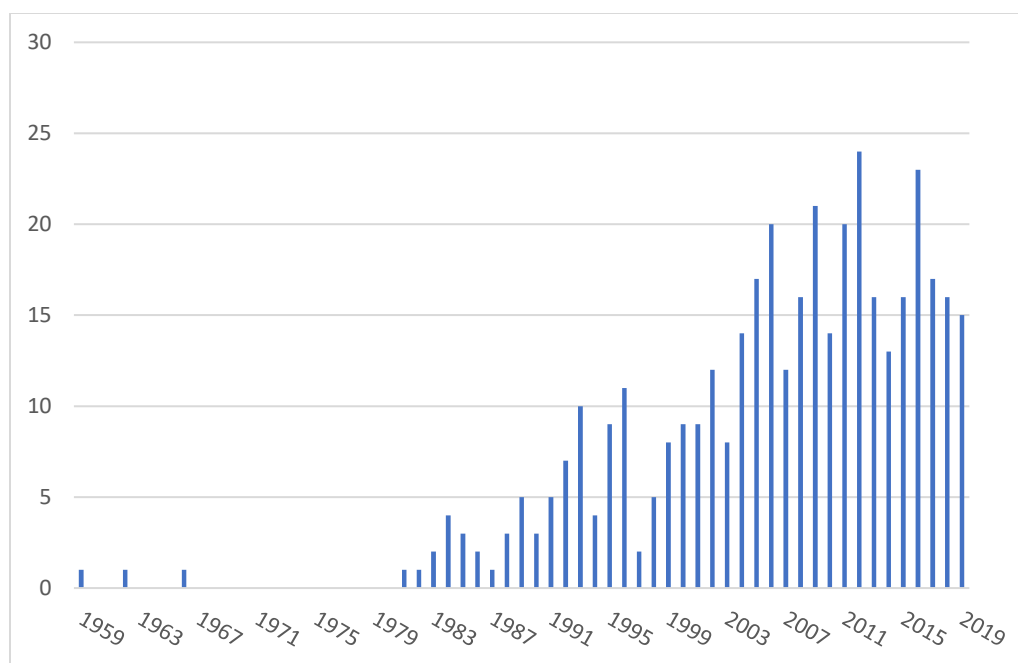


Figure 7 The Number of Articles on Writing Instruction in Each Year (1959-2018)

In these articles on L2 writing instruction, various specific issues are explored. These issues include general suggestions on L2 writing instruction (e.g., Dai, 1962; Zhang, 1992; Xuemei. Zhang, 2006), introduction/comparison of different pedagogical approaches (e.g., Luo et al., 2011; C. Wang, 2005; Yu & Zhang, 1996), curriculum design (e.g., Sun & Chen, 2009), instruction on specific linguistic aspects (e.g., Xu, 1990a; Xu, 1990b; Yin, 2008; Zhou, 1990), computer-assisted learning and teaching (e.g., Tian, 2001), instruction of professional and technical writing (e.g., Luo, 2002), teaching materials and textbooks (e.g., Si, 2005; Yang, 2007), teacher training and development (e.g., Yang, 2010), instruction theories (e.g., Wang, 1986), and problems and suggested solutions (e.g., Yang et al., 2009).

Another feature of articles on L2 writing instruction is the publication of translated articles in the journal of *Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice*¹¹ (外语教学理论与实践) in the 1990s. These translated articles were originally published in venues such as *English in English Teaching Forum*, *Modern English Teacher*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *The Modern Language Journal*, *ELT Journal*, etc, and were translated into Chinese to be published in the Chinese journal. These

¹¹ The journal's original name was *Foreign Language Teaching Abroad* (国外外语教学) between 1981 and 2007.

translated articles introduced the western-developed writing theories and practices to Chinese scholars and promoted cross-region academic communication in the early days.

Features in L2 Writers' Written Products

A total of 338 articles in my data are on the topic of features in L2 written products, representing 25% of the total L2W articles I analyzed. Articles on this topic emerged in the 1980s, and the average number of articles per year has increased from 0.58 in the Slow Start Period (1959-1997) to 33.67 in the Prosperous Period (2016-2018), making it the most investigated topic in the Prosperous Period. This indicates an increased interest of Chinese scholars in exploring the specific features in L2 writers' products. Figure Eight shows the number of articles on written products published in each year.

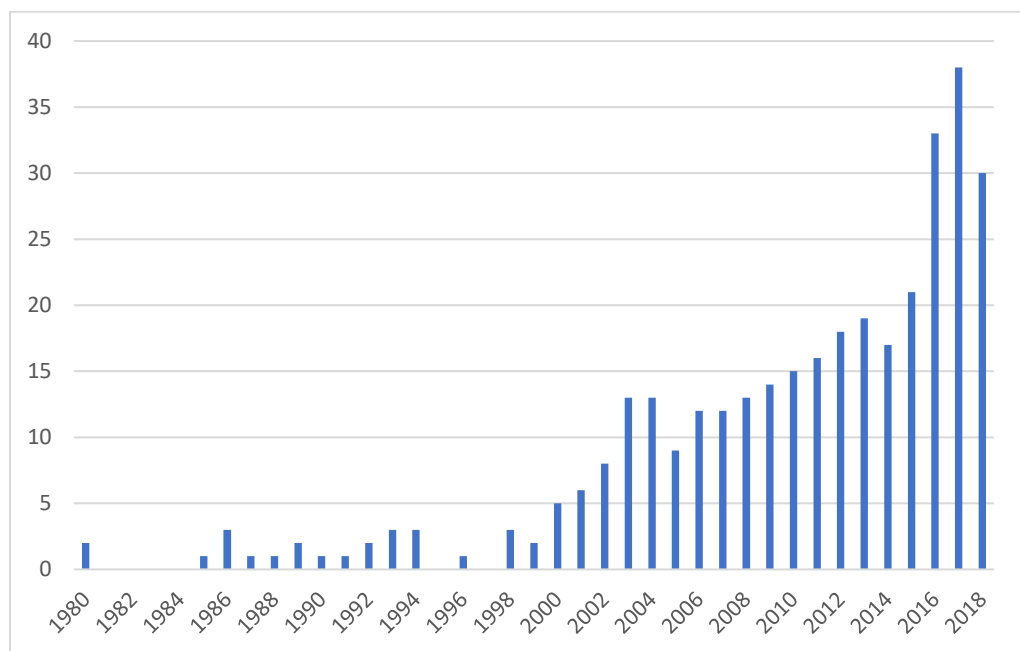


Figure 8 Number of Articles on Written Products in Each Year (1980-2018)

The specific features investigated in these articles can be divided into three categories: lexicon, sentence structure, and discourse. Articles on lexical features investigate the use of specific words (such as “this,” “we,” and “and”) (e.g., Duanmu, 1986), verb tenses (e.g., Cai, 2003), lexical bundles (e.g., Xu, 2012a), lexical complexity (e.g., Bao, 2010), reporting verbs (e.g., Jianlin. Chen, 2011), transition markers (e.g., Y. Zhao, 2012), pronouns (e.g., Tang, 2014),

nominalizations (e.g., Xiao & Wang, 2001), shell nouns (e.g., H. Sun, 2017), modal verbs (Ma & Lv, 2007), etc. Articles on sentence structure explore textual sentence stems (e.g., Zhang & Wei, 2013), run-on sentences (e.g., Wang & Zhao, 2017), syntactic complexity (e.g., Lei, 2017), yes-no questions (e.g., Ding, 2006), conditional clauses (e.g., Li, 2008), word order (e.g., Zheng, 2014), etc. Articles on discourse structure look at adversative relations in texts (e.g., Zheng, 2017), patterns of thematic progression (e.g., Lv, 2009), oral features in written composition (e.g., Wen et al., 2003), correspondence effects between introduction and conclusion in empirical articles (e.g., Zheng & Jing, 2017), cultural features in texts (e.g., Guo & Liu, 2005), citation practice in academic writing (e.g., Xu, 2012b), code-switching (e.g., Chen et al., 2016), form-meaning tangling in L2 writing (e.g., Zheng & Chang, 2014), register patterns (e.g., Wen, 2009), application of topic knowledge in writing (e.g., Qin & Bi, 2012b), etc..

Another important feature in these articles is the reference to L1 writers when they analyze the features in L2 writers' works. For example, Li & Liu (2016) conducted a comparative corpus-based study to investigate the features of lexical bundles used in Chinese experts' academic writing in English by comparing the use of lexical bundles by Chinese and English-speaking experts' written pieces. Such reference to/comparison between two languages is not necessarily meant to suggest that one language is superior to another, but rather to provide a reference for comparison and a guideline for instruction. For example, Chen (2017) develops a corpus to compare the commenting act in Chinese and in German academic articles, and the corpus provides insights for both Chinese learners of German and German learners of Chinese.

Writing Assessment

Writing assessment is the third most studied topic in the articles I collected. A total of 195 articles addresses this topic, making up 15% of the articles I examined. Figure Nine shows the number of articles on writing assessment published in each year. The topic of writing assessment first appeared in L2W journal articles in 1982 (Gao, 1982), but it did not become a well-studied topic by Chinese scholars until the 2000s. Only 15 articles were published before 2000, and 92.3% of the articles on writing assessment were published in the 21st century. Especially during the last ten years, the number of articles on writing assessment increased dramatically, from an average of 2.08 articles per year between 1982 and 2007 to an average of 12.82 articles per year between 2008 and 2018.

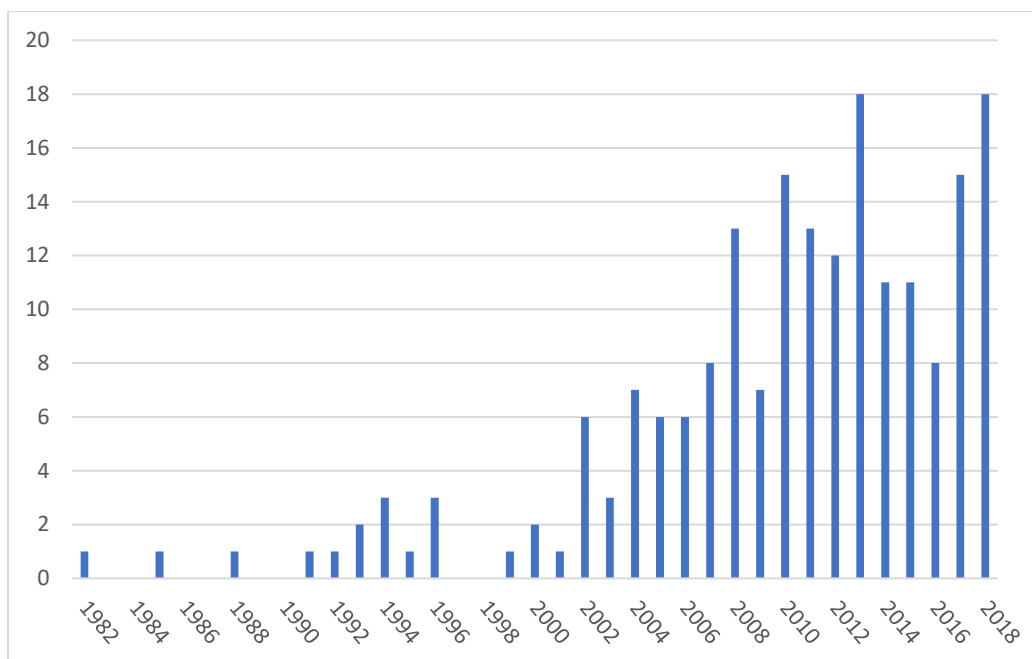


Figure 9 Number of Articles on Writing Assessment in Each Year (1982-2018)

Articles on the topic of writing assessment in my data are mainly about three specific issues: feedback, testing in general, and standardized tests. Feedback is the most discussed topic in this category, with 89 articles representing different aspects of feedback. These aspects include peer feedback versus teacher feedback (e.g., M. Yang, 2006), written corrective feedback (e.g., Chen & Li, 2009), oral feedback (e.g., Zhang & Wang, 2014), grammar correction (e.g., Su, 2014), and integrated human and automated writing evaluation (AWE) feedback (e.g., Huang & He, 2018). Another significant number of articles are on testing in general, including topics such as rater behavior (e.g., Lin & Xiao, 2018), different evaluation tools (portfolio, dynamic evaluation, teacher-student collaborative assessment, automated writing evaluation, self-assessment, formative evaluation, etc.) (e.g., Chen & Ge, 2008; X. Wang, 2016; Zhang & Wang, 2004), rating scale development (e.g., Wu et al., 2018), testing tasks (e.g., Xue, 2013), how testing facilitates learning (e.g., Wang et al., 2018), validity and reliability of certain tests (e.g., Qin & Bi, 2012a), and cultural aspects in testing (e.g., D. Liu, 2016). The third most studied topic in this category is the writing elements in high stakes standardized tests, such as the Test for English Majors (TEM) (e.g., Zou & Chen, 2010), the College English Test (CET) (e.g., Gu & Yang, 2009), and the College Entrance Exam (e.g., X. Zhang et al., 2010).

Writer Development

Writer development is the next most investigated topic, with 148 articles in my data set exploring various issues related to the development and improvement of L2 writers themselves. Writer development did not draw the attention of L2 scholars in China until the 1990s, with the first articles on writer development appearing in 1993. Teng (1993) examines the grammar and writing ability of Chinese international students at Kansas University in the United States, and Wang and Li (1993) studies the thinking patterns of L2 writers by examining the texts they produced. There is an obvious increase in the number of articles on this topic over the past 30 years, as can be seen in Figure Ten. The average number of articles on writer development was 0.86 articles per year in the 1990s and increased to 4.1 articles per year in the 2000s and 11.22 articles per year in the 2010s.

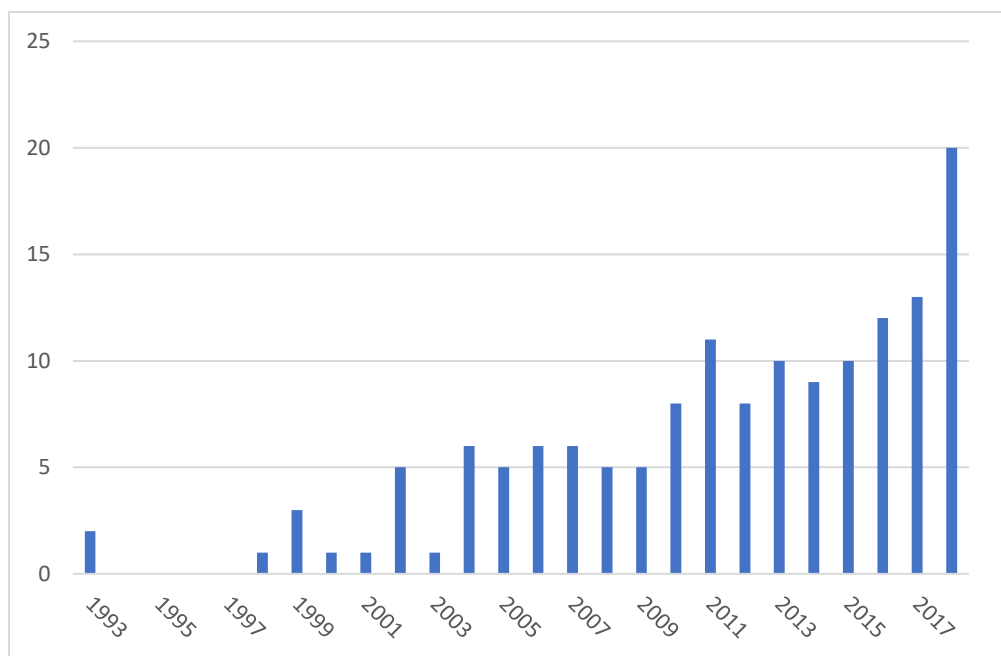


Figure 10 Number of Articles on Writer Development in Each Year (1993-2018)

Various specific issues related to L2 writers regarding their mental and intellectual development are addressed by articles in this category. Such issues are writer's anxiety (e.g., Ma & Dong, 2018), identity (e.g., Ouyang & Tang, 2006), voice (e.g., Li & Li, 2013), motivation (e.g., Wang & Zhang, 2012), creative thinking (e.g., Shang, 2013), working memory (e.g., Yi & Luo, 2012), thinking patterns (e.g., Wen & Liu, 2006), emotional effects (e.g., Liang & Chu, 2013),

noticing and awareness (e.g., Zhao & Sun, 2009), self-efficacy (e.g., H. Li, 2017), individual differences (e.g., S. Li, 2015), metacognition (e.g., Lu & Shi, 2007), etc. These articles each provide a glimpse of the holistic development of L2 writers as human learners.

Analysis of Different Genres

The next most studied topic is the analysis of different written genres, with 90 articles, making up 7% of all the L2W articles in my data. With the first article on genre analysis appearing in the late 1970s, the number of articles on genre analysis did not increase much until the Prosperous Period (2016-2018). Figure 11 shows the number of articles published in each year on this topic. The average number of articles on genre analysis is 1.68 per year prior to 2016, and during the Prosperous Period, the number dramatically increased to 9.33 articles per year.

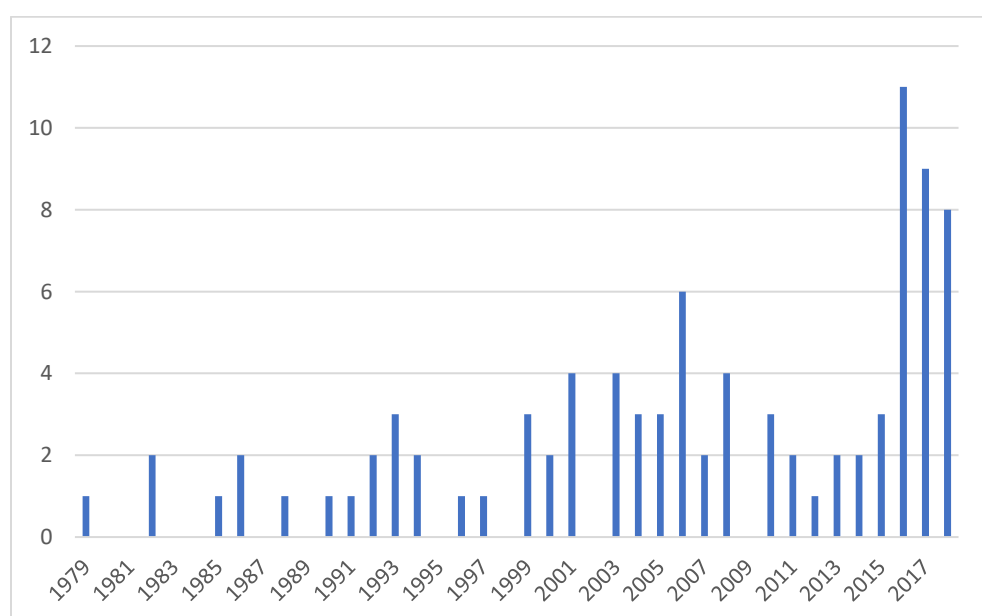


Figure 11 Number of Articles on Analysis of Different Genres in Each Year (1979-2018)

Articles in this category investigate the rhetoric and language features of various genres produced by native speakers of a target language. The genres represented in my data set include academic theses (e.g., Wang, 2014), scientific papers (e.g., Qian, 1986), tourist texts (e.g., Xiao, 1986), book reviews (e.g., Hei, 2010), public notice signs (e.g., M. Zhang, 2006), business discourse (e.g., L. Wang & S. Li, 2018), news discourse (e.g., Yang & Ran, 2017), advertisement (e.g., Gao & Li, 2017), legal documentary (e.g., Lin, 2005), speech scripts (e.g., Hu & Zeng, 2007),

email messages (e.g., Zeng, 2003), popular science articles (e.g., Z. Wang, 2006), Internet passages (e.g., Yuan, 2017), etc. Among all these genres, the academic thesis is the most studied one. Various aspects of the academic thesis are studied, such as abstracts, acknowledgement, literature review, conclusion, move analysis, and stylistic study of academic essays.

Writing Process

Writing processes are one of the four least studied topics in the L2W articles I surveyed, with only 60 articles, making up 4% of the total data set. Articles on this topic first appeared in the 1990s. The numerical trend of articles on writing processes is very similar to that of articles on genre analysis, with a few articles per year prior to the Prosperous Period (2016-2018) and a sudden increase in the number of articles published per year during the Prosperous Period (Figure 12). The average yearly number of articles on writing processes is 1.65 between 1993 and 2015, and the number increased to 7.33 between 2016 and 2018.

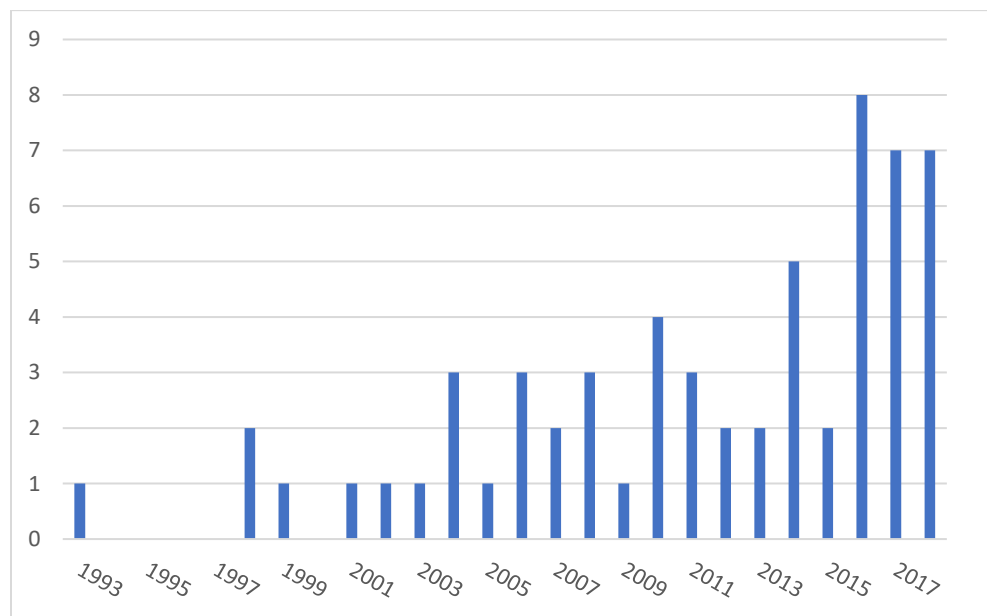


Figure 12 Number of Articles on Writing Process in Each Year (1993-2018)

The topic of writing processes covers issues related to the brainstorming, drafting, composing, and revising processes of writing. It also presents articles on various writing tasks and how different writing tasks are processed differently by L2 writers. Newly developed technology has made studies on writing processes more precise. For example, L. Wang (2016) uses keyboard

recording and eye tracker to develop a program to analyze writing process in both alphabetical (e.g., English) and non-alphabetical (e.g., Chinese) languages.

Disciplinary Studies on L2W

Disciplinary study is one of the three least represented areas, with 42 articles, making up 3% of the total number of L2W articles I collected. The topic became an area of interest in the early 2000s, with the first article appearing in 2003. Z. Li and S. Li (2003) analyzed articles on EFL writing published between 1993 and 2002 in eight major linguistic/foreign language journals in China to showcase the developmental situation of English writing research in China by that time. Since then, the number of articles looking at L2W as a field of study has fluctuated, with an average of 2.63 articles per year (See Figure 13).

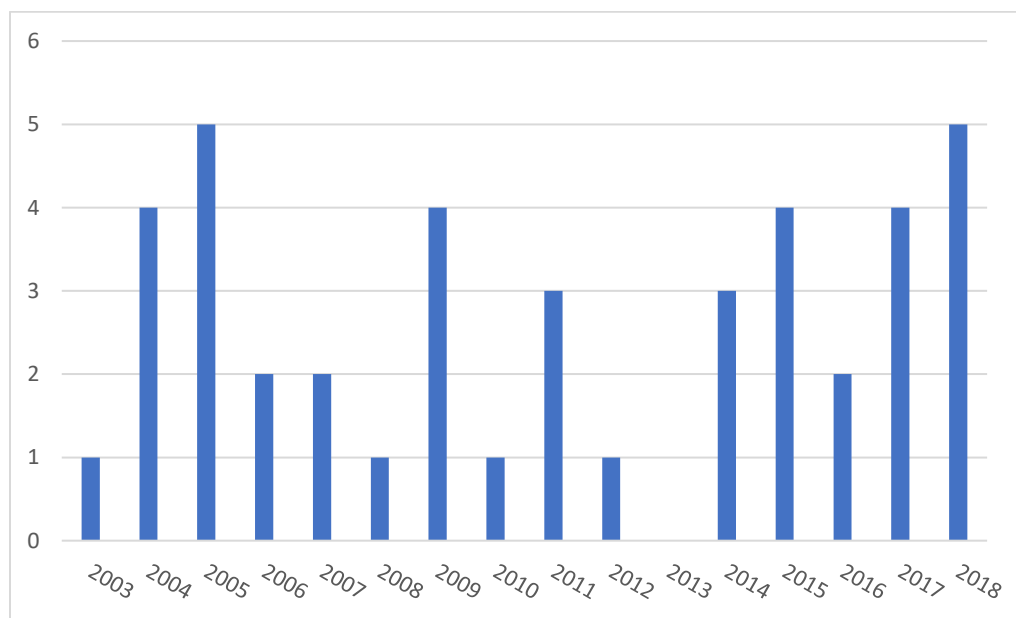


Figure 13 Number of Articles on Disciplinary Studies in Each Year (2003-2018)

These articles on disciplinary studies cover three general areas, which are conference reports (e.g., Ai, 2006), review studies (e.g., Huang & Yu, 2009), and studies on L2W research methodology (e.g., Gui, 2005). Review studies are the most common in this category. Twenty-one review studies were found in the articles I surveyed. Some of these review studies examine one area of L2W, for example, Li & Cui (2018) surveys articles on technical writing in China and draws implications for MTI (Master of Translation and Interpreting) education; some explore L2W

as an independent field of study, for example, Zhu (2011) reviews articles on English writing published in major foreign language journals between 1980 and 2010 and pictures the developmental path of English writing research during that period in China; and some report on the development of L2W in non-Chinese contexts, for example, Qin (2017) provides a review and outlook of trends in writing studies in the United States.

