

RÉSUMÉS IN CHINA:
EVOLUTION, PERCEPTIONS, PRACTICES, AND
IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL
PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

By

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This study sought to understand how the workplace genre, *résumé*, has evolved in China in the past few decades, how the genre has interacted with sociocultural factors and related genres in the process of evolution, and how people perceive and practice this genre currently in China. By analyzing the historical contexts and textual data, I have identified three major evolutionary stages of *résumés* in this country: the stage from 1985 to 2000 when *résumés* just appeared, the successive stage from the turn of 21st century to the late 2000s when *résumés* were largely self-designed and submitted directly to HR officers in person or via email, and the current stage starting from the late 2000s when *résumés* are intensively created and submitted through online job search sites. *Résumés* in each stage have unique features and the documents have changed over time. The features and changes can be accounted for by the political, cultural, economic, and technological forces in the Chinese society in different historical periods. Prominent in *résumé* practices in China is that two major languages are involved: Chinese and English. Influences from both local traditions and imported conventions of workplace discourses are revealed in both Chinese and English *résumés*. The dual influences partially reflect a characteristic of today's world, cultural blending, as a result of globalization. When Chinese *résumés* are still viewed and used as the primary documents in recruitment, English *résumés* are making their way in the Chinese job market. There is a potential that Chinese companies are growing to operate and behave in an international and intercultural manner. To conclude, the *résumé* genre in China is a microcosm of the complex, unique Chinese sociocultural influence. It also reflects combined influences from both local Chinese culture and imported Western culture. As a hot spot of international business activities, China is of special value for the study of international professional communication. The picture of *résumé* practices in the country, as depicted in this study, may serve as a window to an understanding of professional communication in the country and further enrich our understanding of international professional communication as a whole.

Keywords: *résumé*, professional genre, international professional communication, cross-cultural communication, rhetorical awareness

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION ON RÉSUMÉS IN A GLOBALIZING WORLD	1
II. LITERATURE ON THE RÉSUMÉ AS A PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE	14
2.1 Professional Communication in the US	14
2.2 Professional Communication in China	20
2.3 The Résumé as a Professional Practice	31
2.4 Studies on Résumés in the US and in China	33
2.5 Gaps and Purposes in This Study	45
III. METHODOLOGY USED TO EXPLORE RÉSUMÉ PRACTICES IN CHINA	52
3.1 Qualitative Research Approach	52
3.2 Appropriateness of Qualitative Research Approach for This Study	58
3.3 Research Design and Methods in This Study	60
3.3.1 Part One: Emergence and development of résumés in China	61
3.3.1.1 Data collection	62
3.3.1.1.1 Sites selected	62
3.3.1.1.2 Résumés collected	65
3.3.1.1.3 Other material collected	68
3.3.1.2 Data analysis	71
3.3.1.2.1 Contextual analysis	72
3.3.1.2.2 Textual analysis	72
3.3.2 Part Two: Perception and practice of résumé practitioners	77
3.3.2.1 Data collection	79
3.3.2.1.1 Interviews of writing teachers and career counselors	79
3.3.2.1.2 Interviews of HR officers	81
3.3.2.1.3 Surveys and interviews of job seekers	82
3.3.2.2 Data analysis	85
3.4 Outline of the Following Chapters	86
IV. EMERGENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF RSEUMES IN CHINA	87
4.1 Evolutionary Stages of Résumés in China	87
4.2 Stage I: Emergence	97
4.2.1 Inception of the résumé genre	97
4.2.2 Features of résumés at Stage I	104

Chapter	Page
4.3 Stage II: Self-design and Direct Submission.....	109
4.3.1 Features of Chinese résumés at Stage II	110
4.3.1.1 General features	110
4.3.1.2 Detailed personal data.....	113
4.3.1.3 Work experience/internship with details.....	116
4.3.1.4 Self-evaluation as a prominent and unique section.....	119
4.3.1.5 Relevant educational background/training experience	123
4.3.1.6 Recognition of foreign language and computer skills.....	124
4.3.1.7 Rare and random elements unique to Chinese résumés	125
4.3.1.8 The English version of résumés	126
4.3.1.9 Summary	130
4.3.2 Résumé books at Stage II	131
4.4 Stage III: Web-based Creation and Submission	140
4.4.1 Résumé templates on popular job search sites.....	142
4.4.2 Features of résumés at Stage III	147
4.4.3 Résumé instructions for foreign job seekers.....	154
 V. PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES OF RÉSUMÉ PRACTITIONERS.....	 160
5.1 Résumé Writers	160
5.1.1 Résumé instructions received by the job seekers.....	161
5.1.2 The need for a résumé as perceived by the job seekers	165
5.1.3 How the job seekers produce résumés	167
5.1.4 The role of résumés as perceived by the job seekers	172
5.1.5 Expected résumé training at college	174
5.2 Résumé Instructors	175
5.2.1 Experience of the teachers in teaching résumés.....	176
5.2.2 The teachers' opinions of résumé format and content	178
5.2.3 Good/bad things about résumé writing as perceived by the teachers	180
5.2.4 The need for and role of Chinese résumés as perceived by instructors	181
5.2.5 Current and expected résumé training in the university.....	183
5.3 Résumé Readers	186
5.3.1 How résumés were viewed and reviewed by the HR managers	187
5.3.2 The role of résumés as perceived by the HR managers	189
5.3.3 Good/bad things about résumés as perceived by the reviewers	191
5.3.4 Opinions of the current status of résumé production and submission.....	191
 VI. DISCUSSION OF RÉSUMÉ PRACTICES IN CHINA	 194
6.1 Résumés as a Microcosm of Complex, Unique Chinese Sociocultural Influence	194
6.2 Résumés in China Being Influenced by Chinese Archival Documents	198
6.3 Résumés in China Being Influenced by Western Résumé Conventions	201

Chapter	Page
6.4 Features Unique to Résumés in China.....	204
6.4.1 Detailed personal information being prominent	204
6.4.2 Change in the role of 户口 (household registration).....	206
6.4.3 Photo as a way to leave impression	207
6.4.4 Self-evaluation as a rhetorical strategy	208
6.4.5 Changes in the persuasive tactics.....	209
6.4.6 Document design being sparsely addressed.....	212
6.5 Chinese Résumés Being Necessary but Playing Different Roles	214
6.6 English Résumés Being Not yet Prominent but Promising.....	217
6.6.1 Varied opinions about the need for English résumés	217
6.6.2 Unestablished but growing role of English résumés.....	220
6.7 Résumé Reviewing Practices Being Inconsistent and Unpredictable	222
6.8 Some Issues Existing in Résumé Practices	224
6.9 Multifaceted Influence of Technology on Résumé Practices.....	227
6.10 Résumé Education in China Being Insufficient and Expected.....	230
6.11 Understanding Professional Communication in China via Résumé Practices	233
 VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS	 237
7.1 Summary of the Study.....	237
7.2 Pedagogical Implications	240
7.2.1 Implications to résumé teaching and communication education in China.....	240
7.2.2 Applying the findings in the US professional communication classes	243
7.3 Methodological Implications.....	246
7.4 Limitations and Future Studies.....	247
 REFERENCES	 249
 APPENDICES	 264
Appendix A: Example of initial coding.....	264
Appendix B: Interview questions for college English teachers.....	265
Appendix C: Interview questions for College Career Guidance Center staff	266
Appendix D: Interview questions for HR managers	267
Appendix E: Survey questionnaire for college students.....	268
Appendix F: Example of interview transcript with labels and notes.....	272
Appendix G: National College Graduate Employment Agreement	273
Appendix H: Notification for Graduate Employment Registration.....	276
Appendix I: Introduction letter from the local employment office (1994).....	278
Appendix J: Registration form for people waiting for employment (1983).....	279
Appendix K: Personnel information form a state-owned factory filed in 1979	281
Appendix L: Labor contract from a university signed in 1987	284
Appendix M: Résumés created on job search sites	287
Appendix N: Institutional review board (IRB) approval for this study.....	293

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table 3.1 résumés collected from Company A.....	66
Table 3.2 résumés collected from Company B.....	67
Table 3.3 résumés collected from Company C.....	68
Table 3.4 Books on résumés retrieved from a public library.....	69
Table 3.5 Job postings found in <i>City X Evening News</i>	70
Table 4.1 Content areas of newspaper job postings from 1983 to 2000.....	98
Table 4.2 Potential content areas in résumés in the Emergence Stage.....	105
Table 4.3 General features of self-designed résumés.....	111
Table 4.4 Personal information section in self-designed résumés.....	114
Table 4.5 Work experience section in self-designed résumés.....	117
Table 4.6 Self-evaluation section in self-designed résumés.....	120
Table 4.7 English versions of the self-designed résumés.....	126
Table 4.8 Features of Chinese résumé samples in the book <i>100 Types of résumés</i>	132
Table 4.9 résumé templates in four job search sites.....	143
Table 4.10 Self-decided components in web-based résumés.....	149
Table 5.1 Year of graduation and résumé writing experience of the teachers.....	170

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
Figure 3.1 A visual representation of a grounded theory	74
Figure 3.2 The grounded theory process.....	75
Figure 4.1 Milestones regarding résumé practices in China	88
Figure 4.2 The job posting of a photo studio in 1999	102
Figure 4.3 An example of résumés in a table format	113
Figure 4.4 Description of duties past jobs in self-designed résumés	117
Figure 4.5 Description of achievements in past jobs in self-designed résumés	118
Figure 4.6 Skills section in self-designed résumés	125
Figure 4.7 An English résumé in a table format	127
Figure 4.8 An example of simplified English version of a Chinese résumé	128
Figure 4.9 Subjective elements in the résumé book samples.....	135
Figure 4.10 Cover page examples in the résumé book (2002).....	137
Figure 4.11 English elements in Chinese résumés.....	139
Figure 4.12 Suggestion by a job website to an applicant on developing the résumé.....	148
Figure 4.13 Inclusion of an English résumé for two positions	153
Figure 4.14 A sample of a Chinese résumé of an American job seeker	155
Figure 4.15 A sample of web-based résumés of foreign job seekers.....	157
Figure 4.16 Samples of self-designed résumés of foreign job seekers	158
Figure 5.1 Proportions of the job seekers having received résumé instructions	162
Figure 5.2 Students' perceptions of their needs for a Chinese résumé	165
Figure 5.3 Students' perceptions of their needs for an English résumé.....	166
Figure 5.4 Students' ways of creating résumés.....	168
Figure 5.5 Students' perceptions of importance of résumé in job seeking	172
Figure 5.6 Students' perceptions of necessity of résumé training at college	175

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION ON RÉSUMÉS IN A GLOBALIZING WORLD

Globalization promises a world without boundaries. Communication technology has transformed separate countries into a global village, which drastically increases the need for international and cross-cultural communication in the areas of science, technology, and business. The field of professional communication has grown significantly in North America and Western Europe since its inception in the 1940s and 1950s (Hayhoe, 2006). From the early 1990s on, the focus of this field in the United States has changed to the study of international communication due to a striking increase in the need for such communication as a result of the shift in global trading patterns (Beamer, 1992; Bosley, 1993; Thrush, 1993; Tippens, 1994). A particular hotspot regarding this shift is Asia. It is projected that a significant proportion of future economic growth, as well as the message exchange associated with it, will be centered in Asia (Du-Babcock & Bhatia, 2013). According to the *International Monetary Fund*, China became the world's largest economy in 2014 (Wang, 2015). The huge population and economic potential of China have made it one of the most important markets in the world, which attracts a growing number of foreign companies and individuals. The inrush of foreign businesses and workforce makes China a prominent site of international and cross-cultural professional communication. Studying the situation in China has attracted interest from both Western and Chinese scholars (Yu, 2009).

Professional communication involves various types of workplace and occupational writing. It is

“theory and practice of written, visual, and digital communication used in professional contexts” (Li, 2011b, p. 2). Among these various communicative practices, résumé is the first professional genre that people use to gain entrance into the workplace, particularly for professional-level job openings. It is even contended to be the most important document one may ever write (Hutchinson, 1984). Despite recent debate on whether social networking will make résumé obsolete, this genre remains the preferred mode of employers screening job candidates (Randazzo, 2012; Schullery, Ickes, & Schullery, 2009). In North American society, the résumé genre is mature and the conventions of practicing this professional genre are well established. But this is not the case in other regions. Professional communication only began to make inroads in Asia three decades ago (Hayhoe, 2006), and China is even behind some other Asian countries (Tegtmeier, Thompson, Smith, Scroggs, & Dragga, 1999; Barnum, Philip, Reynolds, Shauf, & Thompson, 2001). In China, résumé as understood in the Western sense emerged in the late 1980s. Its inception and development are the outcome of multiple contributory factors specific to the Chinese social and cultural context. Examination of résumé practices in China will contribute to an understanding of non-American or non-Western professional communication, which helps retain the vitality of international professional communication. In addition, the role of résumé in the job seeking process in China is not as clear as that in the Western society, which makes it even more interesting to investigate.

Résumé practices in different cultures may differ. When job seekers enter a particular culture for employment opportunities, they may need to know and adopt the way that people in that culture present themselves in résumés to persuade employers. For example, people from other places coming into the US will write their résumés in English and follow the North American style of self-presentation and persuasion. However, this is not the whole story of how résumé is practiced in the world with diverse cultures. Résumé practices today are complicated by the current trend of globalization and increased transnational mobility. Take China for example. The country is now a huge multicultural market that hosts both local and foreign businesses as well as individuals from all

parts of the world. The foreign companies may use their native languages, the local language, English as the lingua franca, or a combination of languages for communication. What makes it interesting is that most companies need to hire local Chinese people. The résumés from the local applicants are thus produced in the required language. Meanwhile, Chinese companies may require a Chinese résumé or sometimes a combination of a Chinese and an English one, which is decided by their lines of business, the language used at work, or their recruiting operations. In addition, immigrant job seekers may search jobs in either foreign companies or domestic companies, and produce their résumés in a language that works for their purposes. The situation described here demonstrates a high level of complexity in résumé practices in this country. The document is produced by people from different cultures, in different languages, to different audiences, and for different purposes. Assumptions such as “all foreign invested companies require résumés in English” or “all Chinese companies require both Chinese and English résumés” would sound overly simplistic.