Cross-Area Studies

Cross-area study is the topic of 42 articles, representing 3% of the total articles I surveyed. The first articles on this topic appeared in the late 1980s, but the 1990s witnessed zero articles in this area. It was not until the early 2000s that scholars resumed publishing on L2W-related cross-area studies in these major linguistic/foreign language journals (Figure 14). The number of articles in this category fluctuated during the 2000s and early 2010s and started to increase in the Prosperous Period (2016-2018).

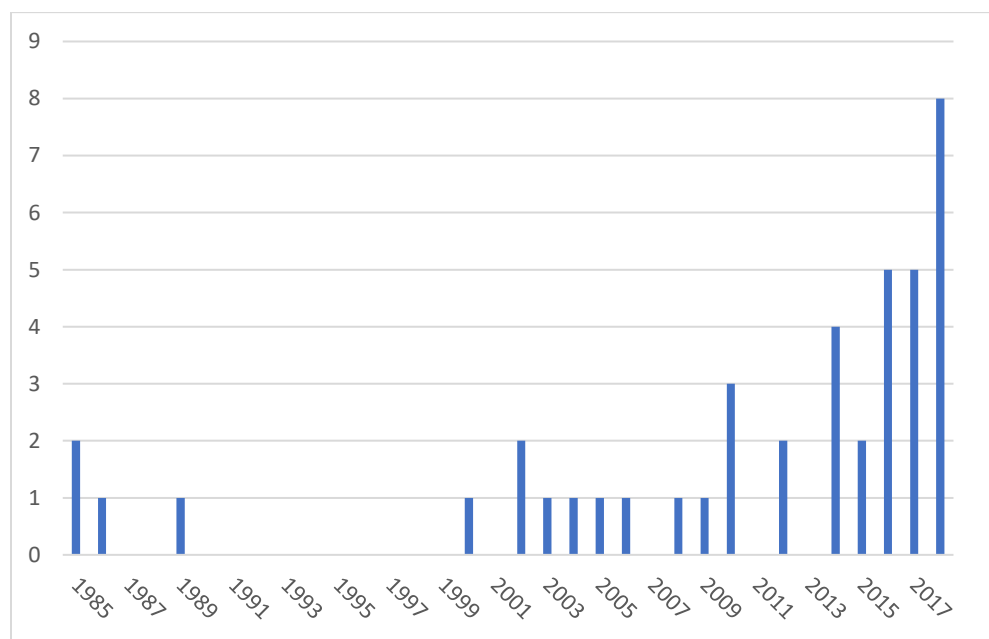


Figure 14 Number of Articles on Cross-Area Studies in Each Year (1985-2018)

Articles in this category investigate the relationship between writing and other areas of study, such as reading, speaking, listening, translating, etc. In the articles I collected, the majority is on translation studies (34 articles), making up 81% of the total number of articles in this category.

These translation studies cover various contexts, ranging from literature (e.g., Cai & Yu, 2018), academic works (e.g., Ye, 2016), and newspaper articles (e.g., Zhao, 2018) to medical theses (e.g., Duan & Gu, 2002), political texts (e.g., Guo, 2015), and public notice signs (e.g., K. Li, 2000).

Interactions Between L1 and L2 Writing

The last topic I identified is the interaction between L1 and L2, with 39 articles, making up 3% of the total number of articles I collected. Numerically, this topic is the among the only two that have not seen an obvious increase in number of publications over the years, with the other one being disciplinary studies. The average number of articles on L1 vs. L2 interaction published per year actually dropped in the 2010s, compared with that of the 1990s and the 2000s. As is shown in Figure 15, the decade between 1995 and 2005 witnessed the most articles on this topic, with 2.27 articles published on this topic per year.

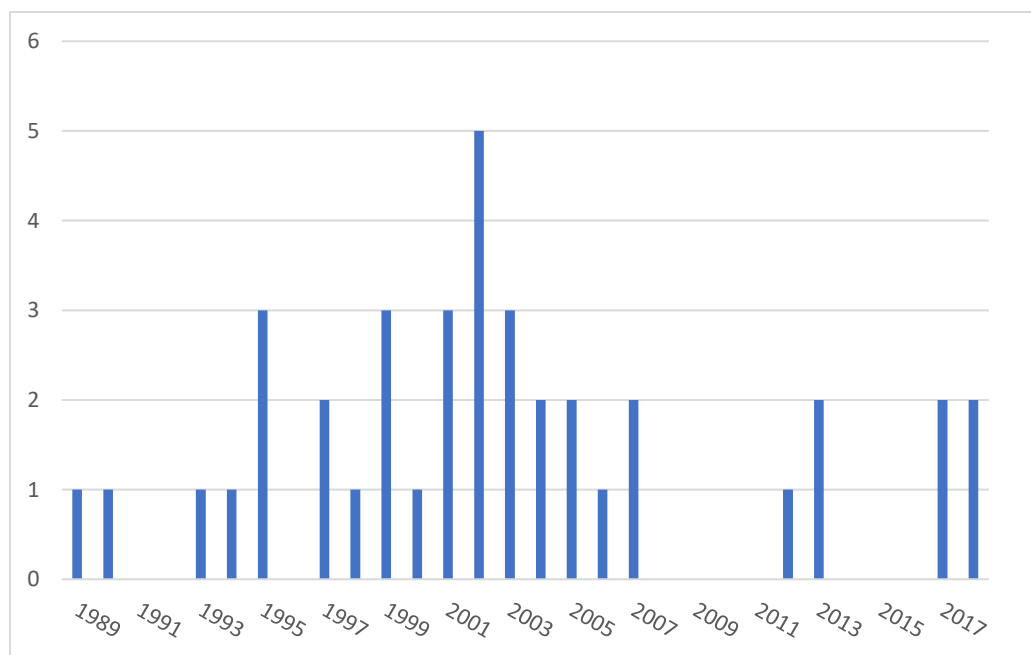


Figure 15 Number of Articles on L1 vs. L2 Interactions in Each Year (1989-2018)

Three major issues are discussed in articles in this category: the influence of L1 on L2 writing, the influence of L2 on L1 writing, and contrastive rhetoric. In the articles on L1 influencing L2, L1 literacy and L1 thinking patterns are the most studied influential factors, and in the articles on L2 affecting L1, cultural aspects and vocabulary are the most studied influential

factors. In the articles on contrastive rhetoric, various features of L1 and L2 are compared, such as register variations (e.g., Zhao & Wang, 2017), coreferential devices (e.g., Lu, 2002), cultural aspects (e.g., Zhang & Zhao, 1993), collocational frameworks (e.g., Xiang. Li, 2017), stylistic differences (e.g., J. Wang, 2001), and discourse interactions (e.g., Gao, 2018).

Research Methods

The majority of articles I collected involve some empirical research. Based on the authors' description of research design, I identified 817 articles (61.02% of the total number) as empirical, as they present explicit data collection and analysis. The empirical articles in my data include mixed method studies, qualitative studies, and quantitative studies. Regarding specific research designs, these empirical studies involve case studies, interviews, think-aloud methods, comparative experiments, surveys, text analyses, observations, meta-analysis, corpus-based/driven studies, etc.

The other 522 articles (38.98% of the total number) are non-empirical, lacking explicit description of data analysis. Some of the non-empirical studies involve examples from the authors' own experiences or observations, but none of them explicitly report how they collected and analyzed the data to draw the conclusion. Non-empirical studies in my data include a summary of authors' personal experiences, personal thoughts/suggestions, theoretical analysis, conference reports, book reviews, elaboration with examples, introduction to new methods/approaches, etc.

Numerically, empirical and non-empirical studies both increased since 1959, when the first L2W article appeared in major linguistic/foreign language journals in China. In the early years, most of the articles were non-empirical, and it was not until the mid 2000s that the yearly number of empirical studies surpassed that of non-empirical studies (Figure 16). Since then, the number of empirical studies published per year increased quickly, while the number of non-empirical studies published per year fluctuated and stayed small. During the Prosperous Period (2016-2018), the number of empirical studies has made up 77.91% of the total number of L2W articles published during that time, while the other 22.09% are non-empirical articles.

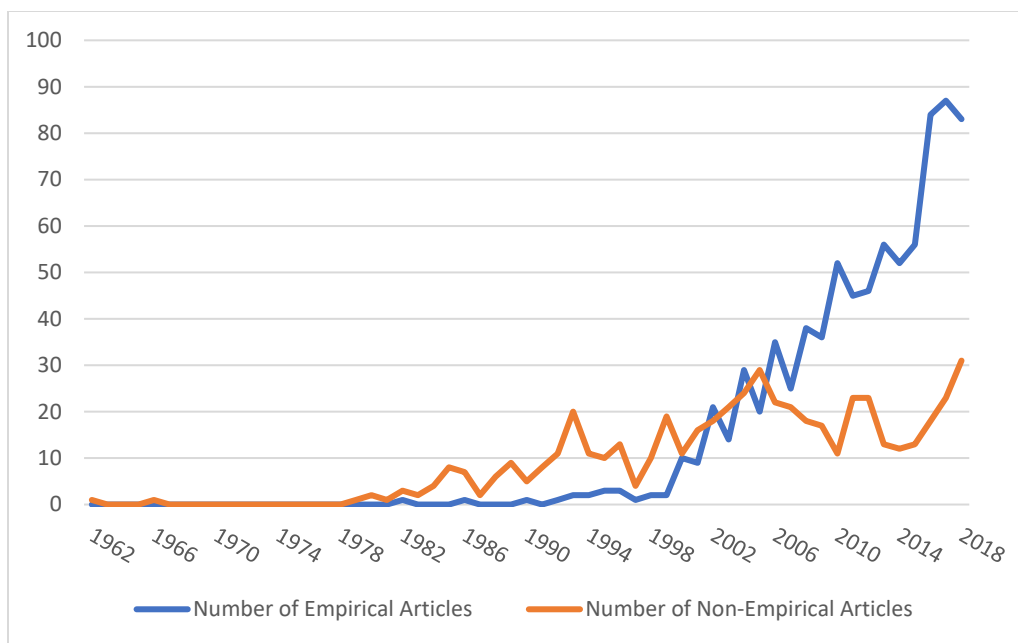


Figure 16. Numerical Trend of Empirical and Non-Empirical Articles

Article Contexts

A variety of contexts are represented in the articles I surveyed. In the 1,340 articles I collected, 1,066 of them clearly identify one or multiple contexts that the articles address. The majority of the 274 articles with unidentified contexts are non-empirical articles (246 out of 274). These non-empirical articles with unidentified contexts are mainly theoretical accounts or personal elaboration with examples.

Among the contexts that are clearly identified in the articles, school context is the most studied. A total of 844 articles looked at contexts related to school settings, ranging from K-12 to college and post-graduate. Table Eight shows the number of articles in each school context. Compared with K-12 settings, the college context is much more frequently investigated, and the college undergraduate context is the most commonly studied setting with 691 articles. In the articles on college settings, college English majors (both undergraduate and graduate) are the most studied population, with 372 articles addressing this specific population.

Table 8 *School Contexts Identified in L2W Articles I Collected*

Contexts		Number of Articles
K-12	Elementary	5
	Middle School	6
	High School	23
College	Higher Vocational	10
	Undergraduate	691
	Master's	76
	PhD	24
	College Teachers	9

Other contexts that are addressed in the articles I collected include academic manuscripts (115 articles), newspapers (31 articles), business discourse (27 articles), technical writing (25 articles), literary works (11 articles), law discourse (11 articles), tourist materials (eight articles), political discourse (eight articles), medical discourse (seven articles), speech scripts (two articles), hiring advertisements (two articles), etc. A total of 21 different contexts are analyzed in the 1,066 articles with clearly identified contexts.

Another feature in terms of article contexts is the number of languages represented in these articles. Although the majority of articles analyze Chinese L1 writers' L2 writing in English, a total of 49 articles investigates other L1s. Among these 49 articles, 33 of them examine international students' writing in Chinese as L2. These international students come from various linguistic backgrounds, including English (e.g., J. Wu, 2017), Thai (e.g., Liu, 2018), Korean (e.g., Ji, 2016), Japanese (e.g., Ma & Shi, 2016), German (e.g., Y. Chen, 2016), and Uyghur (e.g., Q. Xu, 2016). There are also articles on Chinese L1 writers writing in non-English languages, such as Russian (e.g., Huang, 1989), French (e.g., Zhang, 1983), Japanese (e.g., Xiao, 2017), and German (e.g., Chen, 2017).

CHAPTER FIVE: ARTICLES ON WRITING INSTRUCTION

The following four chapters aim at providing a thematic synthesis of four major topics in the 70 years of published L2W articles in major linguistic/foreign language journals in China. These chapters are not annotated bibliographies, but rather offering an analytical presentation covering one major topic in each chapter: 1) writing instruction in Chapter Five, 2) features in written products in Chapter Six, 3) writing assessment in Chapter Seven, 4) writer development and writing process in Chapter Eight.

Instructional activities have shaped the origin of L2W as a field of study in China since the early days. In the early 1960s, it was educational practice that prompted Chinese scholars to investigate L2W issues, and, since then, much research has been done to facilitate effective teaching of L2W in China (Dai, 1962). This interaction between research and instructional practice is reflected in many journal articles on L2W in the major linguistic/foreign language journals in China. The synthesis of these articles is divided into two major sections: curriculum and pedagogy. The section on curriculum focuses on articles addressing what is taught in L2W classrooms, and the section of pedagogy analyzes articles on how the content is taught.

Curriculum

The organization of L2W curricula has been studied by Chinese scholars since the early 1980s, when multiple Chinese universities re-opened their foreign language courses. For example, Beijing Foreign Studies University set up a specific course for English writing, introducing different genres to students in each unit and following a procedure of lecturing, providing sample essays, having students write on their own, discussing and giving feedback on drafts, revising, and evaluating in the course (Zhang, 1981). The main target languages involved in early L2W articles on curriculum design are English, Russian, and French, and the target group for these early endeavors was college undergraduate foreign language majors. Only a couple of early articles addresses the teaching and learning of L2W beyond this context. One such example is Zhao (1989) who provides suggestions for middle school teachers and language learners outside school settings. According to Zhao (1989), learning to write in L2 takes time and usually follows a four-step procedure (word spelling, grammar and sentence structure, paragraph writing following sample

essays, and free writing to express the writer's own thoughts), and learners are encouraged to think in the target language in order to produce native-like writing.

Language Features to Be Taught

In addition to these general suggestions regarding what to teach, a large amount of Chinese L2W scholarship addresses multiple language aspects to be taught in L2W classrooms. At the vocabulary level, preciseness is the focus of teaching. Zhuang (1989b) suggests the choice of precise and accurate words and the avoidance of clichés and sophisticated vocabulary in L2 writing. H. Huang (1998) focuses on scientific writing and gives similar suggestions on choosing accurate and concise words according to specific contexts. Zhang & Hua (1987) writes on choosing words economically and avoiding irrelevancies by getting rid of needless and repetitious adverbs, adjectives, and prepositional structures.

At the sentence level, diversity and conciseness are the most emphasized. Zhuang (1989a) suggests that sentences should be to the point and organized in a concrete and clear way. M. Xu (1985) argues against the assumption that longer sentences are better and points out that unnecessarily lengthy sentences may result from circumlocutions, redundancies, deadwood, and pretentiousness. A similar warning against lengthy sentences is given by Hua (1984), who introduces ways to increase the diversity of sentences by mixing up long and short sentences, using different structures to begin a sentence, and avoiding loose and lengthy coordinating clauses.

At the paragraph level, coherence and thematic connection are at the center of discussion. G. Chen & T. Li (1989) provides several suggestions on paragraph organization, including writing on only one key point in each paragraph, following a specific order to support the key point, using correct transitions, and involving a variety of sentence structures. P. Zhao (1998) suggests that in order to convey meaning in a natural and smooth way, writers should follow the patterns of thematic connection and information structure to arrange semantic components. From a functional sentence perspective, Yin (2008) points out that the organization of paragraphs should start from known information to the unknown and from general information to the specifics.

Curriculum Design

To effectively organize an L2W curriculum with all the language aspects to be taught, a group of scholars has examined the design of specific curricula. Suggestions on how to design L2 writing curricula to satisfy the needs of specific student populations are addressed. Yang (1982) discusses the Chinese writing curriculum for international students in China and suggests a two-level system, where, at the basic level, students are taught to write practical essays and narratives, and at the advanced level, expository essays and argumentative essays are introduced. Zhang (1983) emphasizes the importance of teaching writing in French-as-a-foreign-language classes, where writing instruction is an important part of mastering the target language, and a year-long curriculum was suggested including tasks such as preparation, summary practice, comment practice, and other activities. In her effort to design a writing curriculum for German-as-a-foreign-language classes, Feng (1995) focuses on detailing the goals for writing instruction and the content to be taught in these classes. According to Feng (1995), writing classes should be built around a variety of genres with a purpose to not only to improve learners' language skills, but also to polish their thinking abilities, communicative competence, and problem-solving abilities. Zeng (1996) shares her personal experiences of designing and teaching L2 writing to English-major sophomores in China. In her class, topics for writing assignments are decided with students' backgrounds and interests in mind, and feedback is provided on both language and structure.

One area of L2W that attracts much attention from scholars in China is the teaching of academic writing, especially thesis/dissertation writing in English. As part of their graduation requirements, language major students in Chinese colleges need to write theses/dissertations in the language they major in. Zhao (2012) analyzes the problems in undergraduate thesis writing regarding innovation. Students lack the ability to choose new/innovative topics and to develop/report original ideas in their theses. Therefore, Zhao (2012) proposes a curriculum that emphasizes the cultivation of students' innovative thinking by introducing literature review techniques, expanding their knowledge of academic writing, teaching them how to choose/develop innovative topics, and helping students develop a genuine interest in research. One characteristic of these academic L2W courses is the emphasis on both language and content of students' writing practice. Gu et al. (2010) report their design and implementation of a project-based undergraduate thesis writing course, which cultivates students' research abilities in a research-oriented learning

environment with multifaceted support in terms of authentic learning context, computer-assisted teaching resources, cognitive and communicative tools, and peer support from senior students.

Besides these self-developed curricula based on instructors' own experiences and observations, Chinese L2W instructors are also learning from similar practices in other countries. Lv, et al. (2016) examines the academic writing curriculum of American universities and finds that a variety of English composition courses in American universities are offered in an integrated curriculum of academic reading, writing, and critical thinking. Suggestions for English academic writing curricula in China have been made to improve students' integrated learning experiences in authentic environments and to switch the instructional focus from language skills only to a combination of thinking and research skills. A similarly integrated curriculum is also reported by Yan & Peng (2008). They introduce the adoption of an Australian ESL integrated curriculum to their teaching of English writing in China, with a focus of implementing a dictogloss strategy, a sound sequence strategy, and a topic strategy. They argue that by adapting these strategies to the English writing curriculum in China, teachers are able to help students develop their interest and creativity in L2 writing, which contributes to openness and pluralism in interactive teaching and learning.

Teaching Materials

Teaching materials, especially writing textbooks, are paid great attention to in China's articles on L2W curriculum. Cai (2005) reviews 21 English writing textbooks published by six major publication houses in China in terms of their compiling principles, content, and foci. Her analysis shows that most of these textbooks overemphasize writing knowledge and skills on the word and sentence level, with limited types of genres represented. Cai (2005) suggests that teaching materials for English writing should help students develop discourse awareness and genre awareness and improve their discourse analyzing and evaluating abilities.

In order to find out what exactly is needed in L2 writing textbooks and teaching materials, a number of evaluative studies have been conducted to generate feedback from L2W textbook users. To learn how students like their writing textbooks, Huang (2004) surveyed 129 English major college undergraduate students and reported students' dissatisfaction with the textbooks they were using in their English writing class. Students were concerned with the practicality, degree of difficulty, and level of interest in writing textbooks, and textbook writers are suggested adopting

communicative theory and taking a process-oriented approach towards writing in developing new teaching materials. To understand teachers' attitudes towards their writing textbooks, Lin & Zhan (2015) interviewed three professors who teach English writing at the college level, and none of the interviewed writing teachers were 100% satisfied with the textbooks they were using. The teachers chose and utilized additional teaching materials based on their own teaching philosophy, the available resources, and their post-class reflection, along with students' level, interest, and needs. They suggest that when developing writing textbooks, authors should take into consideration the various levels, contexts, and needs of L2W students, and provide textbooks with sound theoretical foundations, leveled instruction, supplementing materials, and specific background knowledge if needed.

In addition to evaluations and suggestions from students and teachers, the existing L2W scholarship also introduces and analyzes multiple novel textbooks published for different contexts with different target languages. Yu & Qu (1992) introduced *Writing Prose: Techniques and Purposes* by Thomas S. Kane and Leonard J. Peters as a writing textbook for senior English majors and graduate students, as the book follows a communicative principle that integrates all four language skills. To ESL writing instructors and students in China, Li (2005) recommends John Mauk and John Metz's *The Composition of Everyday Life: A Guide to Writing*, which aims at developing writers with creativity and artistic taste. Yang (2007) introduces a textbook developed by herself entitled *Writing Essay in Chinese* (《外国人汉语过程写作》), which values writing as a process and is designed for upper intermediate to advanced foreign learners of Chinese. Non-traditional writing textbooks are also introduced and evaluated. Wu (2012) re-examines the instructional value of *Wenjingmifulun* (《文镜秘府论》) by a Japanese Buddhist monk, Kūkai. The book was originally regarded as a literary criticism theory treatise. Wu (2012) argues that *Wenjingmifulun* could also be judged and used as a Chinese-as-a-second-language writing textbook because it not only includes guidance for writing and article practice but also values the teaching of discourse skills, commenting and feedback, and the actual writing processes of learners.

Reading and Writing

One noticeable feature in L2W curricula is the interaction between reading and writing. Reading and writing are two closely connected parts in literacy development. Research has shown

that L2 reading ability is significantly related to L2 writing performance (e.g., Carrell & Connor, 1991), and scholars in China have studied the interaction between L2 reading and L2 writing in two aspects: how L2 reading helps improve students' writing performance and how reading-writing-integrated curricula are helpful in students' language development.

Improving students' L2 writing abilities through the teaching of L2 reading has been the topic of research by multiple scholars in China. Chen (2000) examines how reading and writing skills complement and enhance each other and suggests the use of model essays in teaching English composition. Reading and evaluating model essays helps students open their minds, develop writing ideas, learn writing skills, and accumulate writing material.

Given the benefits of reading-writing integration, many such curricula are introduced and evaluated by L2W scholars in China. Xu & Gao (2007) explores the effectiveness of reading-writing integration with freshman and sophomore English majors in China, and they found that this integrated curriculum motivated students to write and improved their development of writing fluency, language complexity, and abstract thinking skills. Tian (1993) reports his own teaching experiences with integrating reading and writing in English classes for college students and suggests that essay writing in various genres based on reading material is an effective way to cultivate students' interest in writing while helping students gain a better understanding of the readings. After pointing out the problem of students' writing grammatically correct essays with vague content, Lin (1996) suggests a similar curriculum where reading, discussion, and writing are integrated in order to help students develop the content and substance of their writing. In this reading-discussion-writing curriculum, students are encouraged to read a wide variety of genres in both L1 and L2, to answer discussion questions according to prompts, and to treat writing as a creative way to express their own thoughts rather than to follow certain sentence patterns to produce grammatically correct passages. Wang & Mou (2013) propose a three-phase Reading-Writing Integration curriculum, where students are taught to critically read given essays and summarize and analyze the texts during class time, are offered multiple writing opportunities after class, using the multimedia online platform, and are evaluated both formatively along the writing process and in a summative way after the final product.

Pedagogy

Early scholarship on L2W instruction provides general pedagogical suggestions on how L2 writing can be taught effectively. For example, Yu (1966) provides four suggestions on how to cultivate Chinese students' writing abilities in Russian. He suggests that 1) teachers focus on the teaching of reading materials and assign writing topics similar to the materials that were taught, 2) instructors help students build up their vocabulary through reading, 3) teachers guide students in making outlines and narrating, and 4) students' exemplar essays and/or teacher's model essays be published to motivate students to write.

It is in the early 1990s that China's scholars started to recognize L2 writing as the weakest part in foreign language teaching, after reflecting on students' poor performance on the writing section of the College English Test (CET) (Han, 1992; Wang, 1992; Zhai, 1992). Since then, multiple pedagogical approaches to L2 writing have been introduced, evaluated, and compared in the major linguistic/foreign language journals. These approaches include the process approach, length approach, genre-based teaching, experience-driven teaching, and collaborative approach.

Process Approach

The process approach is one of the earliest western-developed approaches Chinese instructors adopted in the teaching of L2 writing in China. It has become a topic of interest for Chinese scholars since the late 1980s. Wang (1986) reflects on his own learning and teaching experiences of English writing and introduces the process approach as a new advance in L2W instruction. After analyzing the theoretical development of the process approach, Wang (1986) concludes that writing should be viewed as a complex process of discovery, and he suggests that L2 teachers focus on long-term skills like choice of topics and reader awareness, rather than short-term assistive skills such as spelling and punctuation.