Professional genres have aroused increasing attention from researchers in the past two decades. In Western countries, particularly the US, the résumé genre has been widely discussed in both popular and scholarly publications. Randazzo (2012) reviewed books and journal articles and identified an array of main themes in the discussion about résumés. These include the mechanics of how to write this document (Akpan & Notar, 2012; Jones, 1997; Priest, 2008, 2009), the procedural steps in creating résumés (Becze, 2008; Santiago, 1999; Smart, 2004), the rhetorical considerations (Brown, 2008; Foster, 1997; Hutchinson & Brefka, 1997; Potvin, 2009; Schullery et al., 2009), the impact of the Internet and social networking (Bohnert & Ross, 2010; Killoran, 2006, 2009; Krause, 1997; Marx, 2011), the psychology of application reviewers (Arnulf, Tegner, & Larssen, 2010; Kaplan & Fisher, 2009), and ethical complications (Amare & Manning, 2009; Conn, 2008; Kidwell, 2004; McQueeney, 2006; O'Rourke, 1995). Popular publications, which constitute convenient, ready-to-use resources for résumé makers, are also active and influential. Many websites provide succinct and user-friendly instructions on how to create résumés, for example, *résumé Genius*, *Monster*, and *Indeed Career*

Guide. Some web articles discuss issues related to the genre (Clift, 2016; Dachis, 2013; Giang, 2013). In addition, textbooks for professional or technical communication courses take career preparation as an inherent component, and instructions on résumé writing are ubiquitous at the college level.

In China, résumé has been viewed as an applied genre since its inception and began to be included in books on practical writing or career development in the early 2000s. Most of such books mention résumé only briefly, as they usually need to cover a wide range of genres. Scholarly research on Chinese résumé is sparse. Some retrieved journal articles talk about information transmission in résumés (Wang, 2010), how a résumé shapes the image of the applicant (Jin, 2014), and how to teach résumé writing to college graduates (Hao, 2003; Liang & Zhao, 2011). However, these articles are largely based on opinions or experiences, and are not based on solid data. By contrast, résumé in English has enjoyed a lot more attention from Chinese teachers and researchers because it often links to the study of English as a foreign language (EFL). Not only have more books been published providing instructions and samples, but more studies have been conducted investigating various issues regarding résumé in English, such as language chunks (Shen, 2013), discourse analysis (Ren, 2014), stylistic factors (Song, 2011), interpersonal function (Zhang, 2012), cross-cultural variations (Chen, 2012), students' writing (Chen & Fan, 2018; Li, 2011), and teaching (Su, 2014; Yang, 2011).

By reviewing the literature, I see that résumé practices in China have not caught much attention from researchers in either the West or China. In the past two decades, only a limited number of Western scholars explored this area. Pan, Scollon, and Scollon (2004) compared professionals in Beijing, Hong Kong, and Finland to see how people in one location viewed résumés from a different location, and their study revealed some special features of résumé writing in Beijing, China. Li (2011a) examined the English résumés used in China, looking into their features and cultural motives. These studies are enlightening, but are far from sufficient to profile the overall situation of résumé practices in China, not to mention that both of them focused on solely English résumés produced by Chinese job seekers, which is only part of the picture. The more popularly used Chinese résumés have not

been a concern of Western scholars, despite the fact that they are an indispensable influential factor to the production and use of English résumés in today's China. Interestingly, research on Chinese résumés is also sparse back in China. The majority of the scholarly research has been contributed to English résumés. What's more, such research is largely focused on textual features, since English résumés are often seen as a topic in EFL education. Many other important aspects regarding résumé practices are missing in the literature.

Researchers have pointed out that “previous research and theory have been directed toward business communication in the United States and, to a lesser extent, in Europe,” but with “this shift in global trading patterns, we must focus on Asia in order to gain an up-to-date understanding of business communication in global contexts” (Du-Babcock & Bhatia, 2013, pp. 239-240). China has been very active in international business in recent decades, particularly after its entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2001. The Chinese are no longer passive consumers but active producers of professional communication. The country has become a representative site for international and cross-cultural exchange, and this trend is going on. The field of professional communication in China is experiencing an amazing historical period, which sees a rapidly increased local need for development, an extraordinary import of Western conventions, and interactions between local and imported cultures. This special historical-social context makes it particularly interesting to see how professional communication is practiced in China. In this study, I use résumé as a representative genre. The significance of examining résumé practices outside the US has long been argued. Connor (1996) suggested in her book *Contrastive Rhetoric* that “cross-cultural research of résumé writing presents a wide-open field for cross-cultural researchers” (p. 145). Her call is even more meaningful today as we are now in a globalizing society.

By reviewing studies on international professional communication and particularly those on the résumé genre, I see that a number of areas regarding résumé practices in China need to be explored. First, more studies are needed for a historicized understanding of résumé practices in China. As

suggested by Yu (2009) in her article about technical communication in China, we should “situate our study in the real social and historical contexts of China to gain a more comprehensive understanding” (p. 109); an examination of the history “can give us that historical trajectory to see where we have been, understand where we are now, and foresee how we may develop” (p. 100). Zhu and Li (2009) studied Chinese business discourses and argued that “the historical approach is particularly relevant today when Chinese discourse is undergoing dramatic changes, as signaled for example in the emergence of new patterns of interpersonal interactions in business contexts” (p. 351). There are also studies on résumés in the US that serve as evidence of the usefulness of the historical approach in résumé research. Two interrelated studies, Hutchinson (1984) and Hutchinson and Brefka (1997), revealed changes in the preferences of US personnel administrators for résumé contents over around 10 years. The findings support the necessity and significance of examining résumés across historical periods. Another study, Popken (1999), called for attention to the Internet as a new dimension in the history of the résumé genre.

Second, research into résumés in written Chinese deserves more attention. Inclusion of Chinese résumés is necessary for a true and comprehensive understanding of résumé practices in China. Chinese résumés are the mainstream application materials in the job market in the country. They were used before the appearance of English ones. More importantly, they may have had substantial influences on the way Chinese people produce résumés in English. The lack of research on this topic in the West may be attributed to a lack of interest (versus a greater interest in international communication with English as the language medium) and language barrier. But there is not much research in China, too. The résumé genre is sometimes covered in Chinese books about practical writing or career development, which target primarily teaching how to write the document. Little scholarly research has been done to explore other aspects of the genre, such as the cultural motives, the dimensions, and its context (Connor, 1996). However, Chinese résumés are an important component of résumé practices in China and should not be left out of the picture.

Third, more work needs to be done in analyzing the sociocultural factors functioning in résumé practices. In the current era of extraordinary development in international communication, it is in urgent need to understand how people in other cultures communicate. Cultural factors are important concerns in research on communication in a specific social context. A number of studies have been done examining the role of traditional Chinese cultural factors in professional communication, such as Confucianism, collectivism, 关系 (connection), and face-saving (Cardon & Scott, 2003; Coggin & Coggin, 2001; Ding, 2006, 2011; St Amant, 2001). However, some researchers advocate to go beyond these commonly perceived cultural denominators (Yu, 2009), as “relying on static cultural models and heuristics ... could not address the complexity of international professional communication in the 21st century” (Li, 2011b, p. 40). In her study of English résumés used in China, Li (2011a) discussed the matter of 户口 (household registration) and Western influences. Her research partially echoes what Zhu and Li (2009) claimed in their study of Chinese business discourses that “both diachronic and historical patterns, as well as the influences of Western approaches, were found to apply to Chinese business discourses” (p. 351). The practice of a genre is in response to or influenced by the political, economic, technological, and cultural forces in the social context. An up-to-date examination of these sociocultural factors is necessary and meaningful.

Fourth, the connections between résumé and other documents in recruiting processes are worth examination. The résumé is part of the genre system of job application, related to a string of documents such as job advertisements, personnel registration forms, résumé templates and samples, and writing instructions. All these genres influence the way people perceive and use résumés. For example, it is common in US technical communication courses that instructors guide students to look at the job posting, the pre-genre of résumé, before they produce their résumés. This practice raises students’ rhetorical awareness, helping them tailor their résumés to the needs of target employers. However, it is not clear how résumé is taught in China, and how these related genres influence people’s perceptions and practices. Some researchers documented the challenges that “Chinese

[writers] do not understand the rationale for audience analysis” (Li, 2011b, p. 41). Others found that rhetorical features were missing in textbooks for technical communication used in Chinese universities (Ding & Jablonski, 2001). Few studies are found concerning these issues in résumé practices. Examining the interrelationships between the résumé and related genres may help us see how Chinese people’s résumé practices are influenced by their awareness of and ability to analyze rhetorical situations and by instructional materials available. Research into these issues, hopefully, will generate a better understanding and some pedagogical knowledge.

Fifth, it will be interesting and beneficial to know how different types of résumé users perceive and practice this genre. Résumés are used by different people for different purposes. Job seekers need to write effective résumés to get positions or interview chances; employers read résumés to make hiring decisions; writing teachers and career consultants give instructions or suggestions to help novice résumé writers. In the West, multiple studies have been undertaken to examine the psychology of application reviewers, their perceptions of winning résumés and their preferences and even biases (Arnulf et al., 2010; Hutchinson, 1984; Hutchinson and Brefka, 1997; Kaplan & Fisher, 2009; Ross & Young, 2005; Schullery et al., 2009). The studies are informative, helping job seekers avoid mistakes and produce effective résumés. In China, such information is sometimes mentioned in writing books or in career development activities. Few, if any, empirical studies have been focused on reviewers’ preferences. Apart from this, what is missing in both Western and Chinese literature is the understanding of other résumé users, including novice and experienced writers, writing instructors, and career consultants. Examination and comparison of their perceptions will have pedagogical significance.

To address the gaps described above, I designed this multi-faceted, diachronic study. Sharing the viewpoint of Ding (2010) that research of technical communication in non-Western cultures needs “to examine the impact of local historical, political, and cultural contexts; to acknowledge the existence of local scholars and programs; and to listen to these contexts and scholars” (p. 302), I adopted a

historical and contextual lens in this study, aiming to provide an overview of the development of résumé genre in China and to report practices and responses directly obtained from various types of résumé practitioners in China. The study is composed of two parts. Part one focuses on the historical evolution of résumé as well as the societal and cultural contexts that account for its features and drive the changes over time. Part two is on the perceptions and actual practices of different groups of résumé users in the current time. The major questions asked in each part are listed below.

Part one: Emergence and development of résumés in China

RQ1-1: What stages have résumé practices in China undergone?

RQ1-2: What are the features of résumé practices in these evolutionary stages?

RQ1-3: What accounts for the features and changes over the stages? (What are the sociocultural motives of the résumé practices? How are résumés influenced by other employment documents?)

Part two: Perceptions and practices of résumé practitioners in China today

RQ2-1: How are résumés perceived and produced by job seekers?

RQ2-2: How are résumés perceived and used by application reviewers?

RQ2-3: How are résumés perceived and taught by résumé instructors?

RQ2-4: Are there any discrepancies in terms of perception and practice among different groups?

The first part of the study began with a determination of the stages that résumés in China have undergone since the inception of the genre. The stages were determined by a contextual analysis of the political and economic conditions and physical settings related to résumé practices in different historical periods in the country and a textual analysis of the résumés collected from three Chinese companies as well as some other documents involved in recruitment. The collected résumés were grouped and analyzed in terms of evolutionary stage to reveal the textual features of résumés at each stage. Relevant professional documents involved in the employment processes were examined to

uncover any potential influences of them on the résumé genre. Résumés in a later stage were compared with those in an earlier stage to capture any changes in the documents so as to visualize a historical trajectory of the genre. The social context in each stage was examined to understand the sociocultural motives of the features and changes.

The second part of the study examined perceptions and practices of three broad groups of résumé practitioners: writers, readers, and instructors. A total of 335 students (175 undergraduate and 160 graduate) in a Chinese university were recruited as novice job seekers and were surveyed to obtain their opinions regarding résumés; 11 college English teachers in the university and two company employees were interviewed as experienced job seekers. The teachers, together with three College Career Guidance Center staff in the university, stood for résumé instructors. Four HR managers in four Chinese companies located in three different cities were interviewed as representing résumé readers. The participants' responses were compared between groups to see what they have in common and how they differ in their opinions and/or practices regarding résumés.

In brief, the results show that résumés in China have undergone three major evolutionary stages. The first stage started from around 1985 when résumés emerged as a result of a series of social changes, particularly the reform of Chinese college graduate job assignment. The second stage started at the turn of the 21st century, by which the transition from the unified job assignment to an autonomous mutual choice between work units and individuals completed nationally. Both companies and job seekers enjoyed more freedom in the job market, and the use of résumés in recruitment increased drastically. The third stage started in the late 2000s. It is characterized by the application of computer and web technology in job seeking and recruitment. The résumés in each of the stages have unique features. The documents have changed over time. Some features in the earlier stages disappeared, some new features appeared in later stages, and some elements have changed in their roles. The features and changes can be accounted for by the political, economic, and technological forces in the Chinese society in different historical periods.

Résumé practices in China involve two major languages, Chinese and English. Influences from both local traditions and imported Western conventions of workplace discourses are revealed in both Chinese and English résumés. The dual influences partially reflect a characteristic of today's world, cultural blending, as a result of globalization. The imported culture interacts with the local culture, and the two influence each other reciprocally. This suggests that China, as a hot spot of international business activities, is of special value for the study of international professional communication.

A consensus among different résumé practitioners is that résumés (in general, no matter in what languages) are still used as an important document in recruitment today. This indicates the necessity of producing good résumés, and, further, the need for training novice job seekers to create effective résumés. However, the current résumé education in China is insufficient. Students and instructors all agree that résumé training at college should be strengthened. The HR managers' opinions, their ways of reviewing résumés, and their concerns of some problems existing in résumé practices, as revealed in this study, may inform the teaching of résumés.

As for English résumés used in China, the practitioners show a dichotomy in their opinions. College students as young generations and future professionals and teachers as educators hold a positive attitude, while HR managers in Chinese companies currently do not have a strong need to read English résumés, but they accept them as part of the application materials. These varied opinions and practices show that the English résumé is making its way in the Chinese job market. Even though it has not yet played a prominent role in the hiring practices of domestic companies, there is a potential that Chinese companies are growing to operate and behave in an international manner. Educators, students, and recruiters see the potential and are preparing for it consciously and/or subconsciously.

To sum up, through this comprehensive examination, I have obtained a sense of the trajectory of résumé practices in this country and also an understanding of the influencing factors of such practices; I have learned how people think about and perform the genre, and see the trend of its

development as well as problems to address. The résumé genre is practiced in various regions. The findings in this study inform not only a domestic audience but also an international audience. I hope that readers will find the information useful in one of several ways:

- Various résumé practitioners in China may see from other users' perspectives how the document is used and expected. This may help people change their perceptions and adjust the way they craft, interpret, and teach résumés.
- Transnational employers doing business in China who need local employees may gain a better understanding of how Chinese job applicants present themselves through résumés.
- International technical communicators may gain some insight into the cultural bases for the communication strategies of non-US or non-Western communicators who do not share their cultural backgrounds. Hopefully, the information could be useful to prepare people from other cultures to enter the Chinese market.
- Scholars are more aware of China's local context when conducting research on professional communication in China, as suggested by Yu (2009), "I hope these insights help our scholars reexamine how we approach technical communication in other countries and regions, strive for deeper, evolving, and multi-dimensional understanding of cultures, and bring these complexities about international and cross-cultural technical communication to our students and industry practitioners" (p. 109).
- Other researchers interested in professional genres may duplicate the methods in this study or at least get some ideas when studying résumés in a different culture or studying other professional genres.

This dissertation is composed of seven chapters. Chapter I introduces the résumé as a professional genre and argues the importance of examining the genre in a non-Western culture, in this case, China. Chapter II reviews the literature. It starts with a brief introduction of professional communication in the US, as it is widely agreed that this discipline emerged in the 20th century in the US to support the

technology created during World War II (Barnum & Li, 2006), and it has influenced the international communication for science, business, and technology heavily. Then, professional communication in China is discussed, which leads to the topic for this study – résumé practices in China. Previous studies on résumés in both the West and China are reviewed to see what is known or has been done and what needs further research. The gaps identified there help support the significance of this study and inform the organization of this research. Chapter III describes the methodology adopted in this study. An introduction of the qualitative research framework is followed by a justification of the appropriateness of adopting this approach for exploring the topic at hand. After that, the research design in this study and the specific methods employed for data collection and data analysis are described in detail. Chapter IV presents the findings in the first part of the study. The determination of evolutionary stages of résumés in China is presented up front. Features of resumes and other related documents at each stage are presented successively. Chapter V reports the findings in the second part of the study. People’s perceptions and practices of résumés are reported in terms of different groups of users. Chapter VI discusses the findings from the previous two chapters. The discussions are based on either part one, or part two, or both parts of the study. Chapter VII summarizes this study and discusses the implications of the findings for future teaching and research. It also talks about some limitations of the present study, which may be tackled in future studies.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE ON THE RÉSUMÉ AS A PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

In this chapter, I review the literature regarding résumé practices in China to see what is known or has been done and what needs further research. I start from the area of professional communication, since résumé is one of the various genres practiced in professional contexts. Professional communication in the US is briefly introduced first, as it is widely agreed that this discipline emerged in the 20th century in the US to support the technology created during World War II (Barnum & Li, 2006), and it has influenced the international communication for science, business, and technology heavily. I then move to discuss professional communication in China, which leads to my topic – résumé practices in China. The résumé genre in China has been evolving during the same period that professional communication has developed in the country. This area is sparsely explored and the research in professional communication may serve as referential resources. Previous studies on résumés conducted by either Western or Chinese researchers are reviewed to see what we need to know for a good understanding of résumé practices in China, and further, what can be done to help résumé users in the country.

2.1 Professional Communication in the US

Communicative activities in professional contexts have long existed in human societies. However, the times of awareness, understanding and examination of these activities differ across cultures. As Hayhoe (2006) points out, the profession of technical communication has grown

significantly in North America and Western Europe since its inception in the 1940s, but it has only begun to make inroads in Asia and Eastern Europe in the 1980s.

In the US, professional communication has been widely recognized as a professional field since the 1950s. Extensive research has been done to explore this area, aimed to help people communicate smoothly for professional purposes. Various terms, which may differ in scope and/or focus, have emerged and been used to refer to such communication. For example, Du-Babcock and Bhatia (2013) use “business and professional communication” and Ballentine (2015) uses “technical and professional communication” in their articles. The parallel structures indicate that the terms are used to represent different concepts or areas (otherwise, the structures could be redundant). However, in even more cases, the terms are used interchangeably for the same or similar concept. Some researchers choose to use only one term. For instance, Hutchinson (1997) uses “business communication” in his study of résumés. Yu (2009, 2010, 2011, 2012a, 2012b) uses “technical communication” consistently in her multiple publications on technical or business genres such as instructions, emails, and reports. Other researchers use different terms interchangeably. For instance, Pan, Scollon, and Scollon (2004) name their book *Professional Communication in International Settings*, in which they analyze four crucial sites of “business communication,” namely, telephone call, résumé, presentation, and business meetings. By contrast, another book that examines similar international business discourses is named *Intercultural and International Business Communication* (Palmer-Silveira, Ruiz-Garrido, & Fortanet-Gomez, 2007). Randazzo (2012), in her study of résumés and cover letters, uses “business communication” and “professional communication” interchangeably.

The inconsistent, freewheeling adoptions of the terms reflect the interconnection and overlapping of these areas. Faber (2002) believes that “professional communication is used as a technical term for various types of workplace and occupational writing” (p. 307). Li (2011b) uses the term to refer to “communication used in professional contexts, such as business communication and

technical communication” (p. 2). Following these researchers, I adopt the term “professional communication” in this dissertation to cover all communicative activities that happen in occupational, business, and technical contexts.

By the 1990s, globalization had become a hot topic in business, technology, and sociology. People in the field of professional communication sensed the importance and trend of communicating with a diverse audience (Keller & Chinta, 1990). As a result, international professional communication grew rapidly as a sub-discipline of professional communication. In the US, as Li (2011b) summarizes, international professional communication has undergone four stages.

The first stage is from the 1980s to 1994, characterized by a linguistic approach to teaching communication skills to the international population flowing into US campuses (especially in engineering and technology), and to translating (with a focus on linguistic translatability) documents coming with products of international companies to their target global consumers. The area was heavily affected by previous scholarship on how to deal with students with English as a second language (ESL), but teachers and researchers soon noticed the need for examining cultural factors in teaching professional communication to people with different cultural backgrounds (Belcher, 1991; Bosley, 1993; Rainey, 1990; Subbiah, 1992; Thrush, 1993; Tippens, 1993). To initiate an understanding of culturally diverse audiences, the journal of *Technical Communication* started a special forum on international technical communication, open to practitioners all over the world. Most of the presentations in the forum talked about English education in places other than the US, and a couple of presenters reflected on their brief exposure to the professional communication in the US through visiting a US university.

The second stage is between 1995 and 1998, initiated by the book of Nancy Hoft (1995) – *International Technical Communication: How to Export Information about High Technology*.

Hoft stressed the need to expand audience analysis to multicultural awareness and international audience/user analysis, for the reason of balancing economy (business needs) with cultural understanding (user needs). She proposed to take into account political, economic, social, religious, educational, linguistic, and technological factors to examine the cultural information. This book caused considerable repercussions. Researchers and practitioners of international professional communication joined actively into the discussion with a consensus that culture matters. For example, Ulijn and Strother (1995) argued for looking at cultural expectations and for writing “culturally-focused documentation” (p. 83). Boiarsky (1995) noticed that people write and interpret messages according to their particular culture. Cultural conventions inform language. She believed that understanding the relationship between culture and language is key to successful business communication. This cultural perspective also extended to other business-related areas, such as international teams and project management (Andrews, 1996; Leininger, 1997), documents for translation to international audience (Weiss, 1995; Maylath, 1995; Spyridakis, Holmback, & Shubert, 1997), technical communication classroom that integrates an international perspective (Andrews, 1998), and export of technical communication to other countries (Dragga, 1999).

The awareness of culture was a great progress, but the cultural analysis at this stage had two major limitations. First, it focused only on the general cultural conventions on communication, possibly due to the limited knowledge or limited means to gaining knowledge of other cultures. Oftentimes, researchers had to rely on interpretive secondary sources, some of which were out-of-date or stereotyped. Second, it demonstrated a US cultural bias that reflected a universalist assumption about what people should do and perpetuated generalized and stereotyped cultural principles. Such an approach was prescriptive and unable to tackle the complexity in intercultural communication.

The third stage started from the end of the 20th century, triggered by intensified economic globalization. The changes in the global trading pattern as well as the information exchange associated with it pushed US researchers to rethink the role of culture in professional communication in the age of globalization (Lovitt, 1999). The chance of a unified global culture looked slim. The culture analysis approach with a “dichotomous nature ... (us vs. them, the West vs. the rest, or the US vs. international) should give way to a more culture/context specific approach” (Li, 2011b, p. 25). Researchers began to observe the communication practices in specific countries, among which China drew particular attention as its economy had grown drastically (Hoft, 1999; Coggin & Coggin, 2001; St Amant, 2001). Chu (1999) reported a case of designing a Chinese-English bilingual website, in which he analyzed the cultural, linguistic, technological, and political issues faced by the technical communicators and their solutions. Honold (1999) conducted a usability test and compared how Germans and Chinese learned to use a new technology and how culture affected their learning process and styles. Wang (2000) examined the differences in the use of graphics in instructions between China, a high-context culture, and the US, a low context-culture. Ulijn and St Amant (2000) pooled data from China, the Netherlands, Germany, France, and Italy to show how different cultural expectations and practices affect the way people communicate, and argued that professional communicators need to understand how these cultural factors work in order to achieve effective intercultural communication. Meanwhile, a number of scholars visited China to explore the status of professional communication practice and education in the country, and some even taught relevant courses or seminars there (Barnum et al., 2001; Ding & Jablonski, 2001; Tegtmeier et al., 1999; Wiles, 2003).

The efforts of these scholars are commendable. They helped promote the development of the field in other countries. Their field reports, though largely based on impressions from observations, were more informative than those based on assumptions or projections. However, most of the

analysis of Chinese culture functioning in professional communication was still on some stereotyped cultural denominators such as Confucianism, which has a greatly reduced influence on the contemporary professional communication practice in China. In addition, the cross-cultural examination as well as the exporting of technical communication still demonstrated an ethnocentric view, taking the US model as the criterion in evaluating discourses created by other cultures.

The fourth stage (after 2005) sees a more evident shift of the study approach to an engagement with a multicultural rhetorical perspective (Lu, 2006). Researchers are more aware of the need to “investigate how such factors as audience, purpose, rhetorical patterns, and document design in the rest of the world differ from what we are accustomed to” (Hayhoe, 2006, p. 141). People in other cultures are not only audience or consumers but producers of professional communication. As claimed by Hayhoe (2006), “as we recognize that our profession is becoming global not only in terms of the audiences it serves but also in terms of those who practice it, we should likewise acknowledge that our discipline’s research base is no longer adequate” (p. 141). He argued to revisit the existing assumptions and question whether they were sufficient to “serve us and the people with whom we communicate today and in the future” (Hayhoe, 2006, p. 141).

With this understanding, researchers look into the fluidity of cultural identities of individuals who engage in a communication activity (Hunsinger, 2006). They contextualize communication practices in specific settings (socio-cultural, political, and economic) or compare the practices across cultures. Such studies, especially the contrastive ones, require a good understanding of the target culture in addition to the US conventions. As a result, bilingual/bicultural scholars and collaboration between researchers in the West and those in the target culture play important roles. Huatong Sun, a professor in a US university and simultaneously an affiliate professor in a Chinese university, compared the user localization efforts (how users localize a hard-to-use technology into their everyday life) of mobile messaging technology in the US and in China and

argued that product designers should pay attention to the target user's social-cultural and historical context and link their design to addressing the problems associated with the localization practice (Sun, 2006). Barnum and Li (2006) examined various examples of technical documents in Chinese (translated into English by one of the researchers, Huilin Li) to understand the cultural bases for Chinese writing strategies and communication differences, with an aim to inform technical communicators in other cultures about how to change communication styles to suit the given contexts and users. Zhu and St. Amant (2007) studied how cultural rhetorical factors affect American perceptions of a Chinese-created website on traditional Chinese medicine.

The obtained awareness and understanding of other cultures in turn feed into classroom teaching. Matveeva (2007, 2008) analyzed the intercultural component in textbooks and surveyed the current practices and methods used in a service technical writing course. Yu (2012a, 2012b) examined US engineering students' intercultural competence and discussed about useful approaches and methods to teach intercultural communication in the engineering communication service class.

In the increasingly globalizing world today, international professional communication is in wide and active practice. It is in dynamic change, as clash, interaction, mutual understanding, and reciprocal influence of different cultures are happening all the time. Research into this dynamic process is in great need, which facilitates an understanding of the past, a successful practice in the current time, and a prediction and preparation for the future.