Since then, the process approach has been studied in various contexts, and often in comparison with the product approach. Most articles on the process approach are situated in the college English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) context. Yang (2008) compares the process approach with the product approach to teaching English writing to non-English-major undergraduates. According to Yang (2008), the product approach is more effective with lower-level students, while the process approach works better with higher-level students. Teachers should

choose the approach that is most suitable to their students. In an English writing course for college English-major undergraduates, Zhang (1993) supplements the traditional and long-existing product approach with the process approach, where multiple rounds of feedback are provided on students' drafts to encourage revision and improvement. Other contexts are also represented. For example, to teach Chinese-as-a-Second-Language (CSL) writing to international students from various linguistic backgrounds, Mo (2018) develops and evaluates a feedback-based multi-draft approach, where students are asked to revise their drafts based on both teacher and peer feedback before the final grade is given, and the approach is empirically shown to be effective in this context. In addition, Chen & Ge (2016) applies the process approach to teaching L2 writing in the business English context, where writing tasks are considered a three-step process, including planning, composing, and completion.

Length Approach

As a locally developed teaching approach, the length approach started to attract Chinese scholars' attention in the 2000s. Wang et al. (2000) reports their development of the length approach as a way to improve students' language skills through writing. The length approach emphasizes the length of the written product more than its grammatical accuracy. When adopting the length approach, teachers focus more on designing proper writing tasks, providing positive feedback, and limiting grammar correction, and students are encouraged to write without word limits. Empirical results show that students' confidence increases when taught using the length approach and that they think this approach helps them improve not only their writing skills but also their English language level in general.

With increasing discussion of “writing to learn¹²” in the mid-2000s, the length approach quickly became one of the main L2W instruction approaches in China. Zhong (2004) explores the length approach from a constructive perspective and explains how the length approach is a “down-to-earth instantiation” of the constructivism-oriented teaching design (pg. 46), with its emphasis on student-centered teaching and treating tasks as the key interaction between students and teachers. Wu (2005) reports an empirical study using the length approach to teaching English

¹² Write to Learn was the theme of the first Conference on Teaching and Researching EFL Writing in China, which was held at Guangdong University of Foreign Languages, Guangzhou, China, in 2003.

writing to graduate students, and the results show that the length approach can help improve students' English writing skills as well as their effectiveness of learning English in general.

The length approach has also been applied to and studied in other contexts in China beyond EFL classes. Zong et al. (2012) applies the length approach in Chinese-as-a-Second-Language writing, presents a length-approach-oriented curriculum and a textbook integrating the length approach. Based on their instructional practice and empirical analysis, Zong et al (2012) concludes that length approach is very suitable to mid-level CSL students in the basic Chinese writing class.

Genre-based Teaching

At the same time as the length approach was being developed, Chinese scholars started to apply genre analysis theory to English writing instruction. Compared with the amount of theoretical research on genre analysis, the number of studies on genre-based writing instruction is still limited, especially with regard to how the theoretical results and genre analysis results can be applied to teaching practice (Sun & Wang, 2015a). Although limited in the number of published studies, the efforts of Chinese scholars' analyses of the effectiveness of genre-based teaching in L2W classrooms should not go unnoticed.

So far, genre-based teaching has become a pedagogical choice for L2W teachers of different student populations. P. Chen (1999) analyzes the possibility of adopting the genre-based approach to teaching writing in the English for business purposes class and concludes that the classifying aspects of genre analysis can help students understand the differences among genres and subgenres and promote effective teaching and learning in L2W instruction in English-for-Specific-Purposes (ESP) classes. Zeng (2001) applies genre analysis to the teaching of English for Science and Technology (EST) writing, and she explains how this approach can improve students' abilities in language use, structural organization, and semantic understanding. EST writing instruction benefits from the genre-based approach because this approach helps students master the stylistic features and textual meaning of EST. Han & Hou (2012) demonstrates an application of the genre-based approach to teaching academic writing in English to Chinese graduate students in the field of computer science, with a focus not only on the use of lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical resources but also on promoting students' understanding of the nature and complexity of academic discourse.

One feature regarding the application of genre-based approach by Chinese instructors is the combination of the genre-based and process approaches to teaching L2W. Han (2001) analyzes the feasibility of the “process genre approach” based on an examination of the strengths and weaknesses of product, process, and genre approaches to L2W instruction and proposes a practical four-step approach to teaching English writing to Chinese students. The four steps are 1) analyzing model essays, 2) imitating model essays, 3) writing independently, and 4) editing and revising. This process-genre approach treats writing as a journey, during which teachers provide necessary language and skill support to facilitate students’ writing processes. Once proposed, the process genre approach has been applied by various instructors to different instructional contexts. For example, Huang & Li (2012) used the process genre approach with non-English majors in the college Practical English Writing (PEW) class, and the approach was judged to be scientific, logical, consistent, purpose-driven, fun, and improved students’ writing abilities in a relatively short time.

Experience-driven Teaching

Articles on the experience-driven approach to L2W instruction in China emerged in the mid 2000s. This approach focuses on motivating students to write and getting them to treat writing as something fun rather than a difficult task to complete. Although it is still relatively new to Chinese instructors, experience-driven teaching has been applied to college classrooms for both English and non-English major undergraduate students, and it has been studied by various scholars to show its efficiency in improving students’ engagement in L2W instruction.

Yang et al. (2005) reports on their innovative four-week summer course on English writing for college non-English-major undergraduate students. In this course, students are allowed to code mix when they write and are encouraged to express themselves freely, to “experience happy English writing” (pg. 59), and after six weeks, these students’ writing improved significantly in terms of article structure, sentence length, lexical variety, etc. Wang (2009) also applies experience-driven teaching to non-English major undergraduate students, and on the basis of an empirical comparative study, she concludes that experience-driven teaching is better than the product approach in encouraging students’ to write and improving their communicative ability, word choice, sentence structure, and richness of content. Luo et al. (2011) conducted four rounds of teaching practice to over 600 college students, using the experience-driven approach, in their

English practical writing class. Empirical data show that this experience-driven approach is effective in increasing students' genre awareness and their practical writing ability. Through experience-driven teaching, students can feel the joy of writing and learn to make language expression decisions from a holistic perspective.

Collaborative Approach

The concept of collaborative study is not new, but the collaborative approach (or joint production) is a comparatively new approach to L2W in China, with the majority of articles on it emerging in the late 2000s and the 2010s. Empirical data have shown that the collaborative approach helps students, especially those with limited writing experiences and those who do not know where to start, effectively increase their motivation for and interest in writing, and consequently their writing abilities (Xiaolan. Zhang, 2006). Compared with teacher-led writing tasks, when students are grouped together to fulfill the writing task on their own, they have lower writing anxiety, support each other to express themselves in writing, and learn from each other's strengths and mistakes (Z. Luo, 2011). Collaborative writing among L2 learners yields a product that is more developed and produces writers who are more confident and comfortable in L2W.

The collaborative approach is not limited to the collaboration among students themselves and can involve collaboration between students and the teacher. Sang (2017) applies the joint production approach to teaching English writing to non-English majors at a Chinese university. During the course, the students and teacher completed writing tasks together, with students taking turns providing oral input and the teacher giving instant feedback. The effectiveness of this approach was investigated empirically, and Sang (2017) concludes that joint production contributes to students' development of language accuracy in L2 written texts.

In recent years, the development of technology has made it possible to collaborate beyond the classroom and even across the ocean. Xu & Zhang (2018) reports on their Cross-Pacific Exchange English writing program, where students from a Chinese university partner with students from an American university to participate in online discussion and feedback exchange on their drafts. An analysis of the drafts and students' discussion notes shows that this collaboration helps Chinese students improve their lexical complexity significantly. Liu & You (2018) also reports on a similar cross-border writing activity where students from China and the U.S. practice online peer reviews after performing a similar writing task. Students' performance is analyzed from an

intercultural perspective, and it is concluded that through the discussions with their American peers, Chinese students better understand the negotiability of English rhetorical conventions.

Computer-assisted Teaching and Learning

In recent years, the development of technology has enabled computer-assisted language learning (CALL) to help both students and teachers to acquire knowledge in a more effective and efficient way. Chinese scholars started to publish on the application of CALL to L2W in the late 1980s. Chen (1988) is one of the early publications on the interaction between CALL and L2W in China, where he introduces two student-oriented pieces of software on L2W; one is called *Business Letters*, for the instruction of different types of business letters, and the other is called *Grammarians*, for English grammar practice. Since then, a variety of tools and technologies have been introduced to L2W classrooms and evaluated by Chinese scholars. These tools include various types of digital equipment, the Internet, and multiple corpora.

Digital Equipment

The early attempts to bring CALL into L2W classrooms involve the use of digital equipment, such as projectors, computers, and multimedia instruments. Yu (1993) introduces the use of a projector in a high school English class when the teacher provides feedback and comments on students' essays and leads whole-class discussion using a projector. The use of projectors adds visual stimulation to teacher's oral presentation and makes writing class fun and attractive to students.

The computer is the most popular type of digital equipment that is used in L2W instruction. Since early 1990s, Chinese L2W scholars has begun to investigate how computers can facilitate students' learning of writing. In the early days, computer software was developed to provide ample systematic input with flexible accessibility to satisfy the various needs of different students (Wang et al., 1993). The use of computers in L2W classrooms also enhances students' reader awareness, changes the dynamics of the writing classroom, increases students' interest in writing, and ultimately helps improve students' writing abilities (Zhao, 1999). In recent years, the use of computers is integrated in multiple aspects of L2W instruction. For example, Zhu, Huang, & Zhai (2018) reports on the features of a multivariate teaching evaluation system they developed, and

computer is used throughout the entire writing process from drafting to providing feedback and evaluation, in order to facilitate the student-oriented learning experience.

With the popularization of mobile devices, the smartphone has become the newest piece of digital equipment that is used to facilitate L2W instruction. In group writing, students can use their smartphones to communicate with their peers during the entire writing process, from brainstorming to revising drafts. The use of mobile devices beyond the classroom provides students with flexibility to expand their learning experiences, increasing their confidence in writing while decreasing their writing anxiety (Luo, 2017). The use of multiple digital instruments in L2W enriches students' learning environment and provides them with opportunities to practice what they learn during class in a broader context.

The Internet

Since the early 2000s, the development of the Internet has brought new possibilities for L2W instruction in China. The Internet makes it easier for non-native students to interact with their native-speaking peers and experience how writing functions in an authentic communicative environment. Gu & Zhu (2002) reports on their cross-border writing practice where college students from China and the U.S. were paired up for a technical writing project. With the help of the Internet, students are able to communicate with their peers via email and to look for additional information online to enrich their final report, which develops not only their L2W abilities with authentic input but also their communicative skills in the L2. The Internet moves collaboration to a new and different level and facilitates L2W instruction by providing students with authentic communicative opportunities.

The Internet also provides a unique platform for autonomous writing practice in L2W instruction. Huang & Li (2006) introduces their teaching practice adopting the autonomous approach with the Internet-based New Horizon College English platform for teaching English writing to non-English major college undergraduate students. Their experiment shows that, with the help of Internet, students are able to make progress at a flexible pace, increase their confidence in writing, and eventually improve their English writing abilities. A similar design is introduced by Y. Wang (2018), where an Internet-based individuation pedagogy for English writing learners is analyzed. Students are provided with lots of writing resources and communicative opportunities online, and they are allowed to make choices based on their own preference. With the help of the

Internet, individualized goals are set for students of different levels; lower-level students focus on producing well-structured passages with correct use of grammar, and higher-level students are required to pay more attention to the diversity of lexical choice, variety of sentence structure, and beauty of the overall passage. The flexible and independent learning environment is beneficial for the improvement of students' confidence in writing and, subsequently, their English writing ability.

In addition to the school-based platforms, personal blogs have also become an institutional tool on the Internet. The use of blogs in the L2W classroom has been investigated by Chinese scholars since the late 2000s. X. Guo (2009) adopts a blog-based pedagogy to teaching English writing to college students in China. In her class, while students write their own blogs on given topics, the instructor supervises their progress and provides comments during the process. Students see their blogs not only as a place to complete their assignment, but also as a platform for demonstration and communication among themselves, which builds their interest in writing (Zhao & Yang, 2013). L2 learners generally enjoy the use of blogs in L2W instruction for it brings writing to their lives and gives them a sense of accomplishment while sharing their works with a larger audience, rather than writing to get a grade from their instructor.

Corpora

Corpus-facilitated L2W instruction was introduced to the L2W classroom in China in the mid 2000s. The benefits of corpus-based pedagogy have been investigated empirically. The major role corpora play in L2W instruction is as a reference tool to present how the target language (mostly lexical and grammatical features) is used in an authentic environment in order for students to master and use the language concisely (Teng & Liu, 2006). Besides it uses for presentation of lexical collocates and grammar structure, corpus-based instruction is seen as very helpful in introducing register knowledge. Huang et al. (2003) is among one of the earliest endeavors by Chinese instructors to implement corpus-based writing instruction, where this data-driven approach is applied to the teaching of register knowledge in L2W. In their practice, the instructor encourages students to explore the different register patterns in the corpus by having them compare the use of a given word in learners' and native-speakers' corpora, so that students are able to generalize the descriptive rules that guide the native-speakers' word choices and eventually improve their own writing abilities in the target language.

Corpus-based instruction is also beneficial to L2W students in recognizing and correcting their mistakes in writing by switching the focus of L2W instruction from teacher to students. Developing a class-based instructional corpus helps the instructor see their students' most common mistakes and provides an intuitive presentation of the mistakes for students to see and correct (Zhu, 2009). Students are also encouraged to discover their own mistakes and to find the correct or a better form on their own. Different from the traditional mistake correction methods, where the teacher makes comments, and students correct the mistakes based on teacher feedback, a corpus-based approach encourages students to discover the mistakes in their own writing (Yang & Luo, 2009). Students' learning autonomy is developed, which contributes to an increased level of interest and confidence in L2 writing.

A variety of corpora have been used in L2W instruction in China, including both self-developed local corpora and inclusive corpora with a wide variety of entries. Based on their scale, all the corpora mentioned in the L2W instruction articles I surveyed can be put into three categories: 1) large-scale inclusive corpora, 2) mid-scale learner corpora, and 3) small-scale classroom corpora. The two most frequently used inclusive corpora are the British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). These large-scale corpora are often used as reference tools for students to enrich their vocabulary and increase the accuracy and flexibility of their use of lexical bundles (Dong & Chu, 2010). The mid-size learner corpora are helpful for students to learn from their peers and to increase their interest in learning to write in the L2 (Cai, 2008). Two representatives from this category are the Experience Writing Database co-developed by the Foreign Language Department of Tsinghua University and Higher Education Press (e.g., Gu, 2005) and the Chinese Learner English Corpus (CLEC) published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press (e.g., Huang et al., 2003). L2W learners can also benefit from locally developed class-specific corpora because they target the local users and provide the information that is most needed by students in a specific classroom (Wang et al., 2011). A combination of multiple corpora is often used in L2W instruction, and the advance of technology makes it possible for learners to navigate among massive information when they learn to write.

Teacher Training and Development

L2W scholars in China care about not only students in instruction but also the other participants, the instructors. Teacher training and development has been an issue of discussion for

L2W scholars since the 1990s. Early scholarship focuses on how teachers should treat students in the instructional environment (e.g., Kamla, 1993), and later publications examine how teachers improve themselves and make evaluative decisions about the teaching materials and their roles in teaching (e.g., Lin & Zhan, 2015; Zhou & Liu, 2005). For example, Yang (2010) studies the consistency between L2W teachers' beliefs and their practices. Her case study shows that instructors' personal learning experiences, teaching experiences, and attitude towards teaching directly affect their beliefs in teaching and, consequently, their teaching practices.

The role of L2 writing instructors has been explored by multiple scholars. Cheng (1994) generalizes three major roles of writing teachers as 1) readers to understand the underlying purpose of student writers in their drafts, 2) evaluators to identify mistakes and errors in the drafts, and 3) instructors to find out why students make certain mistakes and to instruct students how to correct their mistakes. In a more recent piece, Zhou & Liu (2005) suggests a more detailed version of teachers' roles in computer-assisted English writing instruction in China. The ten roles are to facilitate English writing, to stimulate students' interest and confidence in writing, to organize writing learning activities, to point the direction for students in learning, to train students' writing skills, to explore solutions to problems in learning, to monitor the entire learning process, to evaluate students' performance and progress, to communicate and collaborate with students and colleagues, and to act as a consultant to resolve contradictions.

Specific Classroom Activities

The last major issue discussed in the literature on L2W instruction covers many specific classroom activities that L2W instructors designed and implemented. A decent portion of early literature on classroom activities is translated work from scholars in other countries. Gorman (1984) presents a detailed list of specific L2 writing tasks, including controlled writing (e.g., passage dictation), assisted writing (e.g., writing in response to a series of leading questions), guided writing (e.g., writing to a given scenario), and independent writing (e.g., creative writing or term papers). McGinley (1985) introduces a specific writing activity called reconstructing paragraphs, where students are given a jumbled text and are asked to use cohesive devices to reconstruct them in a logical way. This activity can be used in both general and specific-purpose L2W classrooms and can help students improve coherence in their writing.

Recent literature presents how Chinese scholars transition from borrowing activity ideas from other countries to developing their own writing tasks/activities. For example, recitation as an input activity has been studied by several scholars. Deng (2001) studies how the input of recitation helps mitigate the interference of L1 in L2W. According to Deng (2001), the input of recitation in the target language lowers students' writing anxiety, enhances target language input, blocks negative transfer, and improves students' intuitive sense of the target language. Dai & Ding (2010) reports on an experimental study exploring the effectiveness of recitation input in English writing instruction. Their results show that students' English skills and writing abilities have improved with recitation input and that this activity is especially beneficial for lower-level students because the frequency and diversity of formulaic sequences have increased significantly in their writing after participating in recitation activities.

So far, various writing tasks have been developed and investigated by Chinese L2W scholars. Zhu (2007) presents five tasks that aim to improve students' grammatical knowledge and awareness, writing skills, and communicative competence in English writing classrooms at the college level. The five types of tasks are grammaticalization tasks, dictogloss tasks, picture composition tasks, synthesis tasks, and text modification tasks. All these tasks are passage-based and implemented in group activities, which contributes to the improvement of students' communicative skills, and the feedback students receive from their teacher during these activities helps them develop a systematic knowledge of English grammar and improve their ability to use the language in actual writing. In addition, communicating with E-pals (Deng & Liu, 2003), abbreviation practice (Liu & Peng, 2016), multi-role participation (Shao, 2016), and translation and mimicry (Cen et al., 2008) are all writing classroom activities suggested by L2W scholars in China.

CHAPTER SIX: ARTICLES ON WRITTEN PRODUCT

Since the early 1980s, features of written products have been a major issue explored by L2W scholars in China. Multiple languages are addressed in the articles on this topic, including English, Chinese, Thai, Japanese, Korean, German, etc., with English and Chinese being the most frequently studied L2s. In these articles, a great variety of features in written products are investigated, and these features can be divided into three major categories: lexical and phrasal features, clause and sentence structures, and passage and discourse patterns. Early literature on L2 written features focuses on analyzing the lexical and phrasal features of the target language, and it is in the 1990s that Chinese scholars started to examine the patterns in L2 writers' products and to publish on sentence- and passage-level features. Another area of literature on L2 written texts analyzes various types of errors in L2 learners' products.

Lexical and Phrasal Features

Different word- and phrase-level topics are investigated in the articles I surveyed. Specific topics include lexical words, function words, metadiscourse markers, and lexical bundles. Each topic is discussed in multiple articles from different angles.

Lexical Words

Lexical words are the main carriers of meaning in writing (Biber et al., 2002). There are four subdivisions of lexical words, which are nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. All four subdivisions are present in the L2W major journal articles in China.

Nouns

The characteristics of English noun phrases produced by Chinese writers are the most frequently analyzed topic among all the studies on noun usage in L2W. Through a quantitative study, Zhao (2004) concludes that due to negative transfer of Chinese, L2 learners present an informal and colloquial tendency in writing, where their English noun phrases take pre-modifiers more than post-modifiers, with attributive clauses used much more frequently than phrases as post-

modifiers. Another characteristic of Chinese EFL learners' noun use in English is the production of bare noun phrases (i.e., noun phrases not properly marked for plurality), especially when Chinese learners use countable noun phrases to refer to categorical concepts (Chen, 2010). The production of bare nouns also appears in plural making in Chinese EFL students' writing, where learners tend to omit markers for plural nouns/noun phrases (Hu, 2011). Besides bare nouns, Chinese EFL students' use of signaling nouns also demonstrate unique features. Chinese students use more signaling nouns in general, and compared with their English-speaking peers, they use more argument and text nouns and fewer research, evidence, and idea nouns (Zhou & Liu, 2015).

The function of nouns/noun phrases in academic writing is also investigated. Y. Zhang & Lei (2018) reports a corpus-based study on the stance of noun complement structure in academic writing in English. Their results show that noun complement structures mainly present three types of stance: possibility, source of information, and attitude/evaluation. Also, different disciplines show different frequencies of use of noun complement structures to express stance; soft disciplines (e.g., social sciences) take a stance twice more frequently than hard disciplines (e.g., natural sciences). Disciplinary differences are also present in the use of abstract nouns in academic writing. According to Yuqin Hei & Yufen Hei (2011), different types of abstract nouns are used to construct particular evaluative stances, and the variations reflect research orientation and nature of discipline; soft disciplines use more abstract nouns for evidence and self-source, while hard disciplines show preference for abstract nouns for argument and research source.

One specific group of nouns, the shell nouns, draw significant attention from scholars studying nouns in L2W. Chinese students' use of English shell nouns in their graduate theses is investigated through comparative corpus-based studies. According to Liu & Wang (2016), no obvious difference exists in the overall frequency of shell nouns used between Chinese students and their native speaking peers. However, Lou (2013) reports a significant difference in the use of standardized tokens of shell nouns by Chinese students and their native speaking peers. Despite differences in the frequency of Chinese students' use of shell nouns, they both observe a lack of diversity in Chinese students' choice of semantic categories of shell nouns. While Lou (2013) argues that the majority of shell nouns used by Chinese graduate students are to express epistemic stance, Liu & Wang (2016) reports that both Chinese and English-speaking graduate students prefer to use epistemic stance markers in their writing and show little preference towards attitudinal stance markers.

Another noun feature that is frequently studied in the articles I surveyed is nominalization. Nominalization is a basic structure in academic written English, which increases grammatical simplicity and lexical density. Liu & Yu (2007) discusses the merits and problems of nominalization in English, where nominalization increases the density of information in text, which may lead to semantic confusion. However, the merits of nominalization outweigh the disadvantages, for nominalization facilitates abstract information processing and transition within a text, decreasing writers' subjectivity and adapting the functional variation of text. The phenomenon of nominalization in English has been studied in multiple specific contexts, including medical texts (e.g., medical journal articles in X. Fan, 2005), business texts (e.g., international trade sale contracts in X. Xu, 2011), legal texts (e.g., legal translation in J. Fu, 2007), and academic texts (e.g., college students' argumentative essays in L. Wang & G. Chen, 2008). In general, Chinese EFL learners tend to use fewer nominalizations than their English-speaking peers, and the use of nominalization increases as learners' overall English language abilities develop (Wang & Chen, 2008b).

Besides English nouns, the acquisition of Chinese nouns is also studied in the L2W literature. Liu (2018) explores the use of Chinese nouns by Thai students. Chinese and Thai are similar in word order and basic syntactical rules, but they differ in the order of a noun and its modifiers. Liu (2018) presents a corpus-based study of Chinese noun usage by Thai college students, and suggests that both internal (negative transfer, overgeneralization of target language rules, and barriers in parts of speech usage) and external factors (low repetition rate in teaching materials, pedagogy focusing too much on syntax, and insufficient learning time) contribute to the delayed acquisition of Chinese nouns by Thai students.

Lexical Verbs

English verbs used by Chinese learners in their EFL writing demonstrate unique features. L. Wang & Y. Zhang (2007) investigates high-frequency verbs in Chinese learners' English writing and finds that their verb usage differs from that of their English-speaking peers. Chinese EFL learners lack diversity of verbs in their argumentative essays, overusing verbs/verb phrases such as "get," "think," "know," "study," "learn," "develop," "get+object," and "I think." The overuse of such verb structures results from negative transfer from Chinese and teachers' teaching style. The high-frequency verbs used by advanced Chinese EFL learners have also been

investigated. J. Xu & X. Yang (2012) examines the high-frequency verbs used by an advanced Chinese EFL learner and concludes that the overall frequency and categories of high-frequency verbs used by advanced Chinese EFL learners is similar to that of their English-speaking peers. However, negative transfer from Chinese still results in the overuse/underuse/misuse of certain verbs.

A specific group of English verbs that are frequently studied are the reporting verbs. He (2012) studied reporting verbs in academic research articles in English and found that English reporting verbs generally appear in three tenses/aspects: simple present to generalize research results or to introduce the current status of research, simple past to introduce specific experimental procedures or to review existing literature without further discussion, and present perfect to explain the influence of past research on the current study with further in-depth discussion. The frequency of reporting verb usage is similar between Chinese EFL learners and their English-speaking peers, with a preference towards the use of textual verbs (e.g., “state,” “claim,” “hold,” etc.), neutral verbs (without writers’ agreement or disagreement), and indirect reporting (J. Chen, 2011). However, there are particular word choices that are specific to Chinese EFL learners. For example, Chinese learners tend to use reporting verbs that carry negative meanings to express positive stance (Lou, 2011), and the reporting verbs used by Chinese students are usually general and vague with simple structures (J. Chen, 2011).

English verb tense use by Chinese EFL learners is also studied. X. Zhang & Y. Yang (2009) explores the acquisition of verb tense by Chinese English-major students in college, and they conclude that among all the verb errors, errors associated with tense are the most in number. Most of these tense errors are associated with past tense. Another study on Chinese students’ verb tense use in narratives in English shows that the simple past tense is often used in the foreground, and the simple present tense is significantly more frequent in background, supporting the discourse hypothesis (Cai, 2003). Wang, Liu, & Li (2017) also studies English verb tense. They did not examine the learners’ behavior, but rather explored the functions that English verb tenses serve in academic writing. They conclude that verb tenses perform not only ideational functions but also interpersonal functions. Disciplinary differences are identified in the way tenses express interpersonal meanings: hard disciplines prefer past tense when research methods and results are introduced, while soft disciplines prefer present tense in these moves.

Another verb-related issue discussed in the literature is Chinese EFL students' use of verb-noun collocations. Advanced L2 learners use a considerable number of verb-noun collocations in their argumentative essays, with the verb+object structure being the most frequently used (W. Wang & X. Li, 2018). Common errors in verb-noun collocations by Chinese EFL learners include the overuse of delexicalized verbs, omission of the plural form of nouns, and underuse of indefinite articles (W. Wang & X. Li, 2018). H. Wang & X. Zhou (2009) also reports that Chinese EFL learners tend to overuse the high-frequency verbs in their verb-noun collocations, and as their language ability develops, the accuracy of verb-noun collocations in their essays increases.

Adjectives

Only one article in the literature I surveyed focuses exclusively on adjectives. B. Liu & Y. Wang (2015) explores Chinese EFL learners' use of adjectives in English writing through a corpus-based study. Their results show that these advanced learners have a good command of English adjectives, but they still demonstrate some features that differ from native language users. Chinese EFL learners tend to overuse the high-frequency adjectives, limiting the richness of vocabulary in their writing.

Adverbs

Chinese EFL learners' use of adverbs is investigated in multiple studies. Two specific adverbial groups studied are the adverbials of result and adverbial conjuncts. B. Lou (2017) investigates Chinese learner's use of adverbials of result and found that learners use diverse adverbials of result in their academic writing, with "therefore" "so" "thus" "hence" and "then" being the most frequently used adverbials of result. Y. Luo (2003) studies the adverbial conjuncts, and the results show that Chinese learners use more adverbial conjuncts than their English-speaking peers, with a significant overuse of contrastive "yet" and two sentence-initial conjuncts "And" and "But."

Function Words

Function words usually do not carry specific information as lexical words do; instead, they indicate meaning relationships and help interpret how lexical word units relate to each other (Biber

et al., 2002). The function words that are studied in the L2W articles I surveyed include conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, and pronouns.

Conjunctions

Conjunctions connect clauses, phrases, and words in meaning construction. Various English conjunctions in Chinese EFL learners' texts have been studied in the L2W articles in China. Although Chinese EFL students are usually able to produce grammatically correct forms of conjunctions, the lack of pragmatic awareness in English and negative transfer from Chinese lead to pragmatic mistakes, which harm the overall coherence in their texts in English (Y. Zhao, 2012). Comparative studies show that Chinese EFL students use more conjunctions than native writers. In terms of the specific conjunction types, Chinese learners tend to underuse corroborative conjunctions and overuse contrastive "yet" and sentence initial "But" and "And" (Luo, 2003). The overuse and underuse of certain types of conjunctions could result from restricted writing task types students are exposed to and their limited knowledge of the diversity of cohesive devices (Y. Zhao, 2003). In addition, Chinese EFL learners' use of conjunctions shows a lack of understanding of semantic properties of some conjunctions, resulting in the difference in logical-semantic distribution of conjunctions between Chinese EFL learners and their English-speaking peers (Pan & Feng, 2004).

Apart from a general survey of English conjunctions used by Chinese EFL learners, two different categories of conjunctions (causal conjunctions and adversative conjunctions) are investigated in detail in the L2W articles. Mo (2005) examines the use of causal conjunctions in argumentative essays by Chinese EFL learners of different language levels and finds that the diversity of casual connectives increases as students' language abilities develop. The choice of preferred causal conjunctions (e.g., "so") indicates Chinese students' preference for inductive thinking and a colloquial tendency in writing. Chinese EFL students' use of another type of conjunctions, adversative conjunctions, have also been studied. Chu & C. Zhao (2011) studies the use of English adversative conjunctions in argumentative essays by a group of Chinese engineering-major students. Compared with their English-speaking peers, Chinese engineering majors overuse "but" "on the other hand" and "nevertheless," and underuse conjunctions such as "still" or "yet." Y. Wang & Y. Xiao (2013) compares the use of adversative conjunctions among English-major college students in China, and their results show that there is a difference in the use

of high-frequency adversative conjunctions among English majors, but that they achieve richer vocabulary diversity than non-English-major college students in China. There is no correlation between the use of adversative conjunctions and the score of the writing, but there is a different preference towards certain adversative conjunctions between different genders.

A specific conjunction that was studied is the sentence-initial “and.” He (1980) argues against English teachers’ suggestion of not using “and” to start a sentence, and he explains that sentence-initial “and” has been common in practice since the previous century. Seven relationships can be seen through sentence-initial “and,” which are to introduce results, to show continuation of time, to compare, to comment, to indicate concession, to express similar content, and to add to the previous sentence/clause.

Auxiliary Verbs

L2W literature in China has investigated Chinese EFL students’ use of English auxiliary verbs, including both primary auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries. Two primary auxiliaries studied in the articles I collected are “be” and “have.” Lv & Xiao (2016) examines be-overgeneralization in Chinese college freshmen’s writing in English. Their results counter the common assumption that be-overgeneralization results from overpassivization or a suppletive form to mark tense-aspect, and they conclude that the overuse of the “be” auxiliary in learners’ essays is influenced by the lexical aspects of certain main verbs, especially those of states and achievements. Yang (2003) compares the use of auxiliary “have” by Chinese college students with that of their English-speaking peers, and findings show that the use of “have” differs between these two groups, especially when “have” is used to form the perfect tense or subjunctive mood. The differences can be attributed to interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, influence from textbooks and exercise materials, and teachers’ instruction.

The use of English modal auxiliaries in Chinese students’ academic writing has been explored in multiple empirical studies. Chinese differs from language in the expression of summarization, possibility, tendency, and suggestion, thus resulting in the influence of L1 on Chinese students’ use of modal verbs in their English writing (Yang, 1998). Compared with their native English-speaking peers, the use of modal auxiliaries in Chinese EFL students’ academic writing shows a clear imbalance regarding the high-frequency modal verbs (Long et al., 2016). Chinese learners’ preference of deontic modal sequences (e.g., can, should, will, may, must, need,

and ought to) over epistemic sequences (e.g., would, could, and might) results in a commonly found narrative tone in Chinese students' essays in English (Long et al., 2016), and there is often a fixed modal sequence with modal auxiliaries preceded by personal pronouns and followed by main verbs (usually aspectually unmarked with neutral voice) (Liang, 2008). These Chinese-learner-specific features may result from the way modal verbs are introduced in textbooks and from learners' L2 proficiency (Liang, 2008; Ma & Lv, 2007), the developmental stage of learners' L2 abilities (Liang, 2008), the influence of socio-cultural values of Chinese (Ma & Lv, 2007), and instruction focusing on forms instead of meanings in China (Ma & Lv, 2007).

Modal verb used in native English-speakers' writing is also investigated to shed light on modal instruction for Chinese students. Li (2011) compares the use of two modal auxiliaries ("may" and "will") in academic writing and news reports by British speakers. The corpus-based study shows that "may" is more frequently used in academic discourse, and "will" is more often seen in the news context. Li (2007) studies the high-frequency modal verbs in the legal context, and reports that the most frequently used modal auxiliaries in legal documents are "shall" "may" "must" and "should." Although not a common modal verb in other registers, the word "shall" has a special place in legal discourse, and when used with third person pronouns, it carries the meaning of order, obligation, duty, right, privilege, and promise.

Pronouns

Three types of English pronouns (personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns) are specifically studied in the L2W articles I collected. Among these three types, personal pronouns attract the most attention from L2W scholars in China, with articles describing the use of English personal pronouns by Chinese learners ranging from K-12 students just starting to learn to write to professionals publishing in international journals. Liao (2004) compares the use of third person pronouns and names as anaphors in narrative writing by native English-speaking and Chinese college and high school students. The results of this study show that there is no significant difference in the use of target words between native speakers and non-native learners, and the minor differences result from the different ways of connecting sentences/clauses in English and Chinese. However, other studies demonstrate that Chinese students' use of personal pronouns is different from that of their English-speaking peers. According to Zhao & Shang (2012), Chinese students' written texts display an overuse of first- and second-person pronouns, collocations of

nominative personal pronouns with modal verbs, and the contracted forms of personal pronouns, which contribute to the spoken nature of Chinese students' written texts. In addition, Zhu & Su (2013) argues that Chinese students' use of personal pronouns cannot be simply characterized as "overuse," but rather as influenced by students' L2 proficiency and writing topic.

English personal pronouns, especially first-person pronouns, used by professionals in various disciplines are also studied. Abstracts in research articles published in *Science* between 2004 and 2008 involve a high frequency of active voice and first-person pronouns (Zhang, 2009), with 20.6% of the abstracts having "we" as the subject. The preference for first-person pronouns in abstracts by advanced English language users is also confirmed in Zhang (2008), where the use of first-person pronouns in 400 linguistic abstracts by native and non-native writers was compared. The results show that native speakers use significantly more first-person pronouns than Chinese writers. However, this clear difference in the use of first-person pronouns in academic writing contradicts the results from Gao (2015), where the use of first-person pronouns in research articles published in the fields of linguistics and physics by native and non-native writers was studied. The results suggest that disciplinary distinctions outweigh the differences in L1s, where the use of first-person pronouns is significantly more frequent by both native and non-native physicists than their linguist peers.

Lexical Bundles

Lexical bundles in English are sequences of words that frequently appear together in text but are not idiomatic. In the articles I surveyed, the structure, function, and developmental stages of English lexical bundles by both native English speakers and Chinese learners in various contexts are studied.

The acquisition process of lexical bundles by Chinese students is described as a fluctuating process influenced by many factors (Wang & Liu, 2013). The frequency and variety of lexical bundles used by Chinese EFL learners generally correlate with learners' language proficiencies. Advanced learners use lexical bundles more frequently with greater variety in their writing (Xu, 2012a). However, the quality of lexical bundles students use does not necessarily improve as their language proficiencies develop. Huang & Zhou (2016) examines Chinese English-major students' acquisition of lexical bundles and suggests that the grammaticality and appropriacy of lexical bundles used by senior students do not show significant progress over a four-year period. Similarly,

Yang (2015) argues against the assumption that the number of lexical bundles can always be used as indicators of writing quality. According to Yang (2015), lower-level students may borrow lexical bundles from the writing prompt, which increases the number of lexical bundles in their essay but not the quality of their writing.

The characteristics of lexical bundles used by Chinese students are studied often in comparison with their native-speaking counterparts. In terms of structure, Chinese learners prefer to use shorter bundles (Liu & Liu, 2009), with verb bundles being the most frequently used bundle type (Xu, 2010). Both Pan (2016) and Li & Liu (2016) examine Chinese writers' use of English lexical bundles in academic journal articles and report that native English writers show a preference for phrasal bundles while Chinese writers use clausal bundles more frequently. Pan (2016) further explains that the frequent use of clausal features is not unique to Chinese writers, but rather a common feature of inexperienced academic writers and should be treated as a developmental feature in academic writing.

The diversity of lexical bundles used by Chinese learners is limited, compared with their English-speaking peers. Learners' use of bundles concentrates on the high-frequency ones, while native speakers use a larger variety of bundles (Xu, 2012a). In their studies on lexical bundles used by Chinese writers in applied linguistics journal articles, Li & Liu (2016, 2017) finds that Chinese writers overused text-oriented bundles and underused research-oriented bundles, guiding bundles, quantifying bundles, framing bundles, and hedging bundles. Factors affecting learners' use of lexical bundles include negative transfer from Chinese, influences from genre and task, writer identity, discourse feature of the moves, and lexical features and functions of the bundles themselves (Hu & Huang, 2017; Xu, 2012a; Xu, 2010).

Metadiscourse Markers

Metadiscourse allows writers to address their audience, explicitly mark text structure, and increase the clarity of their writing. Metadiscourse markers in written texts are mostly used to present the text, and the more informational and abstract registers are, the more metadiscourse markers are needed to make the text reader-friendly (Zhang & Song, 2017). Empirical studies on metadiscourse markers in the articles I surveyed involve multiple discourse communities (academic, business, and news discourses) by both native and non-native writers in various target languages (English, Chinese, and German).

The use of metadiscourse devices by Chinese and American college students in their argumentative essays shows similar overall frequency, but Chinese students demonstrate a preference towards textual markers over interpersonal markers (Cao & Wang, 2009). Further analysis has been conducted to explore the correlation between the use of metadiscourse markers and the quality of academic essays. Xu & Gong (2006) examines the argumentative essays by 200 Chinese English majors and reports no statistically significant correlation between the overall use of textual metadiscourse markers and writing quality but a negative and statistically significant correlation between use of interpersonal metadiscourse markers and writing quality.

In addition to general usage, specific types of metadiscourse devices in academic discourse are also studied. Li & Zhou (2018) investigates a clause-level metadiscourse device, Functional Sentence Stems (FSSs) and finds that academic writers use FSSs to effectively manage information, organize discourse, direct the reader's reception of the text in a way preferred by the writer, and thereby to realize the communicative goal of academic interaction. Chen (2017) compares commenting as metadiscourse in academic journal articles in Chinese and German. Analysis shows that there is more commenting in German articles than in Chinese articles and that German authors use more explicit formulations to communicate their ideas and results to their audience than their Chinese counterparts.

News discourse has also been the focus of a number of studies on metadiscourse devices. Mu (2010) compares Chinese and English editorials in newspapers and finds that English editorials generally have more metadiscourse markers than Chinese editorials, and Chinese editorials have a clear preference for the use of the interpersonal metadiscourse marker “we.” S. Liu (2013) studies the use of metadiscourse devices in news commentaries in Chinese and English. The results show a clear difference in interactive devices with no significant differences in interactional devices. Ju (2018) also examines the use of metadiscourse devices in news commentaries, but her study focuses on comparing the use of metadiscourse markers in English commentaries by native and non-native writers. Results show that both groups of writers use interactional devices to enhance writer-reader interaction, and non-native writers use far fewer engagement markers than native speakers, due to language and cultural transfer.

Metadiscourse devices are also studied in the business context with Hu & Li (2018) examining the distribution of metadiscoursal devices and their functions in letters to shareholders from both Chinese and American IT companies. Results show that personal interactional

metadiscoursal items in letters from both Amazon and Tencent outnumber textual interactive ones; letters from Amazon have remarkably more metadiscoursal items in total than those of Tencent and also have markedly more interactional metadiscoursal items, in particular, attitude markers and engagement markers, while their interactive markers are notably less than those of Tencent letters. These differences can be partly attributed to differences in personal, corporate, and national cultures as well as the English proficiency and genre-awareness of the authors.

Clausal and Sentence Structure

Clauses and sentences produced by L2 writers present features that are distinct from those of L1 speakers' writing. The L2W articles I surveyed study various features of clausal and sentence structures of L2 writing, including elements of sentence structure (e.g., sentence stems), different types of clauses and sentences, and syntactic complexity.

Sentence Structure

L2W scholars in China have studied multiple elements in sentences produced by L2 writers, including sentence stems (textual stems and functional stems), cleft constructions, and word order.

Sentence Stems

A sentence stem in English is a fixed or semi-fixed sentence-level sequence that can carry different functional meanings. Textual sentence stems (TSSs) have attracted considerable interest among L2W scholars, especially for how they facilitate readers' understanding of propositional information and direct readers to the writer's position. Zhang & Wei (2013) expands the research on TSSs by empirically studying how clausal expressions are used for interpersonal purposes in academic writing. They suggest that TSSs are important in expressing attitudinal meanings in research articles and performing a wide range of interpersonal acts. Le Zhang (2017) focuses exclusively on one subcategory of TSSs, the intertextual stems, and studied the ways intertextual stems fulfill the implicit evaluative function, in order to point out the weaknesses of their peers while protecting the peers' reliability and the discourse community's unity at the same time.

Besides the traditional categorization of sentence stems, Li & Wei (2017) suggests the new concept of functional sentence stem in academic writing, which refers to the continuous lexical-

grammatical sequences involving subjects and verbs in academic texts. According to Li & Wei (2017), not all sentence stems in academic texts are functional sentence stems; functional sentence stems have to carry the academic meaning (attitudinal, textual, or conceptual) and function. The concept of functional sentence stems diversifies the connotation of academic English phraseology and provides inspiration for academic L2W research.

Cleft Constructions

A cleft in English is a structure that breaks information that is originally in one sentence into two clauses, in order to provide extra emphasis. Wang & Chen (2008a) compares the use of cleft constructions among Chinese EFL learners of different levels and between Chinese EFL writers and native English speakers. The overall use of cleft constructions is greater in the writing of native English speakers than that of Chinese learners, while Chinese students overuse pseudo clefts (especially *wh*-clefts) and underuse cleft “it.” The frequencies of cleft “it” and pseudo clefts demonstrate a fluctuating pattern in the argumentative essays by Chinese students of different levels, with the frequency increasing and peaking in sophomores’ writing and declining afterwards.

Word Order

The word order of languages differs, thus making its acquisition a challenge to second language learners. Zheng (2014) analyzes the resetting of word order parameters in English speakers’ Chinese acquisition. Results show that learners successfully reset the adjunct parameter and the *wh*-movement parameter but not the head-parameter nor the syntactic property of topic prominence in Chinese. Other problems in learners’ use of Chinese word order in writing include the wrong word order of multiple modifiers of verbs, the uncertain constituents that are modified, and the dropped localizers in modifiers.

Sentence Types

Various types of sentences with unique learner features are studied in China’s L2W literature. Yang & Wen (1994) analyzes the features in different types of English sentences produced by English majors in a Chinese college and finds that, compared with their English-speaking peers, Chinese learners produce lengthy simple sentences, sentences starting with

adverbials, and a significant number of comma splices and complex sentences. These learner-unique features are due to learners' limited mastery of the target language and negative transfer from L1. Among the many types of sentences, two are explicitly studied in the L2W articles I collected. They are topic sentences and questions.

Topic Sentences

Topic sentences help improve the clarity of paragraphs and passages. Chinese learners of English are not good at using topic sentences to indicate the content and organization of the paragraph and compared with the expected topic sentences by native speakers, the passage topic sentences lack abstraction and expandability (Wu, 2003). Zhu (2005) traces the reasons why Chinese students have difficulties in using topic sentences properly in their writing in English and presents several problems in the way topic sentences are taught in English writing classes in China. For example, the product approach widely adopted in China treats topic sentences in a static and isolated way. When analyzing students' struggles in topic sentences, instructors assume the influence of negative transfer of L1 without studying the psychological aspect of writers' development. In addition, topic types also contribute to the effectiveness of topic sentences Chinese EFL learners write. D. Liu (2013) studies 200 expository articles by Chinese college students and reports that restricted topics help learners write more effective topic sentences than open topics do and that learners' language proficiency levels also affect the way they acquire segment structure.

To help students come up with effective topic sentences, instructors should foster the creativity of students and teach them how to generate topic sentences from the content, rather than giving them topic sentences and having them write to fill in the blanks (Zhu, 2005). D. Liu (2013) also provided suggestions on effective instruction of topic sentences, which emphasize the conceptual and logical levels of L2 writing instruction.

Beyond topic sentences themselves, Chinese L2W scholars also examine topic supporting and rhetorical relations in Chinese EFL learners' paragraphs. Liu & Chen (2015) investigates the indirectness and rhetorical relations between the topic sentence and the first supporting sentence in the paragraph. They report that Chinese students tend to support topic sentences in a direct way, and they demonstrate more rhetorical awareness in essays with given topics than in free writing.

Questions

Another type of sentence that has been studied in L2W major journal articles in China is the question. Wang & Zhang (2006) explores the characteristics of questions in argumentative essays by English learners both in China and abroad. Compared with native English speakers, both learner groups overuse questions in their writing, and there are no significant differences in the frequency, category, and distribution of question use between these two learner groups. Four functions of questions used by Chinese EFL learners are identified, and they are 1) to introduce the topic, 2) to restrict the text, 3) to connect for coherence and cohesion, and 4) to emphasize.

A specific type of question studied in the L2W literature is the yes-no question in Chinese. Ding (2006) studies the distributional and developmental features of Chinese yes-no questions by elementary and intermediate learners of various L1s. A statistical analysis of their written texts show that learners use more yes-no questions of high-degree interrogation than those of low-degree interrogation and rhetorical questions. The sequence of acquisition shows a pattern from high-degree *ma* (吗) questions, to low-degree *ma* (吗) questions, tag questions and *ba* (吧) questions, and finally rhetorical questions.

Besides yes-no questions, another sentence system in Chinese has also been studied. Ma & Shi (2016) examines the full-minor sentence system in Chinese produced by L1 Japanese learners. Results from their corpus-based study show that minor sentences are the keys to organize stack structures and develop the overall text in Chinese, and full sentences are acquired prior to different kinds of minor sentences.

Clause Types

Several specific clause types appear in the L2W literature I reviewed. They are relative clauses, time clauses, conditional clauses, and reporting clauses. Different target languages are represented in these articles on clause structures.

Wu & Lv (2016) studies Korean learners' acquisition of Chinese relative clauses by looking at the position of demonstrative-classifiers in Chinese relative clauses they produce. Their results are consistent with the Unified Competition Model. While students can effectively acquire the asymmetric distribution of Chinese quantifiers in relative clauses, they do demonstrate different patterns of positioning during different writing tasks.

The second type of clauses studied in the L2W articles I collected is the time clause. According to Chen (2004), Chinese and English time clauses are different in terms of distribution. In English, time clauses are flexible in position; they can be at the beginning of a sentence, in the middle, or at the end. However, in modern Chinese, time clauses often appear at the beginning of sentences. Therefore, when Chinese EFL students learn to write in English, they prefer to put time clauses at the beginning of sentences, which affects the coherence in their writing.

Li (2008) examines conditional clauses in legal English, especially the conjunctive words/phrases that often introduce conditional clauses in legal texts and how they can be properly translated into Chinese. The six conjunctives analyzed in the article are “if” “where” “when” “in case/in the event that” “should” and “provided that/providing that.” Both “if” and “where” are used to describe an event that usually happens, with “where” being more formal in style. Conditional clauses introduced by “should” can be treated as an if-clause with sentence-initial “should.” “When” is used when the conditional clause has an implication of time, and conditional clauses introduced by “in case” or “in the event that” indicate an event that is less likely to happen. “Provided that” and “providing that” have been used less and less frequently in legal texts and often indicate prerequisites.

The last type of clause that appears in the L2W key journal articles is reporting clause. Ju (2016) reports her comparison study on the subject features of reporting clauses in academic writing in English by Chinese graduate students, established Chinese scholars, and English-speaking scholars. Her results show that Chinese graduate students have the highest frequency of using reporting clauses, with a preference for non-human subjects. Chinese scholars, on the other hand, demonstrate the lowest frequency in reporting clause usage, with an even more obvious preference for non-human subjects. Ju (2016) argues that the differences in subject features of reporting clauses among the three writer groups result from cultural influences and reveal their identity construction process as academic writers.

Syntactic Complexity

Syntactic complexity draws great attention from L2W scholars in China. Both English and Chinese syntax are analyzed. Zhao & Chen (2012) examines the commonly used measuring indices in English syntactic complexity analysis, and their results show that t-units, dependent clauses, non-finite verbs, and connectors are all valid in measuring L2W’s syntactic complexity.

T-units, non-finite verbs, and connectors are able to predict L2 writers' development of syntactic complexity, and non-finite verbs have better statistical performance in measurement. Chinese syntax is also represented in the studies. Wu (2016) reports his empirical study on the measurement of syntactic complexity of English L1 learners' writing in Chinese and found three effective measurement indices, which are the number of topic chains, the number of topic chain clauses, and the number of empty categories. However, t-unit and the length of topic chains are not effective in measuring the syntactic complexity of Chinese writing by English speakers.

Most of these studies on syntactic complexity are comparative analyses of learners' performance with native speakers' writing, with the variety of learner population ranging from high school students to scholars publishing internationally. For example, Yang & Wang (2016) studied the differences in syntactic complexity of English argumentative essays by Chinese high school students and their British peers. Their results show that the length (word per T-unit and word per clause) and embeddedness (T/S, C/S, C/T, and DC/C) indices increase as Chinese learners' English writing proficiency develops. The length of t-units in native speakers' essays is greater than that in Chinese EFL learners' essays, and the essays by native speakers have more t-units per sentence, more clauses per sentence, and more clauses per t-unit than essays by Chinese learners.