2.2 Professional Communication in China

As said before, professional communication practice has existed ever since the commencement of human activities in the professional contexts. This is the same across cultures. The difference is in aspects such as how much attention people have paid to the practice, at what time it is recognized as a professional field, and to what extent the field has developed. China is claimed to have a long

history of technical communication. A book named *Yi Jing* (or *I Ching*, sometimes translated as *The Book of Changes*), a well-known book of oracles and divination, is argued to be the earliest technical communication text in China in that it has been helping Chinese people to perform various tasks for about 3,000 years (Ding, 2003). The long history of Chinese dietetic culture and the numerous recipes that have been created and distributed are also evidence (Wang, 2006; Yu, 2009). What's more, the highly developed, sophisticated discourses, such as 八股文 (eight-part essay or stereotyped writing), that were widely practiced in ancient Chinese dynasties for political and civil purposes are undoubtedly professional communication (Zuo, 2014; Xu, 2016).

Similar to that in the US, there are also multiple interconnected or overlapping areas in relation to professional contexts in China, and various terms have been used to refer to them. The areas 应用文 (documents for practical purposes), 实用写作 (applied writing), and 职场写作 (occupational writing) cover a wide range of workplace discourses. The terms 公文写作 (official-letter writing or governmental document writing), 商务写作 (business writing), and 技术写作 (technical writing) seemingly indicate more specific focuses. However, the discourses covered in all the above areas are largely overlapping. The topic in this dissertation, *résumé*, is included in most of them.

A complex situation in the contemporary China is that two languages are involved in professional communication. Communication in Chinese began to develop upon people's awareness and domestic need after the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949. Meanwhile, with the rapid development of economy and technology in China from the 1980s and booming international business, the need for communicating in English within and beyond China has increased substantially.

As for professional communication in Chinese, official/governmental document writing and practical/applied writing have long been performed. After the founding of China in 1949, the

government issued multiple public notices, especially the *Guidelines for Official Governmental Documentation* released successively in 1987, 1993 and 2000 to direct and regulate official writing, and the government participation highly promoted the development of this field (Gao, Hao, & Yang, 2004). Meanwhile, more practical discourses have been created and used to cope with the economic development triggered by China's reform and opening in the 1980s, and the field has largely expanded to include discourses in workplace, business, science, and technology. Numerous books have been published to introduce, regulate, and teach the discourses (e.g., Dai & Xin, 2004; Li & Guan, 2011; Wan, 2013; Wang & Hu, 1985; Zheng, Huang, & Cheng, 2002). Technical writing caught people's attention later. It has developed to be a profession only in the past 20 years, and publications regarding this field are fewer than those about other practical discourses (Li, 2015).

In Chinese colleges, some practical writing courses have been offered to students whose future careers involve those communicative practices. However, due to the service nature of the courses, they attract little attention from either institutions or students. Not all institutions include the courses in their curricula, particularly the newer ones such as technical writing. Even when the courses are offered, they are often set as optional and not mandatory. It seems that institutions do not see the courses as important or necessary. A reason for this is possibly the assumption that students should be able to produce the texts since they are native speakers of Chinese and they have taken Chinese courses throughout their elementary and secondary schooling.

Many researchers have examined the current status of professional communication in China. In a recent survey of over 90 technical writing professionals across more than ten provinces about the current status of technical writing in China, professionals believe that technical writing is closely related to the development of information technology and the maturity of market (Li, 2015).

Currently in China, professional technical writers are in great demand; traditional writing tools are still widely used; and documentation quality needs improvement. The main restrictive factors

for the development of technical writing include insufficient attention paid to the field, shortage of relevant professionals, lack of political support, and deficiency in educational programs. Similar results are reported elsewhere. Wang (2015) surveyed a group of technical communication practitioners from both industry and educational institutions, based on which he discussed the huge progress that China has made in technical communication since 2000 and the remaining problems such as lack of audience awareness, insufficient or immature educational programs, need for government participation, imbalanced distribution of resources, lack of professionals, and loss of talents.

The field is new and in development. Its importance is gaining wider recognition. Many educators believe that professional communication is a skill that college graduates must develop. A number of studies have examined the problems existing in practical writing classes and have explored effective pedagogical strategies (Chen, 2006; Lan, 2011). Huiling Ding (2010) pointed out that Chinese writing training is missing at the college level due to the fact that many universities either cancel or never offer college Chinese courses, and this negligence of Chinese composition in the post-secondary setting contributes to the deteriorating writing skills of college graduates. Li (2015) argued that the current research into technical writing is largely focused on English documentation, but it is high time to look at the writing in Chinese, the mother tongue of Chinese professional communicators.

What Li (2015) argued for is true. In the past couple of decades, great importance has been attached to international communication with English as the language medium. The field of professional communication has been tremendously impacted by the greatly increased demand of international communication, the huge influx of documentations produced in English, and the import of Western communication strategies and conventions. Communication in English has become a prominent component in the field, while that in Chinese is comparatively overlooked.

From the early 1980s, the Chinese government began to focus on developing its economy. In the subsequent fifteen years, the rapid economic growth in China resulted in striking advancement in industry and commerce, accompanied by a prominent increase in social affluence. These changes led to the need for bringing Chinese products into the world marketplace and introducing new products and technology from other parts of the world. Numerous Chinese companies expanded their business outwards and numerous foreign companies entered China seeking opportunities. The need and eagerness of both sides, together with China's full acceptance into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2001, jointly established a growing need of China for international professional communication. In 1995, the first government-approved technical communication association was formed on the occasion of a technical communication conference hosted collaboratively by five science and engineering universities in Beijing, and the subsequent conferences expanded the membership and scope to include information management and related disciplines (Barnum & Ding, 2006).

It is from then on that attention from the West has been drawn to China's status of professional communication. In May 1997, the first official US technical communication delegation visited China, meeting with teachers of language, science, and engineering at some Chinese universities (Tegtmeier et al., 1999). Within this trip, the visitors recognized a "hunger" of China for "technical information, equipment, textbooks, periodicals, technical expertise, and teachers of English" (p. 41). They noted that technical communication in China was "at its earliest stages," "no separate profession or academic technical communication discipline" existed, and the practice of technical communication was "almost always ad hoc and extracurricular" (p. 36). The visitors pointed out the opportunity for technical communicators and teachers to establish "ongoing business, cultural and professional exchanges" (p. 41).

Many other Western professionals also showed interest and stepped into this untapped but promising area. A delegation from Georgia public universities visited Jiangsu Province in 1998,

and some of the visitors were invited the next year to give lectures at some universities in Jiangsu (Barnum et al., 2001). In their lecture tour, they identified some China-specific features regarding the need and status of technical communication and its education in the country. In August of 2000, two professors from Ferris State University visited Suzhou University, one of those that Tegtmeier and her colleagues had visited a couple of years ago (Ding & Jablonski, 2001). During their stay, they surveyed students about their knowledge of and attitudes towards technical writing, taught technical writing to a group of students with varying academic backgrounds, met with relevant faculty members, and analyzed four technical writing textbooks used in the university. Dautermann (2005), a faculty member of Miami University, reflected her experience in teaching business and technical writing in China for several summers through a faculty development project, and discussed many conflicts that she encountered between the US pedagogical practices and assumptions and the actual working environments in the Chinese classroom.

The observation of a few American professors at a small number of Chinese universities might not be enough to display a full picture, but their experience was valuable in that it served as a window through which the Chinese professional communicators and educators saw an opportunity to develop the field in their country, and simultaneously their international counterparts could develop some understanding of this uncharted area in China. Tegtmeier *et al.* (1999) recognized the “hunger” of China for technical communication, while Barnum & Li (2006) pointed out that “China is not the only country hungry for information and technical expertise. The United States is equally hungry for information and technical expertise that will increase the opportunities for success with the vast and growing marketplace of China today” (p. 163). Yu (2009) concluded that “as our field pays increasing attention to international and cross-cultural technical communication, studying the situation in China has attracted much interest from both Western and Chinese scholars. Together, their studies introduced the concept of

technical communication to China, initiated technical communication education and practice in China, and expanded our field's knowledge base" (p. 108).

From the beginning of the 21st century, scholars have continuously invested their efforts in studying the professional communication in China. Earlier studies have informed and stimulated the researchers that followed, and they are also examined and challenged, verified or negated by later studies.

Attention has been paid to the perceptions of professional communication practitioners. Yu (2010) interviewed six Chinese technical communicators for their opinions of the field in China as a discipline, what education they might need, and what industry needed more training. Li (2015) surveyed a cohort of technical writing professionals to understand how they thought about the current status of professional communication in China. Wang (2015) performed surveys and interviews to gain an understanding of the development of technical communication in China, and the opinions gathered from the participants validated the researcher's observations and assumptions.

A widely studied aspect is cultural factors. As discussed previously, culture plays a critical role in international professional communication. An extensively discussed Chinese cultural factor is *Confucianism*, a traditional Chinese philosophy (Barnum et al., 2001; Cardon & Scott, 2003). For example, Daniel Ding examined how two philosophical principles of *Confucianism*, 礼 (rituals/rules) and 仁 (love/benevolence), inspire an indirect style in professional communication in China (Ding, 2006) and how *Confucianism* governs technical communication pedagogy in classrooms (Ding, 2011). Others often examined cultural values include 关系 (social relationships or connections), 面子 (face-saving), and 集体主义 (collectivism) (Cardon & Scott, 2003; Coggin & Coggin, 2001; Golemon, 2008; St Amant, 2001). However, some recent studies have argued that the traditional cultural denominators are diminishing or even removed from the current

communication practices in China and research into this field should go beyond (Wang, 2015). Yu (2009) proposed a historicized and contextualized understanding of technical communication in China. She went beyond the contrastive rhetoric lens and common cultural denominators in her study of the indigenous genre of Chinese culinary instructions from 500 BC to present. Zhu and Li (2009) called to address influences of both traditional Chinese culture and Western approaches on business discourses. This call was responded in Li's (2011b) study on the writing of résumé and annual report in current China, which revealed that Chinese professional communication practices in the 21st century display a unique incorporation of both influences.

Another widely examined aspect is education. Technical communication instructions began to be incorporated in college English curriculum in the 2000s (Duan & Gu, 2005; Ding, 2010). Many researchers discussed the features and problems of education and explored potential pedagogical solutions. Ding & Jablonski (2001) found in their visit of Suzhou University that both students and faculty members had limited knowledge about technical writing, and their understanding of audiences, purposes, and users of technical writing were different from the Western perceptions. For Chinese people, the terms "audience" and "purpose" usually meant "the broad masses of the people" and "the four modernizations" (the Chinese national strategic target at that time) (p. 423). The users of technical writing were often seen as restricted to technicians, scientists, and managers. The instruction of technical communication was integrated into EFL courses, and the pedagogy highly valued the use of terms, jargon, and expressions. The textbooks used in the university were vocabulary-oriented and politically-oriented. They did not cover rhetorical features such as audience analysis, social ramifications, and cultural context, but seemed to advocate accommodating a generic audience: the broad masses of the people.

Seven years later (in 2008), one of the two researchers, Daniel Ding, taught technical communication in Zhengzhou University in China, where he surveyed students for their understanding of technical communication as it was offered as a course, and interviewed the

university's five technical communication instructors to identify the important areas in pedagogy as conditioned by Chinese culture (Ding, 2011). Similar to what they had found seven years before, the students still generally thought that technical communication was about science and technology. "The general audience of technical communication, for them, was basically their country, and the purpose was to serve their country and society" (p. 34). The Chinese instructors taught the same course content determined by the university, focusing on teaching professional terms and phrases.

We cannot reach a conclusion that education of professional communication in China developed slowly simply based on the observations in two different universities in different areas. However, these observations reflect some common issues. For one thing, Chinese people see technical writing as from technicians to technicians, rather than to end users and consumers of products. For another, the teaching of professional communication has been entangled with the teaching of the English language. English is recognized as the first language of technology (and hence of the global economy), but it is a foreign language taught in China. It is natural that international professional communication is likely to emerge from English departments as a formalized course. However, faculty in English departments may think of technical writing as done by scientists and engineers for insiders, and does not have a place in English departments (Ding & Jablonski, 2001). These departments usually concentrate on linguistic education, which might transfer into the professional communication education that should not be vocabulary-oriented. In addition, English language teachers may lack subject knowledge or have little workplace experience, and thus lack either confidence or expertise in their teaching (Barnum et al., 2001).

Scholars have agreed that the direct import of Western-style technical communication pedagogy to China may not work, and the basis of Chinese educational system and its interests and goals need to be considered (Ding & Jablonski, 2001). Being integrated into English language education seems not satisfying. Researchers have discussed potential ways to build professional

communication programs that fit the local settings. Barnum et al. (2001) suggested post-secondary vocational training schools as possible homes for technical communication programs because they focus on “applied subjects” (p. 417). However, the English proficiency required for technical communication is far beyond the average level of students enrolled in these schools, and the schools do not offer college-level degrees that are often a requisite for jobs that involve international professional communication. Duan & Gu (2005) explored the possibility of incorporating technical communication into programs of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), but acknowledged that collaboration between technical instructors and English instructors was difficult because of the “shortage of teaching staff” and “the overworking of instructors” (p. 438). Huiling Ding (2010) recommended that English Related to Individual Disciplines (ERID) may function as a localized and alternative type of technical communication program in China and an appropriate home for the further development of technical communication as an academic discipline. Yu (2011) examined the ESP programs again based on findings from two universities, arguing that China’s ESP education provides a promising home for integrating technical communication and the integration can enhance the current ESP education.

A very recent study explored the practical way to implement the technical writing curriculum in higher education in China based upon the currently available resources (Zhong & Hou, 2017). The researchers compared the courses offered in a Chinese university with those in a US university, and surveyed Chinese students, Chinese visiting scholars, ESL instructors, and engineering professors in the US university. The course comparison uncovered the fact that “technical writing has long been overlooked in China” (p. 6). Lack of attention exists in different sectors in the education system: policy makers, teachers, and students. The consequences of this are deficiencies in expertise and resources for teaching technical writing in either Chinese or English, doing research on technical writing, developing quality teaching/learning materials, and training technical communicators. The survey data showed that the overseas Chinese students

were struggling more with higher order concerns in writing (such as thesis or focus, audience and purpose, organization, and development) than lower order ones (such as sentence structure and grammar). Based on their findings, the researchers proposed a curriculum plan that includes both Chinese and English writing instructions for all majors in an engineering college in China.