Studies examining syntactic complexity in Chinese college students' writing in English adopt different perspectives. Xu et al. (2013) investigates the syntactic complexity of English argumentative essays by Chinese college students through a comparison with essays by native English speakers. Their results are similar to Yang & Wang (2016) in terms of the increase of the length and embeddedness indices along with students' English proficiency development. Compared with native speakers, Chinese students show a strong preference towards simple sentences. Bao (2009) investigates the changing patterns of syntactic complexity in the essays by Chinese EFL learners of different proficiency levels. A statistical analysis shows that while the length indices present a continuous increase along with students' proficiency development, the embeddedness indices peak at the intermediate level and drop as students' proficiency levels keep increasing. Compared with texts of native speakers, the length indices in learners' essays grow rapidly, and the density indices are underdeveloped, indicating unbalanced development in their syntactic complexity.

Another group of writers whose works are represented in the articles on syntactic complexity are Chinese scholars who publish in international journals in English. The Syntactic complexity of their articles is studied to investigate its relationship to text readability in academic writing (Xue. Wu, 2017). X. Wu's (2017) results show that syntactic complexity is an influential factor in text readability. In addition, the syntactic complexity of journal articles varies significantly across disciplines; articles in natural science are more readable than those in social science from the syntactical perspective.

Discourse Patterns

A great number of issues are discussed in articles on the discourse patterns demonstrated in L2W. Five major topics (in frequency order: coherence, citation in academic writing, titles, paragraph structures, and register variations) are synthesized below. In addition, some of the less popular topics include adversative relations in passages (e.g., Zheng, 2017), oral features in written composition (e.g., Wen et al., 2003), correspondence effects between introduction and conclusion in empirical articles (e.g., Zheng & Jing, 2017), cultural features of texts (e.g., Guo & Liu, 2005), code-switching (e.g., Chen et al., 2016), form-meaning tangling in L2 writing (e.g., Zheng & Chang, 2014), application of topic knowledge in writing (e.g., Qin & Bi, 2012b), etc..

Coherence

Although some researchers argue that the relationship between cohesion and coherence is very weak (e.g., Khalil, 1989), Chinese scholars often study cohesive devices in the context of developing coherence in L2 writing. Cohesion and coherence are the most frequently studied issues under the topic of discourse patterns in L2W written products. Two approaches to the improvement of coherence are present in the articles: the use of cohesive devices and internal semantic association.

Cohesion

Cohesion has been studied from two perspectives: the mechanism of cohesion and the features of cohesive devices in learners' L2W. In English, cohesion can be built in three ways. Lexically, the proper use of transitions can add coherence to writing and connect ideas.

Syntactically, parallel structure and rhetorical questions can join passages in an impressive way. Logically, ideas can be linked together through chronological order, spatial order, category order, cause and effect order, comparison and contrast, and mixed order. A good mastery of all three cohesive tools helps writers improve their English abilities, writing skills, and understanding and appreciation levels (Wang, 1991). Compared with the cohesion mechanism in scientific discourse in Chinese, English texts include significantly more referential reference and non-repetitive collocations (Yin & Hu, 2010). Apart from this, Chinese and English texts show similar features in developing cohesion. Both languages apply a good number of parallel and continuous thematic progression modes and prominently use noun references and repetitive collocations for non-structural cohesion.

A closer analysis of Chinese college students' writing in English reveals unique features and problems in cohesion and coherence. The problems identified in the articles include difficulty in using proper cohesive devices, especially conjunctions; overuse of evaluation, causing variance between text structure and generic structure; improper use of connectives between sentences, and weakness in logical reasoning and argumentation (Li, 2002; Xinran. Yang, 2008). Compared with English native speakers, Chinese EFL learners' writing is not lexically cohesive, possibly due to limited and unusual co-occurrence patterning (Chen & Pu, 2011) and English speakers' preference for temporality and Chinese speakers' preference for spatiality in their thinking (Yang & Wang, 2017). As for the local coherence characteristics of Chinese college students, Hong & Xu (2016) finds that third person pronouns and definite noun phrases are the two most used referring expressions for backward centers and that though students' local focus of attention continues through adjacent utterances in their writing, it often lasts no longer than three utterances.

Students' unique features of cohesion and coherence draw Chinese scholars' attention to the relationship between the use of cohesive devices and quality of L2W. Frequency distribution of both grammatical and lexical cohesive devices is higher in higher-rated writing, with lexical cohesion being the most contributive factor, followed by grammatical cohesion and anaphora (Song & Xia, 2002). Among the five means¹³ of lexical cohesion, synonyms, antonyms, and collocations are significantly correlated with the quality of writing (Xu, 2000). As for the development of L2W coherence in learners' written texts, Liang (2006) studies two major types

¹³ The five means of lexical cohesion, as suggested by Halliday & Hasan (1976) are repetitions, synonyms, antonyms, hypernyms, and collocations.

of coherence, local coherence and global coherence. Findings suggest that local coherence and global coherence in EFL writing develop at a similar pace. High-proficiency EFL writers' texts are globally more coherent, while low-proficiency EFL writers' texts are locally more coherent.

Thematic Progression

In addition to the use of cohesive devices, coherence can also be achieved through proper arrangement of semantic meanings. Thematic progression is a “perfect combination” of language form and writing content because information contained in theme builds the texts' macro structure and overall organization, and thematic progression achieves the texts' internal semantic cohesion and logical connection (Ma, 2001, p. 49). Patterns of thematic progression have been studied in L2W articles on coherence. Y. Zhang (2004) studies theme and rheme in Chinese college students' essays and finds that without specific training, students show a high percentage of mistakes in thematic structure and thematic progression. The lack of internal logical relationship between themes results in structural chaos and semantic obscuration.

Empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the thematic features in academic writing in English. For example, Liu (2016) develops a corpus-based study to examine the thematic structure of method sections in research articles written in English. Findings suggest that a simple theme formed by a noun or pronoun is used more frequently than multiple and other-characteristic themes and that salient disciplinary differences exist in the thematic structure in method sections of research articles.

Citation in Academic Writing

Citation is a salient feature in academic writing, which helps writers to situate their argument in disciplinary discourses while exhibiting the breadth of their scholarship on that topic (Xu, 2012b). Ma & Qin (2015) reviews findings from outside of China on the use of sources in academic writing between 1980s and 2010s. Since the 1980s, great progress has been made in the research on citation in L2 academic writing. Theoretically, the use of sources has been studied from cognitive, textual, and social perspectives. Empirically, cognitive process, textual features, and improper use of sources or plagiarism are the major issues investigated. Various aspects of citation practice in academic writing have been studied in the L2W articles I surveyed, including

both Chinese students' development of their academic citation competence and features in both native and non-native writers' citation practices.

Student writers' development of citation competence is studied from its ideational, interpersonal, and textual dimensions (F. Xu, 2016). By comparing the citation features in Chinese BA, MA, and PhD theses in applied linguistics, F. Xu (2016) reports that as students make progress in their study, the ideational aspect of citation keeps increasing, while the interpersonal aspect does not develop until students reach the doctoral level, and textual competence does not progress significantly. In addition, individual differences also exist in the developmental path of citation competence in academic writing by Chinese EFL students.

Features in Chinese EFL students' citation practice is the most common topic among articles on citation in academic writing, including the challenges they face, their citation strategies, and features of the way they cite. A review of studies on Chinese EFL/ESL writers' academic citation shows that the insufficient perception of academic citation and the improperness of their citing practice are the two major challenges faced by these L2 writers (Zhang, 2015). Cognitively, students struggle with balancing accountability and innovation, are unaware of the seriousness of plagiarism, and are puzzled by the formats of academic citation. In practice, students have difficulty choosing the most appropriate sources to cite, using proper reporting verbs of evaluative function and the strategy of questioning, and distinguishing the ways citations increase or decrease the original writers' authority.

Chinese students apply multiple textual borrowing strategies in their academic writing. Ma & Qin (2014b) reports five types of strategies in Chinese MA students' writing in English, which are summarizing, paraphrasing, copying, translating, and direct quotation. These strategies are used most often in the literature review section, followed by discussion, method, and result sections, and among all the strategies, copying is the most frequently used in literature review. Students' textual borrowing practice helps them with discourse organization and disciplinary authority. Through a longitudinal case study on the textual borrowing practice of a Chinese EFL writer, Sun & Wang (2015b) finds that the extent and form of textual borrowing change when students are given different writing tasks to fulfill, and as students develop their academic writing abilities, the borrowed chunks in their essays become smaller. Students' citing practices are mainly influenced by their citing awareness and disciplinary knowledge, with uneven development over time (Sun, 2016). Higher level students perform better at citing with various sources and clear academic

orientations. However, their use of citations is mainly for meeting their dissertation requirement to graduate, with little interest in identity construction in the discourse community (J. Wang et al., 2017). Moreover, citation features of L2 academic writing can predict writing quality. After studying the citation features in Chinese MA theses, Ma & Qin (2014a) presents that citation density, the frequency of integral, and the frequency of non-integral citations all correlate positively with L2 writing quality. As for function, citations for association and comparison appear significantly more frequently in the theses with higher grades. All these articles suggest that specific training is needed for Chinese EFL students to master citation practice in academic writing.

In addition, citation behaviors in empirical research articles published in prestigious international journals of applied linguistics have also been studied (Xu, 2012b), and results show that English empirical research articles present explicit features regarding the content, strategy, and textual realization of citation practice. In terms of content, citations in literature review and results sections focus on explaining opinions, research findings, and research topics, and citations in methods section are mainly about introducing methods used in existing studies. The writing of research articles combines multiple citation strategies in different sections, including both macro-rhetorical and specific strategies. As to textual realizations, non-integral citation is the most common practice in research articles; verb-controlling is the most common in literature review, while naming is the most common in methods and results.

Titles

Titles in academic writing have been studied from multiple perspectives, including their lexical and syntactic features as well as functions. Although a title's purpose is to introduce the content of an article, its way of doing so varies with regard to degree, method, and effect. Li (2004) investigates the features and functions of titles in English academic articles and groups them into seven grammatical groups and two rhetorical categories. Grammatically, titles can be categorized as nominal titles, adverbial titles, sentential titles, titles with colons, titles with dashes, titles with parentheses, and titles with initial "And." Rhetorically, titles can be with or without rhetoric techniques; in other words, a title can be straightforward in plain language or use figure of rhetoric, e.g., hyperbole.

Jiang (2010) analyzes a specific type of title, the compound title. The debate over compound titles started in the 1980s when scholars presented opposing opinions on the use of

compound titles in academic journal articles. Although many writing instruction manuals do not suggest the use of compound titles, these titles are getting more and more popular in academic journal articles. Jiang (2010) argues that writers should familiarize themselves with title type preferences in their own discourse community and take into consideration both descriptive and prescriptive rules when coming up with titles.

Chinese EFL students demonstrate unique features in their use of titles in academic writing. They tend to use fixed expressions in their titles with little attention to disciplinary features of syntactic structures, and the lack of diversity limits the genre feature of English titles being informational, attractive, and concise (Liu & Xiang, 2016). Compared with their English-speaking peers, Chinese students produce titles that are dominated by nominal phrases, with little variation, indicating their restricted repertoire of recurrent word and word combinations (Jiang, 2013).

Paragraph Structure

Early studies on paragraph structure in English writing investigate the direct linear pattern of English paragraphs. Three types of linear patterns (simple pattern, compound pattern, and complex pattern) contribute to the development of English paragraphs, and the essential characteristic of the direct linear pattern of the English paragraph is the plane of generality (Zeng, 1994). Sentences within each paragraph follow specific vertical and parallel orders to convey their specific syntactic meaning to the topic sentence and to show unity and organization (K. Zhao, 2003).

Besides the studies on native speakers' preferences towards paragraph structure in English, Chinese scholars have also investigated features in Chinese learners' topic supporting and rhetoric features in paragraph development. D. Liu & Y. Chen (2015) investigates 220 paragraphs by Chinese college students and suggests that more paragraphs are supported directly than indirectly. Writing task also affects students' preference in paragraph structure; students show more rhetorical awareness and directness in paragraphs with given topics than in free writing.

Register Features

Development of register features in Chinese students' written products in English is addressed in the L2W articles. Wen (2009) reports the changes in register features by Chinese EFL

learners by comparing learners' production over time and also by comparing learners' production with English native speakers' production. Compared with native speakers, the features differentiating learners' oral and written registers are fewer, and Chinese EFL learners show a stronger written style in their oral production than an oral style in their written production. As their proficiency level increases, the register features in their oral/written production grow similar to those of their English-speaking peers.

Xiao (2013) conducted a similar study to examine the register features in Chinese college students' writing. A total of 28 oral/written register features are divided into six categories (Halliday, 1985). Features in the oral register include fragmentation, informality, implicitness, unplannedness, and involvement; features in written register are formality, explicitness, plannedness, detachment, and integration. Results show that explicitness markers are the most frequently used by Chinese students, followed by integration markers, involvement markers, fragmentation markers, and informality markers. Years of study is significantly correlated with students' use of integration, involvement, informality, and fragmentation markers, which demonstrate more use of the written register features as students make progress in their studies.

Error Analysis

Various errors in learners' writing have been identified and studied. These error analyses often compare learners' products with native speakers' writing and shed light on L2W instruction. Due to inter-language transfer, intra-language transfer, limits in vocabulary, and stereotypical thinking, the texts of L2 writers often display errors on the lexical, sentence, and text levels (Gui, 2004; X. Zhang, 2004). These errors result in the common problems in L2 written texts, such as pragmatic failure, mistakes in cohesion and coherence, poor use of grammatical rules in writing, inexperience in writing skills and methods, and the lack of rhetoric knowledge (Huang, 1996; Xin, 2001; Yu, 2014). The following sections synthesize L2 writers' common errors in lexical use and sentence structure.

Lexical Errors

Multiple lexical errors are studied in the L2W articles. Lexical errors are the most common errors in L2 writers' products, with spelling errors being the most in number, followed by

substitution errors (He, 2009). Jia & Qiao (2014) analyzes English major students' master's theses in China and identifies 14 types of language errors, among which nine are lexical errors. These nine lexical errors are article errors, preposition errors, wrong use of confusing words, subject-verb agreement, possessive errors, verb errors, wrong form of words, pronoun errors, and missing words.

Errors in Collocations

In the articles on lexical errors, errors in English collocations are the most commonly studied. Chen (2002) investigates essays by Chinese college students and finds that collocation errors result from the interaction among lack of motivation of some collocations themselves, misuse of synonyms, and negative transfer from L1. A specific type of collocation frequently misused by Chinese EFL learners is the verb-noun collocation, whose errors causes vagueness and ambiguity in expression leading to communication failure, and the major cause of errors in verb-noun collocations is negative transfer from L1 (Zhang & Li, 2004). R. Wang (2015) traces its underlying causes to the level of concepts, which is mis-mobilization of L1-based concepts in L2 production, misconstruction of shared concepts, and misconstruction of L2-based concepts. From the conceptual perspective, students' misuse of verb-noun collocations is mainly caused by interlingual errors, intralingual errors, and communicative strategy errors.

Errors in Nouns

Two major types of noun errors are identified in Chinese students' writing in English, which are errors due to inter-language transfer and errors due to intra-language influence (Luo, 2007). Noun errors due to inter-language transfer include 1) errors in singular and plural forms of regular nouns, 2) errors in singular and plural forms of irregular nouns, 3) errors in nouns with suffixes, and 4) errors in plural forms of compound nouns. Noun errors due to intra-language influence include 1) false analogy for the plural forms of regular nouns, 2) using singular forms for nouns that should take plural forms, 3) errors in meaning when a material noun or abstract noun is used in plural form, and 4) errors in nouns with irregular suffixes. The errors due to intra-language influence are often due to students' overgeneralization of newly learned grammatical rules.

Errors in Articles

Another type of lexical error is Chinese students' missing articles in English writing and its relationship with impairment of interlanguage syntax, which was studied under the theoretical framework of the Minimalist Program (Chang & Zhao, 2014). Findings suggest that Chinese EFL writers do leave out some articles in their writing, but they seldom make mistakes in article substitution, nor do they violate definiteness restriction in there-insertion. Their results indicate that Chinese EFL writers are able to distinguish definiteness from indefiniteness, with the feature of definiteness specified, and that their English interlanguage syntactic system is not impaired.

Errors in Pronouns

The last type of lexical errors in L2W articles I surveyed are Chinese EFL writers' errors in pronouns. Zhang (2018) analyzes written texts by Chinese EFL beginners and generalizes three major categories of pronoun errors in their writing. The most frequent error is confusion between personal pronouns and possessive pronouns, followed by confusion within personal pronouns, and confusion between personal pronouns and reflexive pronouns. These errors can be attributed to negative grammatical and conceptual transfer from students' L1.

Fossilizations

Lexical fossilization is present in Chinese students' writing in English. Chinese college students' writings demonstrate language fossilizations in various aspects, such as the lexical, grammatical, sentence, and discourse levels (Z. Liu, 2013). Lexical fossilization is one of the most common types. Wang & Zhang (2008) analyzes essays written by the same group of students at different times and finds that after two years of formal training in English, Chinese students' writing still demonstrates a high percentage of errors in collocations, spelling mistakes, and errors in verb tense. Z. Liu (2013) also identifies Chinese students' lexical fossilizations in errors of word choice, mix-up of parts of speech, and errors in collocations. These stabilized errors are mainly a result of students' lack of knowledge of interlanguage fossilization, inter- and intra- language transfer, false language input, and insufficient corrective feedback (Wang & Zhang, 2008).

Other Lexical Errors

Other English lexical errors studied in the L2W articles in China include inappropriate words, mix-up of parts of speech, and errors in anaphora. Chen (1985) enumerates 11 specific English words that are used inappropriately in newspaper articles in China and provides correction along with analysis of the correct usage. As to the mix-up of parts of speech, 12 types of such errors are identified in Chinese college students' writing in English (H. Cai, 2002). These errors include both mix-ups between two parts of speech (such as the mix-up between verbs and nouns, nouns and adjectives, adjectives and adverbs, and the use of verbs as adjectives and adverbs as nouns) and mix-ups within one part of speech (mix-ups within verbs, nouns, adjectives, and pronouns). These mix-ups possibly result from negative transfer from Chinese, separate storage of lexical information in the mental lexicon, and students' inappropriate practices in word memorization. Six types of errors in anaphora are commonly seen in Chinese students' writing in English (Han & Zhou, 2003). These errors are 1) noun anaphora mistaken for pronoun anaphora, 2) noun anaphora mistaken for zero anaphora, 3) pronoun anaphora mistaken for noun anaphora, 4) pronoun anaphora mistaken for zero anaphora, 5) zero anaphora mistaken for noun anaphora, and 6) zero anaphora mistaken for pronoun anaphora. Their results show that using anaphora improperly will cause a lack of writing clarity and make sentence structure loose and complicated.

L2W in Chinese is also addressed in the studies on lexical errors. Xing (2016) analyzes the errors in ellipsis by American college students learning Chinese as a foreign language. The ellipsis errors in essays by American university students are categorized into six groups, which are subject errors, verbal errors, object errors, de (的) errors (i.e., missing of connectives between modifier and noun), pre-/post-position errors, and classifier/definiteness errors. Most of these errors can be attributed to cross-linguistic interference and/or typological differences between Chinese and English.

Sentence Errors

Two types of sentence errors appear in the L2W articles I collected. Lin (2004) studies Chinese EFL learners' misuse of English subordinate clauses, and their errors are put into three categories: errors in the use of introductory connectives, errors in clausal structure, and errors in terms of the relation between the subordinate clause and the main clause. These errors result from

negative transfer from Chinese, intralingual transfer, and incomplete knowledge of grammatical rules governing subordinating clauses.

The other sentence error is the production of run-on sentences. Run-on sentences are commonly seen in English writing by Chinese EFL learners of different levels, and they are one of the most frequent errors in beginners' writing. Three major types of run-on sentences exist in Chinese students' writing in English, which are mix-ups in subject-verb structure, blurred sentence boundaries, and misuse of conjunctions (Zhang & Liu, 2014). These run-on sentences come from unconscious and negative transfer due to structural, grammatical, and conceptual differences between English and Chinese (Wang & Zhao, 2017; Zhang & Liu, 2014).

CHAPTER SEVEN: ARTICLES ON WRITING ASSESSMENT

Chinese scholars have reviewed studies on L2W assessment in both Chinese and foreign contexts from cognitive, textual, and socio-constructive perspectives (H. Gao, 2010; Qi, 2018). Writing is assessed for two major purposes: formatively, to provide educational feedback, and summatively, to evaluate the outcome. Both purposes are revealed in L2W journal articles in China. Two major issues discussed in the articles I reviewed on writing assessment are feedback and testing.

Feedback

Various types of feedback are explored and evaluated in these L2W articles, including teacher feedback, peer feedback, written corrective feedback, and automated writing evaluation. Cognitively, feedback demonstrates a dual influence on students. On one hand, feedback positively facilitates the cognitive development of writers; on the other hand, feedback may force a negative interruption of writers' information processing (Zhang et al., 2002). Therefore, the effectiveness of feedback is one of the core topics in articles on L2 feedback. Different types of feedback are compared to examine their effectiveness in improving students' L2 writing.

The most commonly compared feedback types are peer feedback and teacher feedback. EFL learners in China accept both peer and teacher feedback on their L2 writing. Studies on China's college students show that the focus of peer feedback differs from that of teacher feedback, and teachers' feedback tends to be more effective and more accepted by college non-English major students than peer feedback, with teachers' indirect feedback being the most accepted (Jin, 2016; Qi, 2004). Teacher feedback is helpful to enhance students' awareness of writing structure and improve the quality of their writing, while peer feedback, focusing more on the macro-level issues and involving more positive comments, is effective in helping students develop writing content, reduce anxiety, and increase interest in writing and learner autonomy (Xu & Liu, 2010; M. Yang, 2006; Zhou, 2013). The better a student's L2W skills are, the less he/she accepts peer feedback, and the more he/she accepts teacher feedback (Ji, 2010). From a sociocultural activity-theory perspective, the differences between teacher and peer feedback can be attributed to differences from the perspectives of feedback providers' agency, the diversity and dynamics of feedback

receivers, the role of mediating artifacts and rules, and the division of labor among the members in the community (Yu, 2013b).

Teacher Feedback

Conventionally, teachers are the providers of corrective feedback due to their proficiency in and knowledge about the L2 and its written form, and effective teacher feedback is beneficial for the improvement of L2 learners' writing abilities. Since the early 1980s, Chinese scholars have started to investigate different ways for teachers to provide effective feedback. In the literature, two types of teacher feedback, teacher oral feedback and teacher written feedback, are identified and studied.

Teacher Oral Feedback

When commenting on students' L2 essays, instructors can convey their feedback orally. Oral corrective feedback offers real-time interaction between students and teachers for communicating comments, and its effectiveness in improving the acquisition of grammatical forms in L2 writing has been studied. Zhang & Wang (2014) examines the effectiveness of teachers' oral corrective feedback in Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of English articles and prepositions. Their results show that different types of oral corrective feedback differ in their degree of effectiveness, with clarification request with metalinguistic feedback being more effective than two other types (direct correction and prompt plus direct correction).

Teacher Written Feedback

Early literature on teacher written feedback identifies the importance of feedback in writing instruction and brings feedback techniques of western instructors into Chinese classrooms. For example, Gao (1982) introduces two specific ways Fulbright scholars from the United States commented on English essays written by Chinese college students: first, they focus on commenting on students' writing technique and logic/organization in their writing; second, they use codes to suggest correction rather than making corrections for students. Teacher feedback studies in China share similar emphases with those studies from abroad, focusing on identifying the feedback characteristics, examining feedback effects, investigating students' reactions, and comparing

teacher and peer feedback (Guo & Qin, 2006). Although students express different attitudes towards different types of feedback, teacher written feedback is taken seriously in general and leads to improvement in their essays (B. Li, 2000; J. Li, 2011). According to B. Li (2000), EFL students prefer comments that are discussing, praising, or pointing to specific problems, and they do not like comments that give orders or criticize their work.

Some common characteristics of written feedback by Chinese teachers are identified in the literature. According to J. Wang (2006), most teacher written feedback from Chinese instructors to Chinese EFL writers corrects students' language forms, especially grammar issues in writing, and teachers' overall attitude towards students' essays is negative. In general, teachers prefer direct corrective feedback, and the majority of non-corrective feedback is on the ideas/content of the essay (J. Li, 2011). Another feature of teacher written feedback is the use of L1 in offering feedback. Because of teachers' own identities and beliefs, their L2 proficiency, working load, students' L2 proficiency, and the nature and goals of feedback, a good number of EFL teachers use Chinese to provide written feedback (Yu, 2013a). The third common practice in providing teacher written feedback is the use of symbols in error correction. He (1985) suggests the use of symbols for error correction in commenting on students' essays, and Wood (1994) promotes the use of symbols to encourage students make corrections based on comments and rewrite their essays by themselves.

Empirical studies have shown that teacher feedback improves language accuracy in EFL students' writing, with non-corrective feedback attracting students' attention to the content of their writing (Li, 2013). Different types of feedback may have various effects on revision. Questions with suggestions contribute to the most significant revision, while imperative sentences yield the least revision in students' essays (Wang & Sun, 2007). Feedback on the content may improve the overall quality of students' essays, but corrective feedback on language may result in students being less bold in language use (Zuo, 2002). Although recent studies encourage the use of multiple teacher-written-feedback types in commenting, empirical data do not suggest a significant increase in students' language accuracy with compound feedback. For example, Du & Ma (2013) compares the effects of compound feedback with indirect feedback and suggests that there is no significant difference between the compound and single feedback groups, with both groups of students making visible progress in their accurate use of the target language.