In recent years, domestic scholars have been active in research on professional communication. Prevalent lines of research include textual analysis, translation, pedagogy, and teaching material construction. For example, Gong (2013) examined the use of hedges in business writing. Luo (2002) explored new strategies in teaching business writing. Yanfeng Wang (2010) looked into the conflicts existing between the writing requirements in workplace and the teaching of practical writing at the college level. Huang (2010) explored the construction of professional communication programs in higher vocational training schools. Jia Wang (2010) dedicated her doctoral dissertation to investigating the application of technical writing in disciplinary Chinese-English translation. Wang and Li (2011) analyzed “writing for translation,” which is claimed to be a policy for technical writing and a professional quality of technical writers and translators. Textbooks for professional communication were initially imported and translated from English originals. Later on, more domestic textbooks have been produced to meet the fast growing and specific needs of students in China. Mo and Sun (2010) examined the current status of construction of teaching materials for business English writing and identified four major changes: from guidance of business process to guidance of speech act and information exchange; from a single genre of foreign trade correspondence to multiple genres; from discourse analysis to discourse communication strategy; and from formal language to precise expressions.

A recent quantitative study on the development of business English research in China from 2002 to 2011 (Wang & Li, 2013) revealed a yearly increase in the number of research papers, research monographs, and funded projects. A wide range of areas were covered, but high-level achievements were rare. The hot areas included business English major, post-secondary

vocational business English programs, business English correspondence, teaching, and translation. Non-empirical research predominated in the first few years, while empirical studies caught up after 2007. Monographs and funded projects were comparatively fewer, but were on the rise. The field enjoyed more attention from economics and general education than from language education. Although this study investigated the area of business English, the findings may be generalized to other relevant areas, such as technical writing and workplace communication, or professional communication as a whole.

To sum up, professional communication in the Chinese language has long been neglected, but awareness of the negligence is increasing recently. The issue has been openly and explicitly discussed and researchers call for attention to the writing in Chinese. Meanwhile, Professional communication in English develops rapidly, but its education has been interwoven with linguistic education which restricts its development. Given the context in China and the current situation, more efforts need to be made to develop professional communication in both languages.

2.3 The Résumé as a Professional Genre

With the current economic condition, job-search skills are critical to not only university graduates but any job seekers that look forward to joining the work force. One of the most important aspects of a job search is résumé (Ross & Young, 2005), a powerful tool to market a job seeker to a potential employer (Shakoor, 2001). A résumé is a brief summary of a person's educational background, job experience, and accomplishments. It reflects what skills and abilities a person has, what he or she has accomplished, and, perhaps most importantly, how he or she can help an organization achieve its goals (Kimbrough-Robinson, 2007). A well-constructed résumé is often viewed as one of the keys to opening doors in the employment market. It may impress a recruiting manager and get the applicant considered for a position. By contrast, a poorly-produced résumé may not catch the manager's attention and cause a person to be overlooked (Ireland,

2002). Meanwhile, résumé as a selection tool is vital to organizations, as selection and staffing is one of the most important processes in human resources and can be used as a source of sustained competitive advantage of the organizations. Effective recruiting and selection practices will result in better organizational outcomes (Ámundadóttir, 2013).

In recent years, companies and individuals are evolving in the way they interact with each other due to the emergence of social networks. The explosion of social media has empowered job seekers to produce online personal branding, for example, through LinkedIn profiles, blogs, or personal websites, to promote themselves in the hopes of standing out from a crowd of applicants. These self-promotion campaigns are creative and sometimes effective. Some people thus assert that the résumé genre is making its funeral march. However, others strongly argue that the genre is not dead or will never die. It is still critically important and is continually evolving (“The résumé is not dead,” 2017).

There is an array of reasons why the résumé is not dead. First, hiring practices do not evolve as rapidly as the rest of society. The majority of large organizations use applicant tracking software, which analyzes a candidate’s application by searching for keywords. Such software does not work online, but needs traditional résumés to function. As the software is here to stay, the résumé is too (Clift, 2016; Six solid proofs, 2017). Second, résumés are the only consistent candidate profile that contain, in a concise manner, the indicators that recruiters locate to distinguish the qualified candidates. It would be extremely inefficient if employers had to look at everyone’s Google search results, social media profiles, and online portfolios. They simply do not have the time. Traditional résumés are easier to manipulate than online profiles (Clift, 2016). Third, a résumé shows an employer three important things: the person can communicate value (through the production of an effective résumé); the person can follow directions (by meeting the requirements in the job posting); and the person understands what the employer needs (by addressing the needs in the résumé precisely) (The résumé is not dead, 2017). It also shows a

sense of etiquette. Fourth, a printed résumé is needed for the interview. Recruiters prefer writing notes on paper résumés during interviews, and they can see whether the candidates are detail-oriented by looking at the phrasing and grammatical issues. Fifth, résumé is part of a complete branding package. LinkedIn, social media, and in-person presentation all work to build a collective presence. In nearly all the successful cases of getting dream jobs by launching online self-branding campaigns, the job seekers provided a fairly obvious link to their résumés in their respective sites (Ray, 2011). What's more, in cases that the hiring manager cannot access one's online portfolio, a conventional résumé can serve as backup.

Research in China also proves the importance and vitality of résumé. A survey of the recruitment status in Guangdong province revealed that résumé is one of the most used selection tools and is effective (Chen, 2004). Another national survey of employers' demand of college graduates suggested an evident role of résumé in recruiting college students (Tang, 2004). A more recent study confirmed that a well-produced résumé is one of the important strategies for self-marketing (Zeng, 2012). In brief, the traditional résumé still has vigor in the workplace in both the West and China. Practice of this genre is worth researching.

2.4 Studies on Résumés in the US and in China

In the US, the résumé is a well researched topic and a regular component in business communication classes. In China, résumé research has been increasing since its inception. The connection between résumés in the two social contexts is that English résumé was needed and introduced into China almost at the same time when Chinese résumé was put into use, and the exploration and practice of résumés in both languages have been interwoven. Because of this connection, it is necessary to review studies on the résumé genre in both the US and China to look into any similarities, differences, or connections. This cross-linguistic analysis will help me see what researchers have already done in understanding the genre in these different sociocultural

contexts and what needs to be done for a better understanding of *résumé* practices in China. My review of *résumé* studies will be roughly based on, but not restricted to, the themes that Randazzo (2012) has identified in discussions of *résumés*. The themes were briefly mentioned in the preceding chapter, and they will be examined in greater detail below.

The Chinese literature was retrieved from the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), the largest and mostly-used academic online library in China. My search was done using China Academic Journals Full-text Database, which includes full-text articles since 1994 from 6600 Chinese academic journals. I tried three keywords (in Chinese): 简历 (*résumé*), 中文简历 (Chinese *résumé*), and 英文/英语简历 (English *résumé*). The search was restricted to core journals, those indexed in SCI/SSCI, CSCI/CSSCI (Chinese SCI/SSCI), and EI, in the hope that the retrieved articles would be of quality and be influential. With this limitation, the keyword for Chinese *résumé* got only 83 results (retrieved on September 29, 2017), among which most were irrelevant to my research focus, such as calls for papers from journals and *résumés* of famous or important people. The keyword for English *résumé* got less than 20 relevant articles. Finally, I used the more general term 简历 (*résumé*). Altogether 2729 results were obtained. I ordered the items by the number of times they have been downloaded, and examined only those with over 200 times. After screening out the irrelevant ones, I finally got 55 articles published in Chinese journals. Hopefully, this cohort of articles could reflect the current research in China on the topic of *résumé*.

The first theme that Randazzo (2012) identified is the mechanical “how to” of writing *résumés*, including formatting constraints, layout choices, grammar considerations, and writing for different modalities (e.g., the Internet). Numerous studies have been done on these aspects since people need to know the basics to produce effective *résumés*. Jones (1997) talked about the use of color in *résumés*. Priest (2008) reminded *résumé* writers of things that HR managers warn against, including misspelling the name of the personnel staff to whom the *résumé* is sent or the

name of the target company, using fonts and features that can weaken the résumé, using email addresses that do not sound professional, and making the résumé too long (over two pages). Akpan and Notar (2012) discussed each of the essential components in résumés to show what a good résumé should look like. Crosby and Liming (2009) provided some guidelines for creating résumés, such as what information to contain and how to highlight the skills for the job targeted. Many books and textbooks are also published on how to produce good résumés (Bennett, 2014; Johnson-Sheehan, 2017; Markel, 2013; Parker & Brown, 2012). For example, in *The Elements of Résumé Style: Essential Rules for Writing Résumés and Cover Letters that Work*, Bennett (2014) discusses the basics of paper and ink, talking about the formatting specifications that are generally expected among hiring personnel, such as 24-pound white paper, black ink, and 1-inch margins. These discussions of “how to” have played an important role in the evolution of the résumé genre. Evolution of a genre is realized in the process that it gets distributed to its users – the dissemination (Popkan, 1999). A genre is disseminated through a community of users or potential users, and grows and stabilizes in the process. Central in the process is the role of modelling. The practitioners read examples and understand rules represented in the examples, and produce their own renditions by imitating (consciously or unconsciously) the ones they have read. This imitation process, repeated over time, helps establish what a genre is like.

Similar to what happened in the US, the dissemination of résumés in China has also been through modeling. Since its inception in the late 1990s and the increasing use after 2000, a number of books have been published detailing how to write this document. The résumé in Chinese was first categorized as part of practical writing or official/government documents, and was included as a minor component in books on these areas. These books usually offer a brief introduction and a sample to show how it should be formatted and what to cover in it. English résumé was a small part in books for practical writing or business writing in English. Later, specialized résumé books on either Chinese or English résumés, or both, came out, explaining in greater detail the basics

about how to produce a résumé, such as format, components, language, design, packaging, and submission. These books usually provide multiple samples for readers to learn and imitate (Yang, Zhang, Wan, & Guo, 2012; YingJieShen.com, 2009). Journal articles also contribute. Of the 55 articles retrieved from CNKI, nearly half (26/55, 47.3%) talk about the basics. For example, Sun (2008) emphasized the importance of novelty to help differentiate the applicants and discussed some examples of how to make the résumés novel. Chen, Xu, and Chen (2009) conducted an eye tracking experiment to investigate the influence of colors in résumés on participants' focus and information processing, and found that a light blue background and black font could gain the best visual effect. Hu and Gu (2007) presented a paper at the Association of Teachers of Technical Writing Conference in 2007 (cited in Li, 2011a), showing examples of designing résumé covers with available templates.

Although the résumé genre in China has been disseminated in a similar way to that in the US, one thing special in China is the existence of résumés in two languages. The inception of Chinese résumé and the introduction of English résumé were almost simultaneous, and their developing processes have been interwoven. It is thus natural to suspect a mutual influence between the two. Some researchers have noticed such issues. Zhu and Li (2009) called for attention to influences of both traditional Chinese culture and Western approaches on business discourses. Li (2011b) reported incorporation of both influences in professional genres such as résumé and company annual report in China. Her study was focused on English résumés; thus the combined influences she identified were on the production of English résumés by Chinese people. However, it will be equally interesting to investigate whether the résumé in Chinese has evolved under a combined influence. To my knowledge, no research has been done to see whether the Chinese résumé has been influenced by Western conventions.

In addition, You (2005, cited in Li, 2011a) made a presentation on a historical examination of résumé writing in China at the ICIC Conference on Written Discourse and Contrastive Rhetoric

in 2005. He examined 23 Chinese résumés and 25 English résumés, and the comparison led him to identify possible historical connections between résumés and some employment documents used in the past three decades. This study suggests another source of influence in the evolution of the résumé genre. As part of the job application genre system, the résumé may function in close relation to other documents such as job posting and personnel registration form. It is likely that these documents affect the résumé more or less. The writing templates and résumé samples may also have some impact, as those are what the résumé makers imitate. It will be interesting to examine how these documents have exerted their influences and contributed to shaping the résumé genre in China.

The second and third themes, identified by Randazzo (2012), are the procedural steps involved in résumé production and the rhetorical “dos and don’ts” of tone, style, content, and submission, often accompanied by some form of audience analysis such as the employer’s values or submission preferences. The tone, style and content of résumé are sometimes covered in the first theme, the basics of how to write résumés. Résumés submission can be considered as a procedure in job application, which overlaps with the second theme. Audience analysis is performed in the planning stage of writing, which is a procedure in résumé production. Since these themes are largely overlapping, studies on them are reviewed together.

Santiago (1999) believed that résumé makers need to know what knowledge, skills, and accomplishments they have before they produce their résumés. He included a self-analysis as a required assignment in his Business Communication course, specifically in the job search process unit. The analysis was done before the students actually wrote their résumés and application letters. Similarly, Becze (2008) proposed that the first thing a résumé writer needed to do was to develop a self-inventory of skills, knowledge, and abilities. Moody, Stewart, & Bolt-Lee (2002) surveyed recruiters about the skills they sought in applicants and the best methods to demonstrate those skills. The top five skills sought were communication (oral and written), computer literacy,

interpersonal/social, critical thinking/leadership (tied), and teamwork. In addition, the recruiters still favored the résumé and interview as methods for demonstrating these skills. An implication of this study is that applicants should plan in advance to demonstrate the desired skills in their résumés. Smart (2004) went further, arguing that applicants need not only list the skills they have, but provide concrete, detailed evidence to demonstrate their possession of the skills. The article discussed a strategy to help students identify skills and articulate them in proof statements that are supported by detailed examples.

Foster (1997) argued that students should treat the job search rhetorically; that is, they should consider each employment application as a specific rhetorical context. This idea is viewed as of critical importance and is advocated universally in courses that involve résumé instructions.

Negligence of audience analysis, one of the résumé mistakes common among young professionals, should be avoided (Brown, 2008). Schullery et al. (2009) surveyed employers for their preferences for résumé style and delivery method, and found that employers still widely prefer the standard chronological résumé. Smaller companies prefer résumé delivery by email, and HR staff in large companies prefer delivery using the company's website.

Similar ideas have been proposed by Chinese researchers. Yu and Gu (2009) warned that using a résumé to apply for a job is not simply just a matter of writing the document. The pre-writing preparation and post-submission stage also deserve our attention. Niu (2012) suggested to set an inventory of personal resources and arrange them according to the job requirements. Wang (2002) argued that understanding oneself and understanding the target company are equally important. Bao (2011) reminded students of some details to notice when submitting résumés electronically, such as using a professional email address, attaching the résumé to the email but also including it in the email body to make it easy to read or print, and paying attention to keywords which will be scanned by computer in the first round of selection.

The issues are also elaborated on in books on résumés. For example, a book recommended by 24 HR experts from top companies informs readers about recruiting standards from employers' perspective and challenges the view of using one résumé for all target positions (Beijing New House International Education Consulting Co., Ltd., 2005). Another book edited by a popular job search site in China uses charts to vividly illustrate how to do a self-analysis before writing the résumé (YingJieShen.com, 2009). A translated book, *The Google Résumé: How to Prepare for a Career and Land a Job at Apple, Microsoft, Google, or any Top Tech Company*, talks about how to tailor the résumé to the specific job and the specific employer (McDowell, 2012).

Many scholars have discussed the uniqueness, misunderstanding, and negligence of audience analysis in professional communication in China (Barnum, 2001; Ding & Jablonski, 2001; Sun, 2003). It is a progress that recent articles and books have brought this to attention. However, many of the articles are one to two pages long, giving opinions briefly based on intuitions instead of making arguments supported by solid data or evidence. The slight mention of the ideas is likely to be buried somewhere and hard to notice. As for the books, most of them are for extracurricular reading. Not every job seeker reads such a book; not every reader notices the ideas; and actually not every book offers such ideas. It is not clear how much these ideas are accessed, accepted, and practiced by résumé practitioners. Investigation into the opinions and practices of students, writing teachers, and career consultants will help to get the answer, and the answer will further inform career training services to help job seekers more effectively.

The fourth theme about résumés is the impact of the Internet and social networking on the design, rhetorical situatedness, and very existence of the résumé. Krause (1997) is among the earlier scholars who proposed the inclusion of online résumé writing into business communication instruction. The online résumé then was at its early stage; the major concern was how to make the contents scannable. Popken (1999) called for attention to the Internet as a new dimension in the history of the résumé. She asked whether the official résumé will change as the rhetorical context

for the résumé has expanded so broadly, whether web-page résumés or even hypertext or interactive résumés will ultimately replace the existing genre, and whether the exclusionary features built into the official résumé will hold up. Killoran examined the self-published web résumés, and discussed the modern rhetorical approaches to résumé writing where the writer is allowed more flexibility in the construction of self (2006, 2009). Bohnert & Ross (2010) studied the influence of social networking web sites on the evaluation of job candidates. Marx (2011) used a fancy term – online brand. He pointed out that, in today’s world, information about each person is prolific and readily available to potential employers. Chances are that one’s information online already creates an image of the person, but he or she is unaware of it. Such information is like one’s brand. The person needs to take care of it carefully so that it may impact his or her career positively. Many people today use professional networking sites to connect with other professionals. Their information in such sites can be part of their online brand. For example, Bremner and Phung (2015) analyzed résumé writers’ self-presentation on LinkedIn, the largest professional networking site available today.

Studies on this theme are plenty in China. Roughly 20% of the retrieved articles are focused on web application or recruitment. The earliest one was published in 2005, which explored the status of web recruitment in China and ways to improve it (Bao, 2005). Later articles showed an evident focus on technical strategies in résumé screening, such as information extraction based on double cascade text classification (Yu, Guan, Zhou, Wang, & Cai, 2006), the use of biographical data as a time saver in résumé screening (Zhang, Wu, & Yan, 2009), and event attraction and retrieval framework for résumés (Li, Zhang, & Gu, 2012). Within my small data set of journal articles retrieved from CNKI, these articles account for a relatively high proportion. Most of them report empirical studies. However, the research focus in these studies is different from that in the Western studies. Instead of exploring the impact of the Internet and social networking on the

résumé genre itself, the Chinese researchers paid more attention to the technical issues involved in web-based recruitment.

The comparison of research done in the US and in China seems to reveal that Chinese scholars are more interested in technology than humanities. This confirms what previous researchers have realized: “China was hungrier for technology than for technical communication” (Li, 2011b, p. 41). In earlier studies about Chinese business discourses, Li (1990) and Zhu (1999) found that business communication had never become a mainstream interest in Chinese discourse studies, even though China had a long history of using business or administrative discourses. The comparison here, while it demonstrates an advancement in technology in China, reveals a lack of interest and work in the field of humanities, in this case, professional discourses.

Another theme in the literature on résumé is the psychology of application reviewers, including preferences and biases. Hutchinson (1984) reviewed empirically-based conclusions to uncover personnel administrators’ preferences for résumé content, and Hutchinson and Brefka (1997) studied this issue again ten years later to detect any changes. Popken (1993) surveyed personnel officers and found that they shared some similarities in their inferential reading on résumé content areas such as marital and parenthood status, hobbies, and names of known reference writers, but the officers did not share consistent reading patterns that might result in a formula for how to write a résumé. Ross and Young’s (2005) survey of professionals’ résumé preferences supported the fact that different occupations and disciplines require different approaches on how résumé content information is presented. Cole (2007) reported that applicants’ academic qualifications, work experience, and extracurricular activities interacted to predict recruiters’ perceptions of applicants’ employability. Kaplan and Fisher (2009) discussed impression management in résumés from the perspective of potential biases existing in decision makers. Schullery et al. (2009) reported the preferences of employers over the standard chronological résumé and electronic delivery either by email or at the company’s website. Arnulf et al. (2010) reported a

substantial impact of graphical design of résumés on both professional recruiters and (non-professional) students. Among three different layout formats – formal on white paper, colored, and “creative” design – formal designs were preferred over the “creative” layouts.

In China, book editors and career consultants are generally aware of the need to learn about employers’ preferences and even biases in job application. Many résumé books have included such information, and career consultants often deliver these ideas to students through training activities. A few Chinese journal articles also talk about these issues. Two articles without authors, published in 2005, discussed a recruiter’s preference for an evaluation report from an authoritative organization to a résumé made by the applicant himself because the report could be more objective and reliable, and another recruiter’s warning against overly designed résumés which look flashy. Two other articles, one being survey-based (Liu, 2012) and the other giving opinions based on intuition or casual observation (Han, 2004), provided suggestions on how to produce résumés based on HR officers’ perceptions. Another two articles examined appearance-related discrimination in employment (Li, Ling, & Li, 2009; Liu, 2008). It is routine in China to include a photo in the résumé. This common practice reflects a deep-rooted recognition of the role of appearance in recruitment. Many people will use polished photos in their résumés and dress nicely in interviews to leave a good impression to the recruiters. It is reported that some college graduates even receive plastic surgeries before they look for jobs (Wu, 2010).

It is important to understand recruiters’ perceptions, expectations, and preferences, as the understanding is instructive for résumé production. In an international, multicultural market like China, job applicants and recruiters can be from different cultures and have different views on résumés. Pan, Scollon, and Scollon (2004) performed a cross-cultural research among professionals in Beijing, Hong Kong, and Finland to see how professionals in one location viewed the professional documents, including résumés, from a different location. The Western professionals reported some special features of résumé writing in Beijing. This finding suggests

that the professionals, maybe unconsciously, took the Western conventions as standard for benchmarking and thus found the features “special.” However, the features might not look special to Chinese professionals. What makes things even more complicated is that Chinese people produce résumés in both Chinese and English languages. English résumés are used for not only jobs in foreign invested companies with English as the working language, but positions in domestic companies where English is used or potentially useful. In such a situation, job seekers may need to understand how recruiters in different companies with different cultural backgrounds perceive and review either Chinese or English résumés.

The last theme in résumé discussion is its ethical complications and pedagogical usefulness in teaching ethics to students. O’Rourke (1995) pushed readers to think about a series of ethical issues in résumés. For example, is it ethical to list educational institutions or degree programs that an applicant has attended but not completed? Is a job applicant obligated to list all employment or every work experience on a résumé? What about jobs in which an applicant has had a bad relationship with a supervisor? Is it fair to include only positive work experience? Amare and Manning (2009) discussed the ethical implications of adjusting résumé keywords for the sole purpose of increasing searchbot hits. McQueeney (2006) described exercises he had used successfully to address some of the problems in teaching ethics in the business communications course. Conn (2008) took this perspective even further by exploring how résumés provide opportunities for integrating the teaching of ethics as well as writing skills.

Ethical issues in résumé writing and job application have also been noticed by Chinese scholars. Two articles discussed integrity in the recruitment process and mentioned problems similar to those discussed by O’Rourke (1995). One researcher pointed out that ethical issues exist not solely in students, but also in companies and institutions (Wang, 2005). Another study analyzed the causes and grouped them into negative influence of market economy, lack of integrity in the institution and the society, insufficient attention to integrity education, and lack of introspection

in college students (Ren & Liu, 2011). Based on what these articles describe, ethical issues are not uncommon in China. More solid data-based studies are needed to depict the problems, and more voices need to be heard to promote solutions and improvement.

One more theme regarding résumé is its usefulness in writing classes. Based on his experience of teaching technical writing to native and non-native speakers, Popken (1993) argued that résumé is a valuable genre for his students to acquire. It appeals to students because most students can use it almost at once in their own job and scholarship searches. It is also a valuable way to teach them several rhetorical principles and can help them understand the notion of discourse community in a way that few other genres can. Wang and Yorks (2012) argued that developing a résumé, which is often framed as a very instrumental process, can be an opportunity for engaging in self-reflective practices, through which students deepened their self-awareness. Randazzo (2012) claimed that the process of creating a résumé and cover letter has the potential for encouraging students' reflective and reflexive capacities.

Few articles about teaching the Chinese résumé are found, which is in line with the fact that Chinese writing composition courses have long been missing in the post-secondary level education (Ding, 2010). Discussions about teaching English résumés are often focused on linguistic features, such as language chunks (Shen, 2013), discourse analysis (Ren, 2014), and stylistic factors (Song, 2011). Some talk about interpersonal function (Zhang, 2012), and cross-cultural variations (Chen, 2012). Many of these studies are aimed to inform classroom teaching of the English résumé, but mainly from a language education perspective (Su, 2014; Yang, 2011). No studies are found exploring other potentials of résumés in writing classrooms. It will be interesting to learn from teachers in China about how they view, teach, and use this genre in their work.

In sum, the résumé genre has been extensively studied in the West. Thirty years ago, Hutchinson (1984) pointed out that textbooks and applied articles about résumés in the US were replete with suggestions on the construction of successful résumés, but these suggestions were often based on opinions and on tradition supported only by anecdotal evidence. A comparison of these sources often revealed contradictions; and, since empirical references were frequently lacking, the suggestions appeared based upon intuition, which alone was not an adequate barometer of employers' preferences. The situation has been changed in the last couple of decades, as a considerable number of articles based on rigorous experiments or solid data have been published. However, the current status of résumé research in China seems to be similar to that in the US thirty years ago. Of the 55 articles I have retrieved, only 11 (20%) are data-based studies or reporting empirical research, but most of them are from the fields of computer science, psychology, or management, rather than from the field of communication. All the other articles are brief pieces of opinions, in a length of only one to three pages. The comparison of résumé studies in the West and in China shows clearly a lack of attention of Chinese researchers to this topic. It further suggests a need for more research engagement in this sparsely explored but promising area.

2.5 Gaps and Purposes in This Study

Previous research and theory about professional communication have been directed toward that in the US and, to a lesser extent, in Europe. Some scholars claim that this emphasis has given the literature a Western bias (Du-Babcock & Bhatia, 2013). The time has come to correct this imbalance and to update the research and theory on Asian professional communication in order to form a comprehensive understanding of the evolving patterns of international and intercultural professional communication.

Apparently, researchers have shown increasing interest in places outside of the US. However, previous research on international professional communication in Asian countries present a Western bias. The Western communication conventions are often set as standards to examine how communicative activities are done in the local environment. However, as Pan, Scollon, and Scollon (2004) argued, to understand the communicative practice in a specific culture is not to see “How X is done among the Y” (p. 24), since it is likely to consolidate existing cultural stereotypes than to further intercultural understanding. More applicable is to understand the communication process in that particular context, rather than to frown at the deviations of local practices from the US conventions.

As the world’s biggest market, China is a hot spot of international professional communication. The communicative practices in China often involve two major languages, Chinese and English. The languages embody different cultures and different communication conventions. The practices in the two languages are interwoven, influencing each other, and developing together. However, research on professional communication in Chinese has long been neglected. Western researchers are restricted by language barrier, but some of them have tried to solve the problem via collaborating with researchers who have Chinese background or language skills, and some inspiring studies have been published. However, these studies are far from enough, and their influence on the research on this topic in China is limited. Chinese researchers have not paid much attention to this area, probably due to the fact that the field of professional communication is comparatively new in the country. Communication in English has attracted increasing interest, but many studies are focused on linguistic education. The situation described here is not unique in China. It is also the case in other Asian countries.

The résumé is claimed to be an important professional genre. Its practice is even more complicated in today’s international and intercultural workplace. However, the topic is comparatively underexplored, particularly in non-US or non-Western job markets. China, as a

representative of Asian countries, as well as many other places where résumé was practiced by people with different cultural backgrounds and using different languages, should be a good site for research of this genre, and further other professional communication activities.