Written corrective feedback (WCF) is one frequently studied type of teacher written feedback by Chinese L2W scholars. In the field of L2W, WCF has been an area of heavy debate in the past decades, and the two major debates on WCF are 1) whether or not WCF is effective in L2W, and 2) whether implicit or explicit WCF promotes L2 writers' L2 acquisition. Xuejin. Li (2017) analyzes the ongoing debate over grammar correction and attributes it to inconsistency in standards regarding WCF effectiveness, lack of research on the awareness and behavior of WCF providers, and limited consideration of multiple variables in research.

Since 2005, Chinese scholars have explored the debates and made their own contributions with empirical data. S. Wang (2015) examines the necessity of WCF from learners' perspectives and reports that even for advanced adult ESL learners, they still rely on teachers' explicit guidance in grammar correction in writing. Zhu & Wang (2005) suggests that WCF performs a dual function of error correction and attention raising and impacts students' long-term language development.

The effectiveness of written corrective feedback, or error correction, has been the focus of discussion by Chinese L2W scholars WCF. Guo (2008) reviews WCF studies from abroad and concludes that the effectiveness of error correction is impacted by multiple factors. Studies on the effectiveness of WCF on Chinese students' learning to write in English show that WCF increases language accuracy. Teachers' WCF improves the overall quality and linguistic accuracy of students' L2 writing, with direct feedback being more effective than indirect feedback (Chen & Li, 2009). Hou (2015) analyzes the effectiveness of WCF on three types of errors (incomplete sentences, run-on sentences, and subject-verb inconsistency) and reports that although there is a delayed effect, teachers' corrective feedback increases the linguistic accuracy in students' L2W.

However, there are conflicting results regarding the effects of WCF on vocabulary and syntactic complexity. In Xuefeng. Wu (2017), neither direct nor indirect feedback increased lexical complexity significantly, but Jiang & Chen (2014) argues that both metalanguage and direct feedback can increase the explicit learning of English articles. Xuefeng. Wu (2017) states that L2W syntactic complexity, especially the length of T-units and clauses, is improved by teachers' WCF, but Li & Deng (2012) shows that teachers' WCF does not help improve the syntactic complexity of students' writing, regardless of the existence of WCF or the types of WCF students receive.

Peer Feedback

Peer feedback has become a heavily investigated topic in China, especially in the past 15 years. Various aspects of peer feedback have been studied, including its effectiveness, acceptance by students, grouping techniques, and different types of peer feedback. Research shows that after proper training, EFL students are capable and objective assessors and can master the techniques to provide feedback on language, content, and structure (Shao, 2009; Wang, 2004). For example, Chai & Xu (2014) conducted a 16-week peer review training course to improve students' responding ability and promotes mutual trust in peer response.

The two most common ways of providing peer feedback are face-to-face and online. Compared with face-to-face peer review, college students in China prefer online peer feedback for its advantages in enhancing stimulus and motivation and reducing anxiety and stress at the same time (Jiang, 2005). Specifically, social-network-based online peer feedback makes it possible for students to provide feedback bravely with an increased criticality level (Chen & Chen, 2013). Zhang, Di, & Schunn (2016) introduces Peerceptiv, a computer-assisted platform for students to provide and receive feedback from their peers. Such a system satisfies both students and teachers, providing students with a space to communicate and be authentic readers and reviewers and giving teachers opportunities to identify common mistakes and decrease their commenting loads.

Positive effects of peer feedback on both L2 writers' written pieces and their writing abilities have been illustrated with empirical data. In general, peer feedback is positively accepted by EFL students and increases students' participation in learning (Luo, 2016; Li. Zhang, 2008). Peer feedback helps students produce writing with better content, organization, and language (Liu & Yang, 2008; Shao, 2009), and it also helps writers develop their L2 writing abilities, for example, their L2 writing proficiency and construction competence (Deng & Cen, 2010). In their provision and receiving processes, students' autonomy in writing is significantly increased (Mo, 2007), along with sharpened reader awareness of writing and enhanced motivation for learning and mastering writing skills (Cai, 2011). Feedback from English-speaking peers also helps Chinese students pay attention to their revision process and enhances their writing construction competence (Xue, 2011).

On the contrary, however, different, even opposite, opinions of the effectiveness of peer feedback are also present in the literature. Bai (2013) argues that although theoretically feasible, peer feedback is practically difficult in L2W, especially with lower-level students. Despite certain

improvements in writing quality after receiving peer feedback, peer feedback often leads to surface rather than global changes in revised drafts; much feedback was provided, but little was accepted (Weng & Li, 2013). After analyzing two types of peer feedback (face-to-face and computer-mediated) with English-major sophomores, Zeng & Liang (2017) concludes that peer feedback only focuses on the local concerns, not global concerns regarding structure and content; students' trust of and attention to peer feedback are limited, and neither form of feedback has a significant influence on the improvement of students' revision and quality of writing.

In order to minimize the limits and optimize the effectiveness of peer feedback, various feedback strategies are proposed and discussed. Gong (2007) suggests that students comment first on content and second on structure, that they provide both negative and positive feedback to promote their peers' desire to write, and that they provide and obtain feedback from student writers both above and below their levels. To make peer feedback more effective, students should adopt various strategies to achieve both communicative and writing goals (Zhang & Cheng, 2018). Chinese EFL students often see peer feedback as a mediated and interactive activity and often employ external resources as a useful strategy in their L2 writing. Another factor that influences the success of peer feedback is grouping. G. Gao (2010) argues that grouping students with mixed levels yields the most effective peer feedback experience. Similar results are seen in Gao et al. (2018) where asymmetrical grouping resulted in the largest number of comments and led to significant draft improvement.

Another tool that successfully improves the effectiveness of peer feedback is computer technology. For example, a couple of recent studies discussed the use of Peerceptiv in providing and receiving peer feedback. Peerceptiv is a research-validated peer review/assessment tool, developed by scholars from University of Pittsburgh in the United States. It brings learning and writing together through computer technology and maximizes learning outcome by emphasizing the interaction among students' motivation to write, writing quality, feedback quality, and revision quality (Zhang et al., 2016). Gao et al. (2018) studies the use of Peerceptiv with Chinese college students and reports that the number of comments is positively correlated with students' draft improvement, and that students in the asymmetrical groups produce the largest number of comments, resulting in the most likely improvement in their writing.

Testing

The topic of testing in general has also attracted a significant amount of attention from L2W scholars in China. They have explored issues such as rating scale development (e.g., Wu et al., 2018), testing tasks (e.g., Xue, 2013), how testing facilitates learning (e.g., Wang et al., 2018), validity and reliability of certain tests (e.g., Qin & Bi, 2012a), and cultural aspects in testing (e.g., D. Liu, 2016).

Assessment Tools

Several specific assessment tools are explored in the literature, including automated essay scoring (e.g., Chen & Ge, 2008), portfolio assessment (e.g., Zhang & Wang, 2004), dynamic evaluation (e.g., Y. Zhang, 2008), teacher-student collaborative assessment (e.g., S. Sun, 2017), self-assessment (e.g., Liu, 2002), and formative evaluation (e.g., X. Wang, 2016).

Automated Essay Scoring (AES)

One of the most popular innovative assessment tools is automated writing evaluation. Since 1966, when the first intelligent writing evaluation system, Project Essay Grader (Page & Petersen, 1995), appeared, various automated essay scoring systems have been developed to facilitate the evaluation of written essays. The design and application of AES in native speakers' essays differ from those in non-native speakers' essays. An early endeavor of AES research in the EFL/ESL context is the study of Electronic Essay Rater (E-Rater). E-Rater is suggested to be consistent with human raters in scoring English essays written by non-English-speaking test takers of TOEFL, but it does not satisfy the pedagogical needs of EFL learners in evaluating the syntax of lower-level students (Ge & Chen, 2007a). Multiple articles have synthesized recent studies on AES in the ESL context. For example, Ge & Chen (2007b) introduces six major AES systems (PEG, IEA, E-Rater, IntelliMetric, Larkey, and BETSY) and suggests that local research be needed to develop AES systems that are suitable in the EFL context. Similar suggestions are also made in Tang & Wu (2011) to remind product developers of the importance of local users' (instructors and students) needs and expectations. One particular area of potential needs in developing AES systems in China is to help improve the accuracy and efficiency of local classroom assessment where one instructor has to grade a large number of essays in a very limited time due to large class size (Chen & Ge,

2008). The urgency to design and develop multiple AES models has been discussed and written about by Chinese L2W scholars.

The key in such AES development is to select machine-usable and highly reliable features for scoring. Models to evaluate lexical, grammatical, and discoursal performance have been explored by various scholars. Lexical distribution is one of the basic features in AES design. In order to identify proper scaling of lexical distribution, Li & Ge (2008) analyzes widely available wordlists and suggests that no existing wordlist poses the validity needed for AES in college English writing assessment in China and that an adaptation is needed to achieve the desire validity. In addition, the automatic identification of lexical errors in writing (Ge, 2010), machine analysis of grammar (He & Wang, 2012), and discourse coherence (Liu, 2017) are also studied by L2W scholars in China. For example, Liu (2017) develops an automatic evaluation model for Chinese EFL students' written text coherence based on the analysis of textual features related to textual coherence in students' writing. The scores on text coherence of the program are highly consistent with those given by human raters.

In recent years, the focus of AES studies has shifted from testing (design of the system) to pedagogy, including topics on students' attitude towards AES in teaching and the impact of AES on writing instruction. An early endeavor to explore the influence of AES on teaching is Wu & Tang (2012), which explores the effectiveness of integrated AES in English writing instruction, and their experiment shows that the integration of AES helps teachers change the way they teach and alter their focus/attention from language forms to content and from students' written products to their writing processes. Recent literature investigates students' acceptance of AES. For example, Li & Ni (2017) conducted a factor analysis on the acceptance of AES by non-English major college students in China and found that their perceived ease of use, their perceived usefulness, and their perceived uniqueness are the determinant factors of their behavioral intention.

Portfolio Assessment

Another assessment tool that has drawn attention is portfolio assessment. Several articles have investigated different aspects of portfolio assessment, including its effectiveness, the interaction among teacher, peer, and self-evaluation in portfolio assessment, and the introduction of a new type of portfolio, the E-portfolio.

Zhang & Wang (2004) introduces a new type of portfolio assessment, the implementation of the E-portfolio. This IT-supported writing assessment tool is not a simple combination of technology and its paper-based version. Rather, it is the assessment that utilizes the great potential of information technology to provide evaluation on the depth and breadth of knowledge that students gained after instruction and to track their learning progress. In addition, E-portfolio encourages students' involvement in the assessment process, including both peer and self-evaluation in a timely manner.

The analysis of portfolio assessment's effectiveness goes beyond how it improves students' L2 writing abilities, and to its impact on cultivating students' critical thinking skills. The application of portfolio, compared with traditional product-oriented assessment tools, puts students in the center to encourage their initiative taking and enables them to analyze and evaluate different viewpoints in the writing process. In addition, empirical data from Zheng (2011) shows that effective integration of portfolio assessment in EFL classrooms is promising for the improvement of students' motivation to write and is welcomed by both students and instructors.

Another aspect of portfolio assessment that has been empirically studied is the influence of teacher, peer, and self-assessment in a portfolio. H. Wang (2011) explores the use of portfolios in writing assessment of college freshmen in their English classes and finds that when portfolio assessment is administered, teacher evaluation accompanied by self-evaluation and peer evaluation is effective in enhancing students' L2 writing skills, especially in their selection of topic, wording and grammar, and formatting. Peer assessment, in particular, is helpful to improve students' abilities in grammar and formatting.

Standardized Tests

One specific type of test that attracts a lot of researchers' attention is standardized testing. In the EFL context in China, such high stakes standardized tests include the Test for English Majors (TEM) (e.g., Zou & Chen, 2010), the College English Test (CET) (e.g., Gu & Yang, 2009), the College Entrance Exam (e.g., X. Zhang et al., 2010). Discussion of these tests started in the early 1990s, shortly after the first implementation of the College English Test.

College English Test (CET)

China's College English Test Band Four (CET-4) and Six (CET-6) have been sponsored by the Ministry of Education and implemented by the Examination Center of the Ministry of Education since 1987 in order to examine the English ability of college students in China. The first CET-4 test was administered in September 1987 and the first CET-6 test in January 1989, and writing has been an element of these tests since the very beginning. L2W research on CET has two major themes: the analysis of previous tests and evaluation of scoring.

Both longitudinal analyses of multiple tests and detailed examinations of one test are seen in the literature. Yu (1992) examines the writing items in CET-4 in the first five years (1987-1992). A variety types of writing items are identified, including writing to the topic, writing to the picture, writing to the title and paragraph outline, and writing to the title and starting sentences. A similar diachronic test analysis is Gu & Yang (2009), which examines the content and design of CET writing items in the previous two decades (1989-2008). Their findings suggest that over the past twenty years, the genre of the items was diversified, with richer topics and appropriate openness and authenticity. However, the prompt was limited to the format of topic-outline, with topics restricted to campus activities and daily life. Different from Yu (1992) and Gu & Yang (2009), Jian & Lu (2005) focuses on analyzing one specific test, the writing section of CET-4 in June 2004. The detailed analysis shows an inadequacy relating to title-content consistency (with unclear requirements), expertise (favoring certain majors), and test item integration between different sections (with items in the other section providing hints/sources for the writing section). This inadequacy results in the low reliability of the test. For example, the topic of the writing section requires a brief introduction to a tourist attraction, but in the same test, the comprehensive dictation section is about the Library of Congress in the United States. Therefore, a number of students could have exploited this flaw in test item integration and plagiarized from the dictation section to complete their writing section. Such detailed critical analyses sound the alarm for future test developers and educators to develop writing tests of high reliability and credibility to facilitate learning and students' growth.

The scoring rubric is another major topic discussed on CET tests. In its history, CET has experienced several changes regarding test design and scoring. Before 1999, the writing items for CET-4 and CET-6 were different with different scoring rubrics; in 1999, a change was made such that both CET-4 and CET-6 began to use the exact same items for their writing sections. Jian &

Lu (2000) evaluates such changes from students' and instructors' perspectives and concludes that both students and teachers demonstrate a negative attitude towards these changes and that these changes might trigger negative washback effects.

Other scholarship on CET writing demonstrates its negative influence on Chinese students' learning of English composition. Early in 2000, CET criteria had no specific requirement for the content of the essay, and in language, the only requirement was on accuracy (J. Cai, 2002). The minimum word limit of 100 for CET-4 and 120 for CET-6 unintendedly shifts students' attention from fully expressing themselves in the essays to writing a small number of accurate words to fulfill the task and get a high grade. The low standards of CET writing sections result in teachers' and students' focus on producing correct language forms rather than expressing meaning in EFL writing instruction. To limit the negative washback effects, Fei & Zhao (2008) suggests that analytical rubrics, instead of holistic scoring, should be used for CET writing sections, and that the word limit should be increased to 200-300 words along with requirements for content and structure in addition to language use.

Test for English Majors (TEM)

Tests for English Majors (TEM-4 and TEM-8) started in 1991 and are only open to English major undergraduate students in China. TEM-4 is often taken by English major undergraduates in their sophomore year, and TEM-8 is usually taken in the last semester of their senior year. Writing has been a component of both TEM-4 and TEM-8 since the very beginning. In the earliest article on TEM, Zou (1999) introduces the writing item in TEM-8. According to Zou (1999), the purpose of having a writing item in TEM-8 tests is to increase the validity of TEM as a formative assessment tool, emphasizing the importance of writing instruction in English classrooms in China. Several articles target the design and administration of TEMs from different perspectives.

Studies have been conducted to identify the construct of EFL writing ability of Chinese English major undergraduate students to design high validity TEM tests. Ideally, test takers' textual characteristics should include content expression, accuracy, diversity, organization, spelling and punctuation, innovation, fluency, and appropriateness, and in the actual scoring process, scoring decisions are made based on textual features, including language accuracy, content relevance, layers of organization, completeness of content, coherence and cohesion, word count, language diversity, clearness of points, appropriateness of language, spelling, innovative

content, and task completion (Sun, 2013). Similar results are found in Li & Kong (2010) that components of the EFL writing ability construct involves idea content, text organization, accuracy, richness and appropriateness of language, and writing norms.

Another major topic is the examination of past TEMs' reliability and validity. In order to evaluate the theory-based validity of TEM-8, Xiu (2008) develops a questionnaire and uses relevant statistical procedures to explore the extent to which the TEM-8 writing item is valid with TEM-8 test-takers from various universities. The results show that the essay test in TEM-8 can be generally regarded as a valid test, reflecting ability in writing through a series of procedures. In addition, the scoring validity of TEM tests has also been analyzed. Zou & Chen (2010) suggests the adoption of computer-assisted scoring to improve scoring validity of TEM-4, and with the assistance of computers, the accuracy and fairness of human scoring is improved. Various additional methods are suggested to ensure that the writing items in TEM-8 are valid for assessing EFL students' writing ability. Test designers are expected to clarify the purpose of the task, encourage students to develop their own ideas, point out the rhetorical framework, choose effective topic categories, and clarify task requirements (Zou, 1999). Pre-scoring training is also beneficial in increasing the scoring consistency of the TEM writing test. According to Zou & Yang (2002), although inexperienced and experienced raters for TEM-4 writing items focus on different areas in scoring, the overall consistency can be guaranteed after proper training.

Students' performance in TEM writing tests has also been studied. For example, Liu & Zhang (2004) analyzes the topic exploring processes in students' completion of a TEM-8 writing task and identifies three common problems, which are inadequate attention to a certain part of the topic, miscomprehension of the title, and deviation or departure from the given prompt. They also suggest ways to solve these problems, such as encouraging students to be more careful in their studies, providing more rigorous training in argumentative and expository writing, and helping them improve their reading comprehension abilities.

Admission Exams

English writing is also an indispensable item in many of the national admission exams in China. For example, in both the national college entrance exam and national graduate school admission exams, English writing has been an important section. Wu & Qi (2001) analyzes the design of writing items in the national graduate school admission tests between 1997 and 2000,

identifies the problems in test design (for example, biased theme beneficial to specific students who are familiar with the topic area), and suggests solutions (such as diversifying task types, choosing popular themes that are close to students' lives, and clarifying task requirements). Zhang et al. (2010) uses the national college exam as an example in studying the validity of large-scale reading-to-writing test items. The task requires test takers to read a 200-word English essay, summarize it in 30 words in English, and write a response essay of around 120 words in English based on a Chinese prompt. The results show that this writing task is valid for distinguishing among test takers of various reading-to-writing abilities and that score variance is largely attributed to the construct. However, it is suggested that rater training and rating rubric improvement are needed to increase the consistency in cross-rater behavior.

Formative Assessment

Different from standardized tests, which are functionally summative to provide information on students' performance for decision-making and/or placement purposes, formative assessment in L2W is locally administered with the purpose of improving individual students' writing abilities and helping teachers adjust instruction according to students' needs. The loop of formative assessment examines the entire process of students' identifying tasks, setting goals, determining learning strategies, self-monitoring their learning process, and reflecting and adjusting their learning (X. Wang, 2011). Empirical studies have shown its effectiveness in the enhancement of learning and teaching L2W.

Li. Zhang (2017) analyzes data from questionnaires, classroom observation, interviews, and a portfolio developed in the assessment, and the results show that through the implementation of formative assessment, 1) instructors improve the course design and adjusted the teaching plan and process, 2) students show higher acceptance formative evaluation than summative evaluation, 3) there are significant differences in the general score and the analytic scores for structure, language and academic norms but not in those for content and format, and 4) significant differences exist in both general and analytic scores of the five aspects for the first and second drafts and the final research paper. Similar results are seen in X. Wang (2016), where the effective use of self-monitoring of formative assessment helps improve students' English writing proficiency. In addition, formative assessment has a positive influence on L2 learners' writing autonomy. Through a ten-week experimental project, Cao et al. (2004) shows that formative assessment not only

provides a scientific achievement assessment system but also effectively monitors and supports the implementation of every stage of writing in the classroom, along with successful cultivation of learner autonomy in the control over their writing process.

In addition to its effectiveness, formative assessment also attracts research on its criteria. Tai & Liu (2017) constructs formative assessment criteria for English writing ability, with a questionnaire survey with 60 micro-English writing ability traits as its content. The identified criteria include three first-tier ability constructs and eight second-tier ability constructs. Among the three first-tier construct, writers' textual conception ability explains textual generation ability in a significant way, and these two abilities constitute the key factors of writing ability; individual mechanism level does not explain the two abilities markedly, thus constituting a minor factor.

Rating and Raters

The last major topic in the category of L2 writing assessment is rating and raters, which addresses issues related to rubrics, raters, and rating activity. This section presents how each issue is investigated by L2W scholars in China.

Rubrics and Scales

L2W scholars in China have compared different types of rubrics and their influences on rating reliability in L2W rating. H. Li (2015b) analyzes holistic and analytic scales in rating EFL essays and finds that analytic scales are more reliable in rating EFL essays. The multi-facet Rasch model shows that an analytic scale draws finer distinctions among essays, smaller rater variations, and comparatively clearer distinction between score segments. Similar results can be found in Yao et al. (2008) where the analytic scoring of English essays of Chinese college students is more reliable than holistic scoring, which suggests the use of analytical scoring in classroom instruction to ensure high reliability of the locally administrated assessment.

China's L2W researchers' exploration of different L2W rubrics did not stop at deciding which existing scale is more reliable but continued to design a comprehensive rating scale model for tests of English writing in the local EFL context. After reviewing and analyzing various rating scales both in and outside China, Wu et al. (2018) develops a rating model that consists of two components, one for integrative writing tasks, and the other for independent writing tasks. A multi-

facet Rasch model shows good discrimination power and validity but biased interactions between raters and rating dimensions. With modifications, the rating model has good potential to be used in a broader EFL context. Another endeavor to design a new rating method is Liu et al. (2013), which adopts the hierarchical decision-tree approach to assessing content quality in L2 writing assessment. Compared with the traditional holistic scoring approach, this new approach could significantly differentiate students at three proficiency levels with relatively higher inter-rater reliability and test-retest reliability.

Other empirical studies in this category on L2W rubrics have explored one particular rubric, the writing component of China's Standards of English (CSE). CSE was developed as China's State Council's endeavor to establish an assessment system in September 2014, and at the beginning of 2018, China's Ministry of Education and the State Language Commission jointly issued China's first evaluation scale for English language ability, i.e., China's Standards of English (NEEA, 2014). The CSE writing scales play a key role in developing writing tests, compiling writing course books, and designing writing activities in class for practitioners in China. Writing ability development, as a complex process and an organic continuum, can be reflected in various ways across different proficiency level descriptors in the writing scales of the CSE (Pan, 2018). The development of the writing scales of CSE, especially the description of various aspects in assessing learners' English writing abilities, has been studied and published in multiple articles.

Pan (2018) introduces the development of the CSE writing scale from the perspectives of writing task difficulty and writing contexts/domains. In order to describe writing task difficulty levels, the scale reflects the non-linear and recurring upward trend of language development, with a careful consideration of the current status of English education in China and various starting points of different dimensions of English writing abilities. In terms of varieties in writing contexts/scenes, the scale presents transitions in contexts of writing from school to society/career, academic research, and literary works, reflecting the changes in students' purposes and motivations in L2W development. In addition, the variety of writing tasks also indicates the progressive improvement of writing abilities and the relationship of communicative function to writing development.

Two studies specifically examined how descriptors in the CSE writing scale were developed. Pan (2017) explores the procedures of compiling descriptors for writing activities in constructing the writing scale of the CSE and presents two exemplary writing activities, which are

mail writing and creative writing. The selection of exemplary writing activities followed a three-step procedure: First, the performance description is extracted from the descriptive corpus¹⁴ of CSE writing scale; second, the extracted performance is classified by different activities; and third, descriptions of various quality levels of texts and contexts are added to demonstrate the specific characteristics of writing activities by learners/users of different writing level abilities. Another set of descriptors presented in the literature are writing strategy descriptors. Deng & Deng (2017) provides a theoretical foundation and practical guidelines for constructing the writing strategy descriptors of the CSE writing scale. They identify a cognitive model to describe three main procedures in EFL writing, which are planning, formulation, and revision, and a writing strategy framework was established based on strategies typical of each procedure. The descriptors are compiled with a top-down approach from existing literature and revised with self-developed descriptors based on the framework. Every descriptor is carefully examined and edited before it is included in the descriptor pool for CSE writing scale.

Raters

Multiple aspects of writing raters are discussed in the L2W literature in China, from a comparison between native and non-native raters to raters' cognitive performance and rater training. Lin & Xiao (2018) explores the differences in scoring reliability and rater behavior between native Chinese speaking (NCS) raters and native English speaking (NES) raters in their holistic scoring of EFL essays written by Chinese college students. Their results show that, in general, the scoring quality of both groups of raters is the same in terms of central tendency and that the scoring quality of NCS raters is higher than that of NES raters in terms of reliability coefficient, rater consistency, grasp of rating scale, and rater-examinee interaction. Specifically, although both groups of raters are slightly biased towards writers with the highest ability, NES raters are generally more severely biased than NCS raters.

In addition, raters' social psychological considerations in the essay rating process are studied (J. Chen, 2016). The analysis through raters' think-aloud protocols during rating and their rating reports with follow-up interviews show that the performance of raters in high-stake exams

¹⁴ The descriptive corpus of the CSE writing scale is compiled in two ways, a top-down approach, examining existing writing scales both in China and abroad in similar contexts, and a bottom-up approach, collecting writing ability descriptors from language learners, users, and instructors (Pan, 2017).

(e.g., TEM-8) is influenced by six social psychological factors, which are institutional awareness, knowledge of the rating system, the physical condition of and their feelings about the rating environment, knowledge of the test, test takers' expectations, and ethical judgement. These factors are related to raters' institutional and/or personal backgrounds, thus possibly affecting the validity of their scoring. Therefore, rater training becomes very important in maintaining a high validity of the tests.

Lu (2010) investigates the effectiveness of rater training in the TEM-4 scoring process. The empirical study compares raters' scores pre- and post-training sessions of TEM-4 essays in 2009 and reports that the training session helps to reduce raters' overall severity, increase their self-consistency, and decrease rater bias towards scoring items. Therefore, both initial and on-going training is essential to help maintain high reliability and validity in L2W assessment.

CHAPTER EIGHT: ARTICLES ON WRITER DEVELOPMENT AND WRITING PROCESS

The development of L2 writers and their writing processes have attracted significant attention from L2W scholars in China. Specific topics include various aspects regarding the challenges L2 writers face, the psychological and social variables in their development as L2 writers, their developmental path, and the strategies they apply to facilitate development. In addition, a good number of articles explore the composing procedures from brainstorming to revision and editing as well as the many specific tasks involved in their composing processes. These articles provide both a longitudinal examination of how individual writers make improvements over time and how they develop through multiple L2 writing tasks and procedures.

Difficulties and Challenges in L2 Writers' Performances

L2W writers face some unique difficulties and challenges in their development. Articles on these topics discuss the common problems in Chinese students' English writing, the reasons behind these problems, and the major challenges they encounter. For example, Zhang (2012) identifies the reading and writing crisis of English major college students in China. This crisis results from the blurry focus in foreign language education and the misconception of reading and writing's roles in training skilled English users. Such a crisis is reflected in Chinese students' performance of writing in English both in and outside China. Teng (1993) evaluates English writing abilities of Chinese students at a U.S. college and finds that these students struggle with writing in English in general. Particularly, they lack brainstorming in their writing process, with an exclusive focus on grammar correctness, not the consistency of ideas/expressions in their written products. In addition, L1 translation is a heavily used strategy in their L2W, and they take editing as revising in their composing process. Similar struggles are also found in Wu (2000), which analyzes the common problems Chinese students have in their English writing. These problems include a lack of vocabulary variety, unclear grammatical concepts in use, negative transfer from Chinese in vocabulary, structure, thinking pattern, and collocations, and incoherence and disorganization. Therefore, Wu (2000) suggests that a flexible pedagogy with multiple tools emphasizing the training of thinking should be needed in China's English writing instruction.

One population that attracts significant attention in these articles is college students, both English and non-English majors. Through a survey, Wang & Yu (2008) identifies some college English majors' self-perceived difficulties in their writing in English, which include struggles in content, structure, and language. These surveyed students struggle the most in vocabulary and the depth and innovativeness of ideas. As they make improvements over the years, these students feel they struggle less in language and more in content. Cai (2017) finds some unique problems in conference papers written by non-English major undergraduate students regarding their rhetorical structure, moves, and citation practice. The products of these novice L2 writers show signs of unsuccessful integration of previous studies into their literature review, lack of explanations for their findings in the discussion section, noticeable language issues (for example, frequent use of informal and colloquial English), and issues with coherence and logic in organizing data and ideas.

Scholars not only identify the problems of and difficulties in Chinese students' writing in English, but also trace the reasons behind these struggles. For example, Zhang (1998) analyzes how writing lags behind the other language skills in Chinese college students' learning of English and finds four major factors that negatively influence students' mastery of writing in English. The factors are the backwash effects of standardized tests, differences in thinking patterns between the East and the West, classroom instruction focusing on grammar and reading, and learners not applying effective cognitive strategies in writing. In addition, Zhang (2002) specifically tackles the reasons behind and ways to deal with avoidance in L2 writing. According to Zhang (2002), students both intentionally and unintentionally avoid structures that are not familiar to them in their L2 writing, and teachers focus on form correctness in grading essays, which inevitably encourages students' avoidance. Therefore, teachers should pay extra attention in assessing students' writing abilities with multiple types of tests items and intentionally provide revision suggestions related to newly learned language.

Writing Process

The process of L2 writing generally consists of brainstorming, drafting/composing, revising, and editing. In recent years, new technology has brought new insights to how this process is studied. The use of keyboard recording makes it possible to record and analyze writing process in real time. For example, L. Wang (2016) develops a program, combining keyboard recording and eye tracking, to analyze writing in both alphabetic languages (e.g., English) and logographic

languages (e.g., Chinese). It provides a tool for L2W researchers to effectively capture the process of L2 writers' composing experiences. Articles in this category not only examine the specific procedures involved in the writing process but also evaluate how different tasks influence the production of writing.

Procedures

The procedures of L2 writing are not static. Writing loses its completeness and creativeness if viewed as recording ideas in a mechanical way with a focus on form, not a way of exploring meaning. L. Zhang (1993) analyzes the works of Zamel from 1987, which explored L2 writers' writing process to study the similarities and differences between native and non-native English speakers' writing in English. According to L. Zhang (1993), the writing experiences of native and non-native speakers are more similar than different; therefore, the focus on L2W should be switched from product to process with an emphasis on the important connection between writing and expression of ideas and thoughts.

Scholars also analyzed the interaction of L1 and L2 in the writing process. L2 writing is regarded as a bilingual event, where both L1 and L2 take part in the thinking and composing process (Wang & Wen, 2002), and as writers' L2 abilities develop, their tendency to involve L1 thinking in L2W decreases. Similar results are seen in Sun & Zhao (2008), where a think-aloud study on four Chinese English language learners' writing processes in both English and Chinese shows that the differences in their writing processes between L1 and L2 result mainly from writers' L2 ability levels.

In the recent two decades, China's L2W scholars have become interested in L2 writers' cognitive process in developing as writers. S. Zhang (2006) acknowledges the implicit cognitive process behind the explicit process of pre-writing, drafting, and revising. According to S. Zhang (2006), in the implicit process, L2 writers' meaning expression develops from writer-based to reader-based text in an interactive manner. In this process, writers are expected to organize information according to their reader's assumed cognitive status and to enable readers to receive the information with minimum effort (Gao & Miao, 2012). In addition, L2 writers' cognitive development process correlates with their writing performance. Xiu & Xiao (2004) spots six cognitive procedures in L2 learners' writing process and investigate the relationship between these procedures and students' writing performance. Their mix-method study shows that in these six

procedures (identification of the goal, adjustment of topic and genre, development of ideas, organization of ideas, expression, and final check), there are significant differences in idea organization and expression among high-grade, mid-grades, and low-grade groups.

Pre-writing

Besides analysis on the overall process of writing, studies have also been conducted to examine the specific steps in the writing process. In the recent decade, a good number of articles have investigated the process before actual drafting. Three issues that are tackled in these articles are choice of topic, an understanding of outlining, and planning.

Lin (2007) argues against the current practice of having students decide on the topic of their graduate theses in China. Every English major undergraduate student is required to complete a thesis in order to earn his/her bachelor's degree in China, and the current common practice is to assign students to thesis advisors first and then have students decide on their own topics under the supervision of their advisors. However, due to students' lack of expertise in academic writing and research as well as advisors' unfamiliarity with the student-chosen topic, this practice often leads to advisors' exhaustion and students' frustration. Therefore, Lin (2007) suggests that advisors should be in charge of proposing thesis titles and that students form discussion/writing groups to help each other in the writing process. This shift from students-led to advisor-led topic decision helps students and advisors produce more focused mentoring/tutoring sessions and good-quality graduate theses.

Besides topic decision, another obstacle faced by Chinese students in their writing in English is their lack of correct understanding of outlining. Yang (2006) explores graduate students' perception on outlines and finds that most students do not know what an outline is, and when they write in English, they often drift away from the outline onto content that is not related to the given topic. Explicit instruction on the definition and function of an outline is needed to help graduate students complete their L2W according to the given outline.

Another area that draws much attention is the planning phase in writing. Multiple articles discuss the importance of planning and how it significantly correlates with the quality of L2 writing. Empirical research has shown that pre-writing planning significantly improves the fluency of L2 writers' performance, with online planning tasks being helpful to improve lexical complexity, especially for high-proficiency L2 writers (Wang & Pu, 2016). The time spent on planning also

affects learners' EFL writing performance. According to Zhang et al. (2010), the effects of planning time on writing quality vary depending on the length of time given. In general, the effects of planning time on fluency, complexity, and accuracy do not become evident until 6 minutes are given for planning, with lexical variety increasing significantly only when 10 minutes are given for planning. In addition, a decrease in clausal errors becomes evident when 3 minutes are given.

One specific planning task that has been explored in the literature is concept mapping. Gong & Shi (2014) investigates the effects of concept mapping on college L2 writing in a computer-assisted learning environment. Their study shows that concept mapping significantly facilitates L2 writing in terms of overall quality, article length, content organization, and vocabulary diversity.

In the pre-writing stage, one main purpose of many activities is to stimulate writers' motivation (e.g., Liu, 2004). L2 writers benefit from these pre-writing activities, such as deciding on topic, initiating research on topic, oral presentation or discussion of topic. By improving their collaborative skills, research skills, and presentation skills, these activities increase their interest in and motivation for writing. When they start the actual drafting process, they are more willing to express themselves and have more things to put in the writing in a more organized way than they do without proper planning.

Composing/Drafting

A couple of articles analyzed the actual composing/drafting process of L2 writers. For example, Xu & Ding (2010) examines Chinese college students' experiences of converting thoughts into lexical units in their English writing and identifies some common problems they encounter in lexical retrieval and form integration. These students struggle in avoiding redundancy, using the correct forms and spellings, and retrieving the accurate and complete lexical units to express their thoughts.

In 2011, C. Xu (2011) introduces the combination of Inpulog and screen recorder, Camtasia, to study pauses in L2 writers' composing process. Using this new tool, scholars can record and analyze the composing process in a timely manner without interfering with writers' actual composing processes. More detailed and individualized case study is made possible. In her analysis of two Chinese college writers' English writing process, C. Xu (2011) has found that the lower-level writer has more pauses than the higher-level writer, but the lower-level writer's pauses are

shorter than those of the higher-level writer. The locations of these pauses show that these two writers struggle the most in lexicon and language. Studies as such provide an important piece in completing the L2 writer profile.

Revising and Editing

The process after the actual composing/drafting also draws attention from China's L2W scholars. Such articles focus on the phase of revising, with a focus on L2 writer's revising strategies and activities. Various revision strategies are identified, and their effectiveness is evaluated with empirical data.

Identifying errors is the first step in revision and editing. Lixin. Zhang (2008) suggests that a combination of online corpus and group discussion helps L2 writers identify and correct their errors in form, lexicon, phrase, and syntax. In addition, the online collaboration promotes L2 learners' motivation to write, reduces their anxiety, and helps develop a supportive learning community. In recent years, the use of computer-assisted revision tools has attracted a lot of attention from L2W scholars. In 2016, L. Lu published a case study on how an automated essay evaluation tool (Pigai Network, a.k.a. “批改网” in Chinese) affects Chinese college students' revision behaviors. In general, students demonstrate a positive attitude towards the corrective feedback Pigai Network generates, and multiple factors influences students' revision behaviors. Such factors include their perceptions of Pigai Network, the goals of revision, the nature of tasks, teaching requirements, and evaluation mechanisms. A similar study (Hu, 2015) on computer-assisted revision shows that such self-correction significantly increases the quality of L2 writing in terms of length of writing, use of low-frequency words, word variety, average word length, and number of clauses.

In addition to the newly developed computer-assisted revision practice, L2W scholars in China also investigate the effects of traditional teacher-initiated revision activities. Lu (2017) examines face-to-face revision process in international publication, involving a Chinese EAP professional, a supervisor, and a graduate student. Four stages are identified in their revision processes, which include social presentation (e.g., identification of each participant's role), problem exploration (e.g., discovery of suspected problems), problem reflection (e.g., request and provision of possible solution), and problem solving (e.g., evaluation of the solution). The face-

to-face collaborative revision process not only produces a better manuscript but also facilitates the junior scholar's entry into the academic community.

Tasks

In the process of writing, many different tasks are involved. Especially since task-based instruction was introduced, the variety and complexity of writing tasks have stimulated much research interest from L2W scholars in China. The influence of task types and task difficulties on L2 writers' writing processes and development has been identified and studied empirically.

Task Difficulty and Complexity

Task difficulty and complexity are two highly related but different concepts in task design. Task difficulty reflects the task designer's expectation for the amount of effort needed to complete the task, and task complexity is the task taker/writer's perception of how difficult a task is for him/her to complete (Yan & Zhang, 2015). In the past decade, L2W scholars in China have mainly investigated the relationship between L2 writers' performance and task complexity.

Two meta-analyses investigate the correlation between task complexity and L2 written production. Both Xing & Luo (2016) and Li & Wang (2017) recognize that task complexity is a very complex variable in nature and that it is influenced by writers' L2 proficiency, researchers' measurements of language production, and writers' cognitive loads. Due to design differences, these two meta-analyses present inconsistent results regarding the effects of task complexity on L2 writing production.

According to Xing & Luo (2016), task complexity is positively correlated with writers' syntactic and lexical complexity and has a possible negative effect on accuracy and fluency. On the other hand, Li & Wang (2017) first identifies two different types of tasks (resource-directing tasks and resource-dispersing tasks) and investigates the effect of task complexity of each type on L2W. Their results show that the complexity of resource-directing tasks has a significant positive effect on complexity and fluency and a non-significant positive effect on accuracy. The complexity of resource-dispersing tasks yields more complicated results: it produces a significant negative effect on accuracy, and a non-significant negative effect on syntactic complexity, and a non-significant positive effect on fluency and lexical complexity.

Such inconsistency can also be seen in other empirical studies on task complexity. For example, Liu et al. (2017) shows that an increase in task complexity triggers a significant increase in syntactic complexity and lexical length, number of word error per T-unit, and is a quantity indicator of fluency. Similarly, J. Wang (2013) suggests that cognitively challenging resource-directing tasks may help L2 writers produce better L2W performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. However, in Yan & Zhang (2015), no significant effect of task complexity is found on EFL writers' global writing performance, accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Yan & Zhang (2015) further reports that task complexity and self-efficacy have significant interactive effects on Chinese EFL learners' writing accuracy; when a high complex writing task is assigned, high self-efficacy learners achieve significantly higher language accuracy compared with low self-efficacy learners.

Task Types

Different task types demand different levels of cognitive effort from the writers. In China's L2W studies, task type is identified as an influential factor in L2 learners' writing processes. Multiple specific writing tasks are studied, including impromptu writing, reading to write, reading-listening-writing, picture description, topic writing, and summary writing activities.

The effect of task type on writing performance is often studied in relation to the complexity of tasks. According to Shao (2003), task type correlates with accuracy and fluency in language production but not with language complexity. Such correlation is suggested to result from students' familiarity with and the difficulty of the tasks, and the influence of task types strongly correlates with task complexity, the degree of cognitive complexity of each task. Similar results are also seen in Chen & Wu (1998), which examines how Chinese EFL college students' writing performance differs when given three different L2W tasks (recall writing, topic writing, and summary writing). Their study shows that topic writing is associated with the highest language accuracy, and such an effect only exists in a time-constrained writing environment. In addition, summary writing is associated with the greatest complexity, and students' performance in summary writing improves when they are under non-time-constrained conditions.

One specific task type that is suggested to contribute to effective writing production is integrative writing. Zhang & Zhou (2014) compares the writing of three different tasks (impromptu writing, reading to write, and reading-listening-writing activities) and finds that integrative tasks

effectively contribute to enhancing the content richness and organization of the texts, especially for high-level L2 writers. Both high- and low-level students enjoy integrative writing more than impromptu writing for the reading and/or listening materials provide some background information for them to organize and express their ideas in writing (Zhang & Zhou, 2016). Compared with independent writing tasks, integrative writing is more effective in measuring L2 learners' writing abilities and encouraging richer and more organized writing production.

Although the majority of articles on writing tasks are in the EFL context, one article explores the effects of task design in CSL (Chinese-as-a-Second-Language) writing. Xiao (2018) compares two types of writing tasks, picture prompted writing and summary writing of given reading material. Results show that writing task has a significant effect on both L2 and L1 writers' lexical diversity and uniqueness. The picture prompted writing helps increase L2 writers' lexical diversity but not necessarily lexical difficulty, and summary writing encourages L2 writers to practice using uncommon words and words they haven't mastered.

Publishing

One specific writing task that draws significant attention from China's L2W scholars in recent years is writing to publish internationally. Since 2010, several articles have explored this topic, and in the first issue of 2017's *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, a special column is dedicated to articles on international publication and the academic writing of Chinese scholars. L2W scholars in China have investigated the language practices of non-English speaking scholars (NESSs) in international publishing, the motivation behind and path for their publication, problems and challenges faced by NESSs, especially Chinese scholars, and their strategies to cope with these difficulties.

Chinese scholars' language practices in international publishing have been studied from two perspectives, ecologically and eco-socially. Zheng & Gao (2016) adopts the ecological approach to language to explore Chinese scholars' language practices through their works on the Web of Science database. Their study shows that although English is still the dominant language in international publishing, space for scientific multilingualism is increasing. Multilingual publications by Chinese scholars in neither English nor Chinese can be found in disciplines such as linguistics, literature, religion, philosophy, and anthropology. From an eco-social perspective, F. Xu (2017) analyzes three cases to identify the influential factors in Chinese scholars' use of

language in international publishing. Findings suggest that the biggest struggle for Chinese scholars is how to express their ideas correctly and appropriately. Their language problems in writing for international publishing are shaping and are shaped by an interactive eco-social system, including various co-dependent and co-evolving factors such as the level of vocabulary abilities, interlingual differences, and writers' identities.

However, language use is not the only area that NESSs struggle in order to publish internationally. In China's academia, international publication has become an important evaluation tool for faculty recruitment and promotion, which brings controversies regarding the motivation behind and value of these publications. J. Xu (2017) discusses the motivation and value of international publication based on his own experiences of publishing in French and suggests that Chinese scholars should base their publication activities on their own academic stance and the needs of academic research and exchange in their fields of studies, rather than the pursuit of fame or fortune in their career. International publication should serve the purpose of academic development, not just for personal benefits of money or social position.

Besides motivations, L2W scholars have also explored the challenges and difficulties faced by NESSs in publishing internationally in English. In general, these scholars confront complexities in the process of drafting and publishing. Xu (2014) reviews articles on international publication from three internationally distinguished journals in academic writing research and finds multiple constraints on whether these NESSs are willing to publish internationally and whether they can successfully publish in international journals. Such constraints include their struggles in writing in English, their personal choice to build academic influence in domestic or international academic circles, and the power relationship between scholars from marginal countries and those from core circles of international publishing.

Ren (2018) specifically analyzes the challenges faced by English faculty members in Mainland China universities when they try to publish internationally. Two major influential factors are identified: the negative impact from the existing evaluation system and the lack of support on personal career development. Due to the focus on numbers of publications included in SSCI or CSSCI, rather than the quality of research or the work's academic influence, many scholars choose to work on projects that are low-risk and easy to publish, for example, book reviews, instead of engaging in authentic and longitudinal research. In addition, many English faculty have very heavy teaching loads in addition to research. Limited time and effort are allocated to developing and

achieving long-term goals in academic research. Similar challenges are also identified in the comparison of scholars' international publication experiences from Mainland China and Hong Kong (Huang & Zhao, 2010). Their findings suggest that three shared difficulties faced by scholars from the Mainland and Hong Kong are linguistic obstacles, negative influence of L1, and the longer time they need for writing. In addition, several problems seem unique to Mainland China scholars, such as the struggle with writing strategies, the lack of collaboration, limited access to academic databases and experimental equipment, unfamiliarity with English academic writing, and lack of knowledge of the targeted journals.

Psychological and Social Variables

In addition to writing tasks, differences in L2 writers' writing processes and their development as writers also result from many psychological and social variables. Some frequently studied variables are writing anxiety, identity, voice, and thinking patterns.

Writing Anxiety

One variable that draws significant attention from L2W scholars in China is writing anxiety. Articles on writing anxiety discuss its characteristics, attribution, and solution in the EFL writing context. In the college setting, writing anxiety exists in both English and non-English major students. Guo & Qin (2010) surveys 453 non-English major college students, using the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (designed by Cheng, 2004). Their results suggest that foreign language writing anxiety exists commonly among college students in China and that this anxiety consists of four major components: anxiety in classroom setting, anxiety during planning, avoidance in writing, and lack of confidence. Zhong & Fan (2018) also identifies similar writing anxiety in English major students in China.

Writing anxiety significantly influences students' writing performance. In terms of the writing processes, X. Wang (2001) analyzes the pre-writing phase of 109 college English major students and found that L2 writers' anxiety has a significant influence on their pre-writing time; with an increase in writing anxiety, students spend less time in planning. In terms of the written product, Zhou & Tang (2010) studies the relationship among L2 writers' anxiety, their writing scores, and their use of L1 in think aloud during planning and composing. Their results show that

L2W anxiety negatively correlates with the scores of their writing, and positively correlates with their use of L1 in think aloud. Such influence of anxiety on writing performance changes over time. According to H. Li (2015a), students' writing anxiety and their writing performance both increase after a semester of learning. Although the results are inconsistent with previous studies on change in writing anxiety (e.g., Liu & Jackson, 2010, which finds a decrease of anxiety over time), H. Li (2015a) attributes this increase of anxiety to the adjustment of freshman students entering college and their experiences of beginning to study English systematically. These studies reveal the complex nature of writing anxiety and how it can be influenced by different factors. Bai (2017) identifies seven factors that contribute to L2 learners' writing anxiety, which are the writers' expression competence, language competence, discourse competence, the evaluative feedback they receive, features of the writing task, and output modes in the writing process. These factors have predictive validity for assessing English writing anxiety in the classroom setting.

In order to help L2 writers lower their writing anxiety, several practical suggestions are provided in the literature. Multiple pedagogies have been found effective in reducing L2 learners' writing anxiety. For example, Guo (2011) suggests that adopting the Length Approach should help non-English major undergraduate students lower their writing anxiety and improve their writing abilities through providing encouraging comments, itemized scores, and abundant output practice opportunities. Another pedagogy that is shown to be effective in reducing English major students' (especially mid- and low-level students') writing anxiety is Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which significantly helps decrease students' anxiety in classroom learning and planning (Zhong & Fan, 2018). The third pedagogical suggestion on reducing students' writing anxiety is through collaborative learning. Wu & Gu (2011) surveys 454 college English major students and finds that after one year of collaborative learning (including activities such as Learning Together, Academic Controversy, Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition, Think-Pair-Share, and Teams-Assisted Individualization), students' overall writing anxiety, somatic anxiety, and fear of negative feedback all decrease significantly.

Two additional articles examine the writers themselves and investigate how to decrease writing anxiety from the writer's end. Zeng & Xia (2011) suggests that emotion intervention can help reduce medical students' L2W anxiety and improve their writing performance. Ma & Dong (2017) explores the self-regulation strategies college non-English major students adopt to reduce their writing anxiety, and they identify four commonly used strategies: action strategy, conception

strategy, avoidance strategy, and affective strategy. Students of different levels of anxiety adopt action strategy, conception strategy, and avoidance strategy differently; with an increase in anxiety level, students use avoidance strategy more frequently and conception strategy less frequently.

Identity

Identity construction and recognition is another variable that is frequently discussed in the articles on writer development. As a very complex variable, identity is studied from different perspectives, such as textual analysis, writer's perspective, and reader's perspective (Chang, 2018). Tang & Xu (2015) reviews both empirical and theoretical studies on identity published in and outside China in recent years and identifies two major areas in identity studies: investigations of writer identity (e.g., writers' beliefs and attitudes) and construction of writer identity (e.g., authorship identity model).

Investigation of Writer's Identity

Articles investigating writer identity focus on the context of academic writing, involving both novice L2 writers, for example, college students, and experienced writers, for example, scholars publishing in international journals.

Three self-construal identity variables are identified in Chinese college students' writing in English, which are relational self, individual self, and collective self. Tang & Xu (2014) reveals that there are significant differences in writing frequency, motivation, linguistic confidence, learning activeness, and learning autonomy between students with high and low self-construal. Using a specific textual feature, personal pronouns ("I" and "you"), Ouyang & Tang (2006) investigates the writer identity Chinese college students present in English argumentative writing. Results show that, compared with their L1 peers, Chinese students use much less "I" in argumentation, and they use "us" to overgeneralize their own views as common sense or truth. In addition, when "you" is used, it seldom refers to the audience, but rather collaboration between both the readers and the writer. According to Ouyang & Tang (2006), such collective voice may result from the cultural background of these students.

In addition to argumentative writing, another genre studied in identity research is thesis acknowledgement. Li (2016) studies PhD students' writer identity in thesis acknowledgement and

finds that PhD students construct multiple identities in their thesis acknowledgement, including career identity, social identity, and personal identity. Through presenting various identities in their thesis acknowledgement, these students not only express their gratitude towards those who have helped them but also reveal their academic spirit, academic investment, academic ability, moral sentiment, and personality.

The second group of writers whose identity has been specifically studied are the experienced writers who write for scholarly publication. Wu (2013) compares the authorial identity between Chinese and English academic writers in a corpus-based study. Results show that English writers' authorial identity is presented as both researcher and discourse constructor and Chinese writers tend to focus on the researcher role only. This difference in identity reflects the differences between English and Chinese cultures (including academic cultures, discourse expectations, and social guidelines). He (2016) specifically analyzes the identity writer (both L1 and L2 writers) construct through suggestions in international applied linguistic journal articles. The study reveals that regarding the relationship between suggestion provider and receiver, two types of identities are constructed: dominant identity and non-dominant identity. Due to restrictions on the social roles of suggestion receivers, authors tend to construct non-dominant identity more frequently, without revealing the identity of suggestion receivers.