To enrich the understanding of international professional communication, I conducted this study on résumé practices in China. Following the calls and suggestions from previous scholars, my study attempts to address the following issues.

First, genre is conceived as social action (Miller, 1984). It is thus important to understand the social interactions in which a genre is enacted. Also, a genre is dynamic and may change with the changes in contexts. Therefore, in this study, résumé practices in China are examined through a historical lens, as proposed by Yu (2009), to see the role of social settings in triggering and molding the genre, the changes of the genre over time, and the socio-cultural motives accounting for the changes.

Limited research has been conducted to understand the development of résumé practices in China. Li (2011a) explored the change of English résumés in China over the past few decades. Her study was based on actual résumés submitted to three companies representing three categories of enterprises in operation in China, namely state-owned, privately-owned, and foreign-invested. However, her sample size was small. Only three résumés were collected from the foreign-invested company, which had been submitted in 1999, 2004, and 2008, respectively. More samples were obtained from the other two companies (14 from the state-owned and 16 from the privately-owned), but it was not stated clearly in what year these résumés had been submitted. As a result, it is unclear whether these samples were representative of the résumés practiced in different times in China. Additionally, the researcher compared the résumés between different companies. It is not clear how this horizontal across-company comparison could depict the

change of résumé writing over time, as she claimed. A vertical diachronic comparison might be more appropriate to serve the purpose.

In brief, the present study attempts to examine résumé practices in China in a diachronic manner, comparing data across different historical periods. Hopefully this examination will help map the evolutionary trajectory of the genre in China, showing a full picture of how the genre has evolved under this specific socio-cultural context.

Second, as discussed previously, résumés in the Chinese language have not drawn much attention from researchers. The lack of research in the West may be attributed to a lack of interest (as compared with a greater interest in international communication with English as the language medium) and the restriction of not knowing the Chinese language. This may partially account for why Li (2011a) examined only English résumés used in China – she addressed an international audience. Regretfully, there is also not much research on Chinese résumés back in China. This topic is often covered in books of practical writing or career service activities, which target primarily teaching how to produce the document. Little scholarly research has been conducted to explore other aspects of the genre, such as the cultural motives, the dimensions, and its context, as advocated by Connor (1996).

However, Chinese résumés are an important component in the recruitment processes in China. They have been actively and widely used, serving as the mainstream application material. Notably, résumés in Chinese and in English have long been interwoven. In other words, the way people write Chinese résumés may influence how they produce English résumés, and vice versa. A full picture of this professional communicative activity in the country must contain both; neither should be left out. With this in mind, the present study examines résumés in both languages, hoping to gain a true and comprehensive understanding of how the résumé genre is practiced in China.

Third, cultural factors have critical roles in social communicative activities. This is also the case in professional communication. However, some researchers treated Chinese culture in a static way and often associated a phenomenon or practice in China with ancient Chinese culture, using stereotyped cultural denominators, e.g., collectivism vs. individualism, directness vs. indirectness, and power distance (Hoft, 1995; Andrews, 1998; Dragga, 1999; Coggin & Coggin, 2001; Ding, 2006). Sometimes researchers relied on interpretive secondary sources, some of which are out-of-date or stereotyped scholarship. Obviously, relying on static cultural models could not address “the complexity of international professional communication in the 21st century with large-scale transnational flows of people, goods, ideas, capital, and technologies as well as their impacts on communities at the global, regional, and local levels” (Li, 2011b, p. 40). Current research needs to go beyond the traditional models, to see culture as dynamic, interacting with political, economic, technological, and cultural forces. Examination of historical and social forces may facilitate an in-depth understanding of a genre as social action.

Cultural blending characterizes today’s world with high population mobility as a result of globalization. People moving in from a different place bring into the local place new or different values, norms, and behaviors. The imported culture interacts with the local culture, and the two may influence each other. Previous studies have revealed that Chinese professional communication practices after the entry into the WTO “have an imprint of unique incorporation of both traditional Chinese culture and Western influences” (Li, 2011b, p. ii). Some researchers have claimed attention to such combined influences (Zhu & Li, 2009). Evidence of the dual influences can be seen in résumés. Noticeably, some English résumés written by Chinese applicants bear both Western and Chinese features. A detailed examination of the interrelationship between Chinese and English résumés produced by Chinese people will help us gain a comprehensive and deep understanding of how résumé practices in China have been influenced by both cultures.

Fourth, as part of the job application genre system, the résumé works in close relation with other employment documents such as job notice and registration form. However, not much research has been done on these other genres and on the potential connections between the résumé and these genres. A pioneer study is that of Xiaoye You (2005, cited in Li, 2011a), who studied résumés in China and suggested possible historical connections between résumés and some employment documents used in the country. This work sheds some light on the understanding of the genre system of job application in China. To further the understanding, the present study examines some related materials, including job advertisements, résumé samples in instructional books, and personnel registration forms.

Fifth, résumé is used by different groups of people for different purposes. Job seekers need to write effective résumés to get a position or interview; HR officers read résumés to make hiring decisions; writing teachers and career consultants give instructions and suggestions to help novice writers. Quite a few studies have been done to examine the psychology of application reviewers, their perceptions of winning résumés, and their preferences and even biases. These studies are often informative, helping job seekers avoid mistakes and produce effective résumés. However, what is missing in both Western and Chinese literature is the understanding of other résumé users. Do résumé instructors know how recruiters read the documents, share the same opinions with the recruiters, and advise students effectively? Do job seekers know how their résumés will be reviewed? Do they receive résumé instruction? Do they find the instruction helpful? To fill this gap, the present study surveys and interviews job seekers, company staff, teachers, career service people, and company HR managers. Examination and comparison of perceptions of different résumé practitioners, hopefully, will generate pedagogical knowledge and strategies.

To sum up, informed by the literature, I ask the following research questions in my study composed of two parts:

Part one: Emergence and development of résumés in China

RQ1-1: What stages have résumé practices in China undergone?

RQ1-2: What are the features of résumé practices in these evolutionary stages?

RQ1-3: What accounts for the features and changes over the stages? (What are the sociocultural motives of the résumé practices? How are résumés influenced by other employment documents?)

Part two: Perceptions and practices of résumé practitioners in China today

RQ2-1: How are résumés perceived and produced by job seekers?

RQ2-2: How are résumés perceived and used by application reviewers?

RQ2-3: How are résumés perceived and taught by résumé instructors?

RQ2-4: Are there any discrepancies in terms of perception and practice among different groups?

The résumé is a pivotal part in the employment process and is universally practiced across cultures. In the age of globalization, it is interesting and important to observe how people in and from different cultures represent themselves and seek positions in today's multicultural workplace. Research on professional communication is more advanced in the West, but examination of non-western or non-US practices is in increasing need. The latter will enrich the understanding of communication worldwide, and eventually improve the smoothness of international professional communication.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY USED TO EXPLORE RÉSUMÉ PRACTICES IN CHINA

This chapter describes the methodology I followed in this research. I start with an introduction of the qualitative research framework, explaining the important elements involved in the framework, namely, the underpinning philosophical assumptions, the research design related to this philosophical worldview, and the methods or procedures that translate the approach into research practice. I then justify the appropriateness of adopting qualitative research approach for exploring my topic. After that, I explain my research design and offer details on the specific methods employed for data collection and data analysis.

3.1 Qualitative Research Approach

Qualitative research is differentiated from quantitative research in that they are often presented as embodying different epistemologies (ideas about knowledge and what constitutes evidence) and ontologies (ideas about the social world and how we can go about studying it). A description of qualitative research by Creswell (2013) is: “Qualitative research begins with assumptions and the use of interpretive/theoretical frameworks that inform the study of research problems addressing the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. To study this problem, qualitative researchers use an emerging qualitative approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the people and places under study, and data analysis that is both inductive and deductive and establishes patterns or themes. The final written report or

presentation includes the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, a complex description and interpretation of the problem, and its contributions to the literature or a call for change” (p. 44). Qualitative research asks questions about processes, understanding and beliefs, but not those relating to outcomes or strengths of association. It allows researchers to focus on context and process, using them as a route for explaining how and why decisions are made or enacted. It demystifies a phenomenon or an experience by providing detailed explanations. It involves an iterative process, whereby the research questions and procedures emerge and evolve as the project unfolds. And, data in qualitative research are typically collected in the participants’ settings, and the researchers make interpretations of the meaning of the data.

Qualitative research is distinctive from quantitative research at three levels: the basic philosophical assumptions researchers bring to the study, the design of research that is guided by the assumptions, and the specific methods employed to operationalize the design. The philosophical assumptions refer to a basic set of beliefs that guide action (Guba, 1990). Such beliefs, although remain largely hidden in research, influence the practice of research. Sometimes, they are deeply ingrained views about what types of problems to study, what research questions to ask, and how to go about addressing the questions. In the literature, philosophical assumptions have been termed differently by scholars, for example, *paradigms* (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011; Mertens, 2010), *epistemologies* and *ontologies* (Crotty, 1998), *research methodologies* (Barbour, 2013; Neuman, 2002), and *worldviews* (Creswell, 2013). In this study, I follow Creswell to use the term *worldviews*.

A worldview typically underpinning qualitative research is social constructivism (often combined with interpretivism). Social constructivists believe that people seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop meanings of their experiences. The meanings are varied and multiple, as they are subjective and based on specific personal experiences. These varied meanings lead researchers to look for the complexity of people’s views about the world rather

than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The research relies primarily on the participants' views of the situation under examination. Often, these subjective views are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through their interaction with other people, the surroundings, and historical and cultural norms that operate in their lives. For this reason, constructivist researchers often look into the process of interaction among individuals and the specific contexts where they live. At the same time, researchers position themselves in the research to acknowledge how their own backgrounds, such as culture and personal experiences, shape their way to approach the participants and to interpret the participants' meanings. Below are several assumptions identified by Crotty (1998) in discussing constructivism:

1. Human beings construct meanings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. Qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions so that the participants can share their views.
2. Humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives – we are all born into a world of meaning bestowed upon us by our culture. Thus, qualitative researchers seek to understand the context or setting of the participants through visiting this context and gathering information personally. They also interpret what they find, an interpretation shaped by the researcher's own experiences and background.
3. The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with a human community. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive; the inquirer generates meaning from the data collected in the field. (Creswell, 2013, p. 9)

The worldviews of researchers decide what sorts of curiosity they have about the world, based on which the researchers form their research questions and further the approaches to address the questions. These strategies of inquiry are the second element in a research framework, often termed research design. A diversity of qualitative research designs have been discussed and

practiced by researchers in different disciplines. Among them, five approaches appear consistently, namely, narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study (Creswell & Poth, 2017, pp 9-10). These different research designs have been discussed extensively, and complete procedures are now available on specific qualitative inquiry approaches.

Narrative research is a design of inquiry from the humanities in which the researcher studies the lives of individuals and asks participants to provide stories about their lives. The researcher also attends to the context in which the narrative is embedded and interprets the participants' information and produces a narrative which combines both the participants' and the researcher's views. A picture of what narrative inquirers do can be found in Clandinin and Connelly (2000). Four specific methods of narrative analysis (thematic, structural, dialogic/performance, and visual), and data collection procedures and analytical strategies are described in Riessman (2008).

Phenomenology is a design from philosophy and psychology in which the researcher describes the common meaning for individuals of their experiences of a phenomenon. The description accumulates via getting the views from multiple individuals who have all experienced the phenomenon. The researcher focuses on what the participants have in common so as to reduce individual experiences to a description of the universal essence. This design typically involves conducting interviews. The philosophical tenets and the procedures of phenomenological methods are discussed in Moustakas (1994), which also provides practical instructions in the systematic interpretation of interview transcripts. Van Manen (2016) describes the evolution of key phenomenological ideas, presents a range of methods, and summarizes seven criteria for appraising phenomenological reporting.

Grounded theory is from sociology in which the researcher derives a general, abstract theory or theoretical understanding of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants

and other data collected from the process. This design of inquiry is characterized by multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information. A step-by-step research process – from the formation of the research question through several approaches to coding, analysis, and reporting can be found in Corbin and Strauss (2015).

Descriptions of the details related to the coding and writing processes and examples from varied disciplines and professions about using grounded theory are given in Charmaz (2014).

Ethnography as a design of inquiry comes from anthropology and sociology, in which the researcher studies the shared patterns of behaviors, language, and actions of an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time. Data are often collected through observations and interviews. A good understanding of the nature of ethnography, the study of groups, and the development of an understanding of culture is provided by Wolcott (2008). The basic features of ethnography, the cyclical processes of acquiring ethnographic knowledge and human life, and analytical strategies are discussed in Fetterman (2010).

Case study is found in many fields in which the researcher develops an in-depth analysis of a process, event, activity, or one or more individuals. Usually, the researcher collects detailed information of the case through various procedures over a sustained period of time. Some illustrative examples of conducting case studies can be found in Stake (1995). The design and methods for case study are described in Yin (2014), which an emphasis on systems and procedures for generating reliable findings and valid interpretations.

The above five designs are key qualitative traditions. Researchers need to identify specific designs appropriate for their own research endeavors. This decision is primarily made by considering the problem or issue being studied and what the approaches are attempting to accomplish (study of an individual, understanding of the meaning of experiences toward a phenomenon, generation of a theory, description and interpretation of a culture-sharing group,

and in-depth examination of a cases or cases) (Creswell & Poth, 2017). The decision is further influenced by the personal experiences of the researcher, his preferred position and disciplinary legacy, and the target audience. However, there are considerable overlaps between these approaches. It is argued that researchers need to be open-minded about how to generate and analyze their data. Many researchers, in practice, borrow from more than one approach, often in good effect (Barbour, 2013). Adoption of hybrid approaches may enable researchers to develop the full potential of qualitative research and its richness.