Construction of Writer's Identity

The process of identity construction in writing is a gradual and complicated process. Both descriptive and instructive discussions on identity construction are present in the articles I reviewed. This construction process is influenced by many factors. Zhong (2018) provides an English pragmatic identity framework of academic writing for graduate students in China. This framework consists of factors such as academic writing, identity selection, discourse choice, and academic English pragmatic identity. Based on the framework, five pragmatic identity construction paths are developed, taking academic writers' choice and identity as interpretive resource, illocutionary resource or transactional resource, interpersonal resource, explanatory resource, or evaluative resource. Gao (2017) further suggests that the sense of identity should not be limited to geographic location or cultural background, but also include multiple facets such as political ideology, theoretical orientation, research methodology, target audience, and target

publisher. All these factors need to be taken into consideration, especially when a writer is writing to publish internationally and gain recognition of their writer identities.

One specific population whose identity construction process is studied in detail is the pre-service ESL instructors. Y. Zhang (2018) presents the identity construction process of American pre-service ESL teachers in an online cross-border activity that aims to improve ESL writing and enhance mutual understanding between language teachers and learners. Through interactions with EFL learners in China, these pre-service teachers have gained first-hand experiences with dual identities as both instructors and peers and have developed/renewed their identities in terms of identity in discourse, identity in practice, and identity in activity.

Instructional suggestions are made regarding how to help L2 writers construct proper writer identities in academic writing. L. Yang (2015) explores the functions of evidentiality in academic identity construction and reports that evidentiality helps with identity construction in three aspects: the writer's credibility, the balance between the writer's authority and solidarity, and the writer's respect and responsibility. In addition, Zhang (2005) proposes the learning of writing through reading, during which students learn to read from the writers' perspective and to write from the readers' perspective. The interaction between reading and writing activities can help students switch between their reader/writer identities and make improvement in writing.

In the context of professional identity construction in writing for international publication, F. Xu (2017) suggests that Chinese researchers' professional identity be reconstructed in the three directions: 1) from verifying western theories to critically co-constructing the discipline; 2) from the pattern of monolingual publishing to that of bilingual writing and publishing; 3) from manuscript reviewing practices based on mere judgment to those based on the needs of junior scholars, providing them with substantial help.

Voice

Voice is a variable that is closely related to identity, but it is much less represented in China's L2W literature. Recent articles have analyzed debates and controversies of voice studies and identified issues that need future discussions. According to Zhao (2013), most voice studies are theoretical discussions with very limited empirical study on how a writer's voice influences writing quality. In addition, three major controversies exist in voice research, which are the conceptualization of voice, categorization and quantification, and teachability of voice (Peng &

Xu, 2018). Peng & Xu (2018) suggests that future studies should take into consideration the individual and social nature of voice, choose proper categorization methods according to their research goals, and involve voice construction in readers' expectations in the target discourse community to help increase L2 writers' awareness of voice construction.

Two empirical studies on voice are identified in the articles I surveyed. Li & Li (2013) conducted a corpus-based study on the pattern and frequency of writer's voice in scholarly articles in three disciplines (literature, education, and chemistry) and two languages (English and Chinese). Their results show that differences in writer's voice between languages are more significant than those among disciplines, which indicates the strong influence of the writer's cultural and linguistic background on their construction of voice in academic writing. The other empirical study on writer's voice is Yu & Cao (2015), which specifically analyzes the individualized voice in English argumentative essays by Chinese college students. They report that the writer's overall voice strength plays a role in stance expression and identity construction, and boosters, attitude markers and self-mention contribute significantly to voice strength. Yu & Cao (2015) further suggests that attention should be paid to the construction of individualized voice in the teaching and learning of EFL writing in China.

Thinking Patterns

The way of thinking, or thinking pattern, is another variable that influences L2 writers' development and their writing process. Articles on this topic have mainly discussed three aspects of thinking: 1) comparison among thinking patterns, 2) pedagogical considerations, and 3) critical thinking.

Comparison Between Thinking Patterns

Research has shown that writers' ways of thinking have an impact on their writing processes and development as writers. All the articles I surveyed on comparison between thinking patterns adopt Kaplan's (1966) model, comparing Chinese (spiral) and English (linear) ways of thinking. Writers' thinking patterns are believed to influence discourse organization and language use in their writing.

S. Li (2005) argues that the discrepancies between oriental and occidental ways of thinking influence the discourse organization patterns in Chinese college students' English writing. Wang & Li (1993) also analyzes the impact of thinking patterns on discourse organization. They designed three different writing tasks (i.e., writing with a given starter; reordering sentences, and writing to a prompt) to investigate Chinese students' thinking patterns as reflected in discourse organization when they write in English. Their results show that the discourse thinking pattern¹⁵ that Chinese students lack the most is General-Particular pattern, and the dominant pattern for them is the Problem-Solution pattern. Such differences in discourse pattern can also be seen in the pre-writing planning phase. M. Luo (2011) states that Chinese students always plan their essays in Chinese and then translate them into English and that the structure of their English essays reveal Chinese logic thinking patterns.

In addition to discourse organization, thinking pattern also strongly influences the language use of L2 writers. Research has compared Chinese and English thinking patterns and investigated how students' Chinese thinking patterns affect their use of English in writing. For example, Liu & Zhou (2004) analyzes how different thinking patterns result in differences in writers' lexical, syntactic, and discourse choices. For example, Chinese-thinking writers tend to use more verbs than English-thinking writers, and English-thinking writers use tense markers more frequently.

Pedagogical Considerations

Based on the evidence on thinking patterns' impact on writing performance, L2W practitioners have investigated ways to help learners develop L2 writing abilities by improving the way they think before and during writing. Two specific types of thinking attracted scholars' attention: abstract thinking and creative thinking. Wen & Liu (2006) reports on 120 college English-major students' abstract thinking in English argumentative writing, and they propose that four parameters (i.e. relevance, explicitness, coherence and sufficiency) could represent the four thinking stages in composing (i.e. understanding the composition topic, developing a thesis statement and supporting arguments, organizing a coherent discourse, and putting ideas into

¹⁵ Wang & Li (1993) adopts the discourse organization pattern model published by Michael Hoey (1983), which identifies three discourse organization patterns (Matching Pattern, General-Particular Pattern, and Problem-Solution Pattern).

writing), suggesting that systematic training in abstract thinking skills (e.g., comparison, abstraction, generalization, classification, etc.) in L2W should be included in L2W instruction.

Similar suggestions on cultivating students' thinking skills are also found in Shang (2013), which focuses on developing students' creative thinking abilities in L2W through an Internet-based English writing course. During the course, students participate in 1) teacher-guided discussion on writing skills with a focus on being creative (e.g., how to choose a unique angle for their writing), 2) creative writing practice, which includes the following activities: discussion on topics, collecting and analyzing materials, exchanging thoughts and ideas, dynamic feedback and revision, and appreciative analysis of peers' works, and 3) writing competitions that encourage creativity. Empirical data show that after the course, students improved in creative thinking, and their writing performance improved in terms of stating a thesis, selecting writing materials, applying writing techniques, and mastering the language.

Critical Thinking

One specific thinking skill that draws significant attention from L2W scholars in my study is critical thinking. Critical thinking at the metacognitive level involves three components: aims, positioning, and epistemic beliefs (Pu, 2018). After investigating 19 graduate students' experiences of writing the literature review section in their master's theses, Pu (2018) identifies three developmental stages (personal development level, writing task management level, and product presentation level) in writing a literature review and reports that these components are revealed at two different stages in their writing, with the first component (aims) revealed at the personal development level, and the latter two (positioning and epistemic beliefs) at the level of writing task management.

Besides its components, the effects of critical thinking skills on L2W are also studied by China's L2W scholars. Gao & Wen (2017) takes critical thinking as the most important independent variable and other linguistic variables (such as L1 knowledge, L2 knowledge, and L1 writing) as mediators, and they develop a theoretical model involving five latent (L1 knowledge, L2 knowledge, L1W, L2W, and critical thinking skills) and 13 observable variables. A quantitative study with 232 undergraduate English major students was conducted, and the results show that critical thinking skills have both direct effects on L2W and indirect effects on L2W via linguistic

variables. They conclude that L2 writers' critical thinking skills have certain explanatory and predictive power for their L2W performance.

Scholars further suggest pedagogical methods to help China's English learners improve their critical thinking skills in L2W. For example, Yu (2007) presents a case study of two graduate English major students' use of citations in academic writing and suggests the inclusion of critical thinking training in L2W instruction. Mu (2016) identifies areas where China's English major undergraduate students lack in critical thinking and reports that the disposition of critical thinking skills mainly lies in the lack of critical thinking habits, especially the ability to critique, to analyze, and confidence in critical thinking. In terms of L2W, students are not skillful at making abstract generalizations and judgmental analyses, with insufficient evidence in their arguments, and limited reader awareness. Based on the findings, Mu (2016) suggests that writing is a good instruction platform for critical thinking skills. When learners' L2 abilities achieve certain levels, instructors should encourage students to participate in activities such as themed project study or course thesis in order to help them develop their critical thinking skills through identifying, analyzing and solving problems.

CHAPTER NINE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

After more than seventy years of development, L2W has become a young and vibrant field of study in China. As of 2021, there is a Chinese academic journal devoted to L2W, a national L2W conference, a professional organization for L2W scholars, and a significant number of publications on L2W. My study has reviewed and synthesized L2W articles in China's major linguistic journals in the past seven decades (1949-2018). In this chapter, I will try to reach a conclusion about the origin and development of L2W studies in China based on the analysis of my findings.

The Origin

The origin of L2W in modern China has been influenced by two major factors: 1) social and political movements and 2) instructional needs. After the communist People's Republic of China was established in 1949, due to the close relationship between China and the Soviet Union, Russian became the most popular foreign language in China, and it was taught at the middle school, high school, and college levels. Other foreign languages (e.g., English) almost disappeared from China's educational system. My synthesis reveals that in the first 13 years after People's Republic of China was established, there were no articles published on L2W in the major linguistic/foreign language journals. It wasn't until 1959 that the first article on L2W was published. It was also in the 1960s that English came back to China's educational system. This silent period between 1949 and 1958 indicates the strong impact of political and social movements on L2W studies. The Cold War brought economic and political barriers between China and the west; at that time, foreign languages were not paid attention to and the focus of China's government and people was on recovery from the wars and on economic development.

It wasn't until the 1960s when China's political leaders decided to resume ties with western countries, and English became a bridge between China and the West. It was also during this period that L2W studies slowly began to sprout in China. When L2W first caught the attention of China's scholars, pedagogy and curriculum were the most frequently studied topics. My review shows that early publications have compared different pedagogical approaches, introduced many instructional activities and aimed to provide practical tools to solve problems in teaching/learning practices.

Both the instructors' and learners' needs in the classroom triggered the development of L2W, and advances in L2W studies facilitated the development of its classroom instruction.

Therefore, I conclude that the origin of L2W in an EFL context (in my case, China) is different from that in an ESL context, for example, the United States. In the ESL context, it is widely agreed that L2W is the child of applied linguistics and rhetoric and composition. China's researchers had argued that L2W in China is a child with only one parent, applied linguistics (Wu & Shang, 2013, October 19). However, based on my findings, I argue that L2W in China was born to a different family from that in the ESL context. It is important for L2W scholars in EFL contexts to explore L2W's origin in their own contexts rather than adopting the existing framework developed in ESL contexts.

The Development

Since the 1960s, L2W studies in China have experienced an increase in publication, with a larger variety of topics and research contexts. The following sections aim to offer a discussion of this trend and a glimpse of possible reasons behind it.

An Increase in Number

In the past seventy years, the yearly number of L2W publications in China's major linguistic/foreign language journals has increased from 0 in 1949 to 114 in 2018. This huge increase indicates the expansion and a continuous development of L2W in China. This increase may be due to the following three reasons.

Deepened international communication has opened the eyes of China's scholars and broadened their understanding of L2 research and practices. As shown in Figure 3, the first rapid growth of L2W studies in China occurred in the early 1980s, when China reopened to the West for economic and political communications. These communications facilitated the return of the English language into China's society and education system and promoted the rapid development of L2W in China. Another rapid increase in the number of L2W publications in China took place between the late 1990s and early 2000s. China joined World Trade Organization in 2001 and hosted 2008 Beijing Olympics, which resulted in a big increase in the number of L2 learners in China and the rapid development of L2W.

Along with the deepened international communication, the number of L2 learners also increased, which contributed to the increase in L2W publications. Since the beginning of the 21st century, the influence of foreign languages has become stronger and more important for people's lives in China. Learning a foreign language, especially English, is no longer a privilege for a certain group of people, but rather a common practice by people from different social and economic classes. Foreign language books are easily found in libraries and bookstores; English is seen on road signs and in public transportation systems; learning a foreign language has become popular among Chinese people of different age groups. It is during this time that China witnessed an increase in the number of transnational corporations and international students both to and from abroad. The increased number of L2 learners encouraged more scholars and instructors to participate in the research practice of L2W studies in China.

Another possible reason for the increased number of L2W studies is the continuous disciplinary development of L2W in China. In the past 70 years, L2W has developed from a research topic to an expanding area of study in China with its own academic journal, regular professional conferences, and a large number of L2W scholars. The increased number of L2W scholars and regular professional conferences have created precious opportunities for academic exchanges and have polished content for L2W publications. In 2020, China started its first journal designated for L2W studies, *Chinese Journal of Second Language Writing* (二语写作), which is another milestone for China's L2W disciplinary development and provides a great opportunity for L2W publications in China. In addition, in recent years, some linguistic journals have designated special columns and/or special issues for L2W studies. For example, *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching* published a special column on academic English ability and development (“学术英语写作能力及发展”专栏) in 2015 and a special column on international publication and academic writing by China's foreign language researchers (“中国外语研究者的国际发表与学术写作”专栏) in 2017. The addition of publication venues contributed to an increased number of L2W publications.

Diverse Topics

The great variety of topics revealed in my synthesis indicates that L2W has been investigated as a multi-dimensional field of study by scholars in China. Early articles in the 1960s

focus on the language aspects of writing and how to teach each specific aspect in classrooms. Recent articles treat L2W as a more complex social and cognitive phenomenon and explore multiple facets of L2W, by examining writer development, writing process, and the written product. China's L2W scholars have broadened their research by learning from relevant fields, such as psychology, sociology, education, and linguistics. Multiple variables are studied and identified as influential in L2 writers' development and performance. In addition, not only do they investigate how to improve L2 writers' writing performance but also how L2W abilities facilitate learning in other areas, such as reading, thinking, and learning abilities. Three major features stand out in the diverse topics for L2W articles in China: the switch from a pedagogical focus, the development of translation studies, and the influence from ESL contexts.

As discussed in the previous section, China's L2W emerged from pedagogical practices, with writing instruction being the most popular topic for publications. Early articles on L2W instruction were heavily influenced by the product approach, demonstrating a strong focus on the written pieces, especially in terms of language use. Such articles explore how to improve students' performance in certain local areas (for example, word choice or spelling) in order to improve the accuracy of their L2 writing. Later articles' focus shift from evaluating existing or west-imported pedagogies (e.g., product approach, process approach, task-based approach, etc.) to creating and developing original pedagogies that fit in the local context. In other words, early literature explores what specific aspects should be taught in L2W instruction, and later literature focuses on how to facilitate students' L2W development in an effective way.

One topic that is common in EFL contexts but not so much in ESL contexts is translation studies. A number of L2W articles in my data addressed issues related to written translation. Starting from the 1980s, two journals were specifically established for translation studies; *Chinese Translators Journal* (中国翻译) was started in 1980, and *Shanghai Journal of Translators* (上海翻译) began in 1986. Most of the early translation studies are on scientific translating, exploring ways to accurately and logically translate western scientific findings into Chinese in order to help China's economic recovery. The number of translation studies increased dramatically in the last two decades, with 92% of the total translation studies published in the 21st century. Recent translation studies have expanded their territory to include literature translation, tourist translation, news translation, political translation, and so on. This expansion indicates a deeper and wider

written interaction between China and other countries in the world, which, in turn, encourages more L2W studies.

The influence from ESL contexts on China's L2W development is reflected in two aspects: the large presence of English as the target L2 and the presence of authors from English-speaking countries. A small but noticeable number of articles in my data adopt contrastive rhetoric theories and examine the interaction between L1 and L2 in writing. All these articles involve English as the target L2, which also indicates the status of English being the most popular foreign language in China. In addition, the influence from ESL contexts can be seen in the number of contributing authors from English-speaking countries, such as the United States, Canada, and New Zealand. These authors either published their single-authored articles in English, or collaborated with Chinese scholars, bringing in their unique perspectives from ESL contexts. What is more, in the 1980s and 1990s, *Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice* journal published a series of translated works that were originally done by non-Chinese scholars in ESL contexts and published in journals such as *TESOL Quarterly*, *ELT Journal*, *English Teaching Forum*, and so on. These works were translated and published in Chinese, introducing the newest research findings and classic L2W theories to Chinese scholars.

Rich Contexts

Various contexts have been identified and included in journal articles on L2W in China. The context of L2W research can be further categorized in terms of target language(s) and writers' background. This section discusses features involved in the rich contexts of China's L2W studies.

In terms of target language, English plays an important role in the development of L2W in China. A large majority of L2W articles are in the EFL context, with 96% of the articles I surveyed investigating English as the L2. These articles examine either Chinese students' L2W in English or how English writing is done differently or similarly by native and non-native speakers. Although small in number, other languages are still present in the scholarship. In the early days, Russian was the most heavily studied non-English L2. Due to political reasons, the Russian language and the Russian education system had a strong influence on China's foreign language education in the first several years (1949-1956). In recent years, the most popular non-English L2 in the literature is Chinese (in the context of Chinese-as-a-Second-Language). An increasing number of international

students coming to China draws L2W researchers' attention to explore ways to help them improve their Chinese writing skills.

In terms of writers' backgrounds, the L2W articles I collected cover a large range of participants, from L2 learners in elementary school to professional writers. In my data, only 3% of the empirical studies do not specifically provide their participants' background information, while this percentage is much higher for non-empirical studies. A total of 47% of non-empirical studies in my data do not specify their participants' contexts. In the articles with enough information on writers' backgrounds, the majority is on college students in China. This dominance of college students as research participants may be due to two reasons: the large participant pool and the ease of collecting data. Starting from 1999, university enrollment expansion in China has made it possible for more Chinese students to go to college, and college students have become the largest L2 learner group in China. At the same time, most of the academic articles have been written by college faculty members, so that it is relatively easy for them to access this population of college L2 learners as their research participants.

Limitations of My Study and Future Plans

The biggest limitation of my study has to do with its subjectivity in coding. Since I am the only researcher of the study, it is inevitable that my coding scheme, especially the scheme for topics, is influenced by my own understanding of the field and might turn out different than the understanding of other scholars. However, the purpose of this study is not to provide a precise count of articles on each topic, with each research method, and in each context. The purpose of this study is to analytically synthesize existing L2W articles in major linguistic/foreign language journals in China and offer my own attempt to explore the origin and development of L2W studies in China. Therefore, I am confident that this limitation does not impact the significance or purpose of my study.

In addition, although I have exhausted my search in the database, due to my limited time and effort, it is possible that I have missed or excluded some relevant articles unintentionally in these journals. However, given the purpose of this study, with the 1,340 articles I eventually included in my data set, it is reasonable to believe they have provided a sound picture of China's L2W scholars' endeavor to promote the development of the field as reflected in the publications in major linguistic/foreign language journals.

One thing I wish I could have done but now must save for the future is to compare the findings of my study with those in the ESL context. It would be interesting to see differences and/or similarities of findings across these two contexts. Two sources I would like to use for comparison is *A Synthesis of Research on Second Language Writing in English* and the annual syntheses Dr. Tony Silva and his graduate students have compiled and presented over the years.

Conclusion

After analyzing the 1,340 articles on L2W published in 28 major linguistic/foreign language journals on language and linguistics between 1949 and 2018 in Mainland China, I conclude that 1) L2W in China originated from instructional practice, 2) its development is heavily influenced by social and political movements, and 3) L2W scholars in China have expanded their knowledge of L2W with an increased number of L2W articles published on various topics, applying different research methods in diverse contexts. I hope the findings of this study will help L2W scholars both in and outside China gain a better understanding of L2W development in China since 1949.

For L2W scholars in China, this study brings a detailed and comprehensive review and synthesis of L2W journal articles in the past 70 years. It shows how various topics expand over time and how different issues are explored. The changes and features identified in my study can serve as a steppingstone for future studies.

For L2W scholars outside China, this study provides an insider's perspective on the development of L2W in China. This study provides access to the research findings that are originally written and published in Chinese for non-Chinese scholars and helps scholars from other language backgrounds see what has been going on in L2W studies in China. In addition, I myself have experienced both EFL writing in China and ESL writing in the United States. As a novice L2W scholar, my experience with both contexts offers a witness perspective in my interpretation of the findings.

By analyzing and synthesizing China's L2W articles in its major linguistic/foreign language journals, I identified features and patterns in the origin and development of L2W in China. By tracing back to the earliest articles and examining the various topics, research methods, and contexts involved in these articles, I argue that L2W in China is unique in its developmental path and has a promising future. I hope this study brings another piece to solve the big puzzle of L2W

research, bringing perspectives from the traditionally underrepresented voices from an EFL context.

APPENDIX A. CHINESE UNIVERSITIES ACCEPTING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

京津地区 Capital Area

北京大学 Peking University

清华大学 Tsinghua University

中国人民大学 Renmin University of China

北京师范大学 Beijing Normal University

北京语言大学 Beijing Language and Culture University

北京外国语大学 Beijing Foreign Studies University

北京中医药大学 Beijing University of Chinese Medicine

对外经济贸易大学 University of International Business and Economics

首都师范大学 Capital Normal University

南开大学 Nankai University

天津大学 Tianjin University

天津中医药大学 Tianjin University of Traditional Chinese Medicine

天津师范大学 Tianjin Normal University

上海 Shanghai

复旦大学 Fudan University

上海交通大学 Shanghai Jiaotong University

华东师范大学 East China Normal University

同济大学 Tongji University

上海外国语大学 Shanghai International Studies University

上海财经大学 Shanghai University of Finance and Economics

上海大学 Shanghai University

东华大学 Donghua University

上海中医药大学 Shanghai University of Traditional Chinese Medicine

上海师范大学 Shanghai Normal University

东北地区 Northeastern China

辽宁中医药大学 Liaoning University of Traditional Chinese Medicine

大连外国语学院 Dalian University of Foreign Languages

吉林大学 Jilin University

黑龙江大学 Heilongjiang University

哈尔滨工业大学 Harbin Institute of Technology

华东地区 Eastern China

山东大学 Shandong University

中国海洋大学 Ocean University of China

南京大学 Nanjing University

南京师范大学 Nanjing Normal University

南京中医药大学 Nanjing University of Traditional Chinese Medicine

苏州大学 Suzhou University

浙江大学 Zhejiang University

华中地区 Central China

武汉大学 Wuhan University

华南地区 Southern China

厦门大学 Xiamen University

中山大学 Sun Yat-Sen University

暨南大学 Jinan University

深圳大学 Shenzhen University

华南理工大学 South China University of Technology

西北地区 Northwest China

西安交通大学 Xi'an Jiaotong University

西南地区 Southwest China

云南师范大学 Yunnan Normal University

香港地区 Hongkong

香港大学 www.hku.hk

香港中文大学 www.cuhk.edu.hk

香港浸会大学 www.hkbu.edu.hk

香港理工大学 www.polyu.edu.hk

香港科技大学 www.ust.hk

香港岭南大学 www.ln.edu.hk

香港城市大学 www.cityu.edu.hk

香港教育学院 www.ied.edu.hk

(Adopted from <http://www.eduru.org/publish/portal23/tab1028/info7210.htm>)

APPENDIX B. NUMBERS OF ARTICLES BY MAJOR SCHOLARS

Name in Chinese	Name in English	Number of Articles
吴继峰	Jifeng Wu	5
周惠	Hui Zhou	5
张新玲	Xinling Zhang	5
李克兴	Kexing Li	5
杨滢滢	Yingying Yang	5
杨玉晨	Yuchen Yang	5
王娜	Na Wang	5
蔡慧萍	Huiping Cai	5
邓鹂鸣	Liming Deng	5
丁言仁	Yanren Ding	6
卫乃兴	Naixing Wei	6
周丹丹	Dandan Zhou	6
张文霞	Wenxia Zhang	6
朱志瑜	Zhiyu Zhu	6
王文宇	Wenyu Wang	6
石定栩	Dingxu Shi	6
穆从军	Congjun Mu	6
葛诗利	Shili Ge	6
邹申	Shen Zou	6
蔡金亭	Jinting Cai	7
刘东虹	Donghong Liu	7
唐芳	Fang Tang	7
蔡基刚	Jigang Cai	7
刘永兵	Yongbin Liu	8
吴红云	Hongyun Wu	8
张军	Lawrence Jun Zhang	8

徐锦芬	Jinfen Xu	8
王俊菊	Junju Wang	8
郑新民	Xinmin Zheng	8
王初明	Chuming Wang	10
文秋芳	Qiufang Wen	11
秦晓晴	Xiaoqing Qin	11
徐昉	Fang Xu	18
杨永林	Yonglin Yang	18
王立非	Lifei Wang	19

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