The third element in a research framework is research methods, the specific practical measures and tools employed in data collection and analysis. A particular research approach often directs a researcher's attention towards preferred methods to collect data. For a narrative study, individual stories can be collected by recording spontaneous incidents of storytelling, eliciting stories through interviews, and asking for stories through media such as the Internet. Other related data may be generated via personal observations, interviews, field notes, and attendance at events. The method of interviews is central in a phenomenological study, in which the data is collected through in-depth interviews with each of multiple participants. A grounded theory study also uses interviews, together with other methods such as participant observation, participant journaling, researcher reflection via journal- or memo-writing, focus groups, and document analysis. An ethnographic study is distinctive in that it advocates the use of quantitative surveys, tests and measures, in addition to qualitative methods. The data collection techniques include observation, interviews, surveys, tests and repeated measures, network research, and content analysis of secondary, visual, and audiovisual data. Likewise, data collection in a case study also involves a wide array of procedures, including documents, archival records, interviews, observation, and physical artifacts.

Data analysis in qualitative research consists of preparing and organizing the data, reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes, and representing the data

in figures, tables, or a discussion. These are the general analysis procedures fundamental to all forms of qualitative research; additional analysis steps are also adopted in different approaches to inquiry. As described in Creswell and Poth (2017), the data analysis process in qualitative research conforms to a general contour which is spiral rather than linear. A researcher enters with data and exists with an account of the data. In between, the researcher touches on multiple facets of analysis and circles around and around. Within each spiral, the researcher uses analytic strategies for the goal of generating specific analytic outcomes. This data analysis spiral will be further described when I explain how the data in this study were analyzed.

3.2 Appropriateness of Qualitative Research Approach for This Study

The present study addresses the social phenomenon of résumé practices in China. A qualitative research approach was adopted because it fits the exploratory, descriptive, and interpretive orientation of the research.

First of all, qualitative research seeks to explore and understand a social or human phenomenon by creating meanings through gathering participants' views and observing their lived experiences in their specific settings, and analyzing the collected data inductively, building from particulars to general themes. It is not like quantitative research which, often in a deductive manner, tests objective theories by measuring the relationship among variables. Résumé practices in China, as a social phenomenon, has not yet been extensively examined. There are few preconceived concepts, hypotheses, or theories to test or develop. Qualitative research approach allows me to start from constructing a description of this phenomenon by looking into individual practices and opinions and the specific settings, to producing substantial findings by drawing themes from the collected individual information, and to providing explanation of the phenomenon by interpreting the meanings of the findings.

Second, human beings construct meanings as they engage with the world they live in, and their views are typically forged in discussions or interactions with other persons and the surroundings. In my case, Chinese people practice résumés in their particular settings, and their understanding of the genre develop dynamically in their engagement with it. For example, novice job seekers take classes or read books to learn how to write résumés. Their understanding is formed through the interaction with instructions and samples offered in the classes or books. Meanwhile, job seekers may also gain experience by getting feedback from their teachers/advisors, career consultants, experienced friends, and even recruiters. Their understanding thus develop via the interactions with other people. To understand the meanings that Chinese résumé practitioners make about the phenomenon under investigation, I need to listen carefully to what they say and examine what they do in their life settings. Qualitative research approach allows me to look into the processes of interactions among individuals and to use open-ended questions to elicit the views of participants.

Third, the subjective meanings that individuals make about the world are also formed through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives. Résumé practices in China, as social action, is situated in a specific sociocultural context, being shaped by and shaping the context where it is occurring. The inception of this genre was a result of political change and economic development of the country, and its development has been impacted by both local culture and imported norms. A full understanding of the phenomenon involves both a "micro" aspect such as personal experiences and a "macro" aspect such as social changes. A qualitative research approach allows me to take into account both aspects. As Mason (2002) pointed out, there is a long qualitative tradition that sees everyday interpersonal interactions, life experiences, narratives, histories, and so on as informing researchers not only about personal or 'micro' experience but crucially also about the changing social and economic conditions, cultures, and institutional frameworks through which ordinary lives are lived. A qualitative research approach

facilitates me to examine multiple aspects as well as the interactions between them, which further enables me to render the complexity of the phenomenon under investigation.

Fourth, humans make sense of their world based on their historical and social perspectives. Researchers are no exception. Qualitative approaches allow researchers to position themselves in the research to acknowledge how their own backgrounds shape their way to access or generate data and to interpret the meanings. This is particularly important in my case as résumé practices in China involves not only Chinese but also English, not only the Chinese culture but also the Western or US conventions. My position as a bilingual researcher with experience in both cultures gives a special perspective to this study.

3.3 Research Design and Methods in This Study

The present study sought to understand how the workplace genre, résumé, has evolved in China in the past few decades, how the genre has interacted with sociocultural factors and related genres in the process of evolution, and how people perceive and practice this genre currently in China. The research was guided by a social constructivist worldview and was primarily qualitative in nature. However, I did not pick from the five key traditions to qualitative inquiry a single design for my research. Instead, I followed the call of Barbour (2013) to be open-minded about how to weigh up the relevance of each, or hybrids of two or more, of the various methodological offerings available for the particular research topic at hand and how to go about generating and analyzing data. I also appreciate Mason's (2006) argument for the value of multidimensional research strategies with qualitative thinking as a starting point for researching questions about social experience and lived realities. My research started with qualitative inquiries, but the research was designed as multidimensional and employing various strategies which together served to reach my goal of describing and exploring a phenomenon in a specific sociocultural context. The strategies enabled me to relate the context and examine textual data and participants'

views collected from purposively selected sites. I believe that adopting hybrid approaches enabled me to develop the full potential of qualitative research approach, and collect and analyze data in a more creative, flexible, and effective manner.

My study consists of two parts. Part one examines the emergence and development of résumés in China over the past few decades. Part two addresses how people perceive and practice résumé in the current time. The following sections describe what questions I sought to answer, what sources of data I looked into, and how I collected and analyzed the data in each part.

3.3.1 Part One: Emergence and development of résumés in China

This part examines how the résumé genre emerged in China and how this workplace genre has developed since its inception. The research sought to answer the following questions:

RQ1-1: What stages have résumé practices in China undergone?

RQ1-2: What are the features of résumé practices in these evolutionary stages?

RQ1-3: What accounts for the features and changes over the stages? (What are the sociocultural motives of the résumé practices? How are résumés influenced by other employment documents?)

The first step was to determine the evolutionary stages of résumés in China. This was done by analyzing the social contexts, the political and economic conditions, and the material settings of résumé practices in the past few decades. Then, within each of the identified stages, a textual analysis was conducted by examining the discourse features of résumés submitted to Chinese companies since the best way to study the practice of a genre is to examine the real documents created and used by individuals. The textual analysis was not limited to the dominant genre. It also involved what Swales (1996) calls “occluded genres” that operate behind the scenes of the major genres (such as the submission letter and review letter of a research article) and “genre chains” whereby one genre is a necessary antecedent for another (Swales, 2004). Particularly

addressed was what Cheng (2018) discusses in his forthcoming book, the guidance genres as additional sources that inform and shape the target genre. Charmaz (2006) warned against “studying text without contexts, or even worse, studying text out of contexts” (p. 39). She suggested a few ways to place texts into context, such as using multiple methods to collect various types of data, including the text to analyze and other texts that tell stories behind the text. Following these researchers, I examined some other texts involved in employment processes, such as job advertisements, personnel registration forms, official / governmental / institutional documents, and résumé writing templates or samples. This examination enabled me to uncover the potential influences of these related texts on résumés.

The collected résumés were also compared between different stages to reveal changes over time. Résumés produced and submitted in different modes were compared to visualize the impact of technology and means of recruitment on the genre. In addition, some parts in the Chinese résumés were compared with Western conventions. This comparison was not for imposing the Western norms on the practice in China; in other words, it was not to take the Western conventions as a standard to measure how the Chinese résumés deviated from the standard. The reasons of considering the Western conventions are the involvement of English as one of the languages in résumé practices in China, the knowledge transfer from foreign-invested companies alongside business practices, and the need of China to be globalized. The purpose of this comparison was to see how the imported culture has influenced the local practice and how the local practice has accommodated influences from both local and foreign cultures. Finally, the textual analysis was related to contextual analysis to understand the sociocultural motives of the résumé features and changes within and across the evolutionary stages. Below I describe how data were collected and analyzed in this part of the study.

3.3.1.1 Data collection

3.3.1.1.1 Sites selected

China's economy has developed drastically since the reform and opening in the 1980s. A remarkable phenomenon was the emergence of privately run businesses and reform of state-owned enterprises (Chang, 2007). After China's entry into the WTO in 2001, foreign-invested companies increased substantially, and an increasing number of domestic companies began to do business with other countries and many developed into international corporations. In light of previous research on the relationship between modes of human resources (HR) management and the ownership of companies in China (Wang, Bruning, & Peng, 2007; Wang, 2004; Zhang, 2004; Zhao & Peng, 2008), I purposefully selected three companies that differ in terms of ownership: a state-owned, a privately-owned, and a joint venture. With the help of my personal contacts, I contacted the HR managers of the three companies and explained my research to them. Luckily, all of them agreed to help. In the summer of 2015, I met with each of the HR managers in person and collected résumés submitted to the companies. The résumés (the paper ones were scanned) were zipped in folders and transmitted to me via email.

Company A is a state-owned national-level freight forwarding agent. It concentrates on handling international shipments, so the employees need to prepare and process customs and other documentation pertaining to international freight transport. The company was founded in 1999, located in City X, a major city in northwest China (geographically in the center of the country). Like many state-owned enterprises in China, the company used to contact the graduate employment guidance offices or career centers in universities, which serve to match students with job vacancies. The job information was distributed by the offices or centers, often first to faculty members and then to students. Faculty members would forward the information first to students they thought fit, and they would make recommendations for those who were interested. Other students who got the information also could make applications. In this way, the company recruited graduates based on faculty's recommendation or students' self-recommendation. Sometimes, the company attended job fairs held by universities, where they met with students and

collected résumés. In 2006, the company began to use online platforms to advertise its job vacancies. Job information was posted on the company's web page and some other websites. The HR manager received résumés sent via email. Later on, online job search engines became the major means to recruitment, and the HR officer got résumés forwarded through the search engines. From 2010 on, the recruitment has been done solely through two popular job search engines in China: *zhaopin.com* and *51job.com*.

Company B is a privately run business, also located in City X. It is a training organization offering courses validated by a foreign education agency based in the United Kingdom. Most of the positions to fill in the company are lecturers of the courses it offers, such as accounting, cost accounting, statistics in accounting, and accounting management. The applicants need to have subject proficiency as well as English language ability, as the courses are required to be taught bilingually. The company started from the early 2000s as a small-size business. Job information was distributed by the manager of the company, who was previously a college teacher, through personal connections, and the first group of people recruited were introduced or recommended by the manager's friends. After the company created its website and posted job notices online, applicants either emailed their résumés to the address indicated in the job notices or visited the company in person. The company had never used online job search engines by the time I collected data, so it had received small numbers of résumés in the past years.

Company C is an authorized agent of a US corporation specializing in research and development equipment. The company is located in City G, a highly industrialized city in southern China. It started as a small-size business in the mid-2000s and has developed gradually in its scale. Currently, its business reaches many parts of mainland China, including Beijing (the capital city), Shanghai (a large commercialized cosmopolitan city), and Hong Kong (the special administrative region of China). The recruitment in its early years was done by contacting faculty members in nearby universities, relying on them to recommend students. From 2009 on, the company posted

job notices on its company web page and some websites such as *bio-equip.com* and *bjmu.edu.cn*. In 2011 and 2012, the company's business expanded largely and needed more staff. It hired through three online job search engines: *ChinaHR.com*, *51job.com*, and *01hr.com*.

In addition to the three companies, I also included other sites to gather relevant materials. I chose all these sites in City X to reduce the travelling time. One place is the biggest public library of the province with City X as the capital city, where I found books on résumés published years ago which were not available in bookstores or online (particularly the full text), and accessed old newspapers in the past few decades to look into job advertisements posted there. Another place is the Provincial Archives, a government-operated place to keep archives for organizations and individuals. I visited this place with the hope to find some relevant official documents related to employment so as to understand the settings of résumé practices. Unfortunately, documents stored there are confidential. An individual's files can be accessed only when he or she presents in person with a valid identification. I tried my best to find some people I know to help me get some documents. They are limited in number, but are good to give me a sense of the contexts of employment in the past few decades in China. One more place I visited is a large public university where I reached teachers and students to gather their opinions about résumé practices and talked to people in its Graduate Career Guidance Center to learn about the services offered to students and the career counselors' perceptions.

3.3.1.1.2 Résumés collected

I stayed in City X for two months in 2015 to collect data. To avoid bothering the HR managers a second time and also to avoid the inconvenience of reaching them after I came back to the US, I tried to gather as many résumés as possible during my stay.

Résumés in Company A were available from 2006. Before that, the company contacted universities directly to recruit graduates. The résumés submitted to the company, if any, were

paper-based (printed hard copy), and were kept for a few years and destroyed. Currently, no résumés during 2000 to 2005 are available. From 2006 on, the company has accepted résumés electronically via email or through online job websites. The job vacancies varied year by year. The HR manager randomly picked one position in each year and sent me the résumés available for that position. Table 3.1 shows the year, position, number of résumés provided by the manager, the mode of submission, and number of résumés with an English version. The numbers do not represent the exact quantities of résumés submitted for the positions, but the quantities of résumés that the manager located in the company's archives.

Table 3.1

Résumés collected from Company A

Year	Position	Number	No. / Mode of submission	No. with an English version
2006	Financial manager	5	5 via email 0 via job websites	0
2007	Secretarial staff	12	5 via email 7 via job websites	0
2008	Financial manager	13	2 via email 10 via job websites	0
2009	Customs declaration	18	5 via email 13 via job websites	0
2010	Customs declaration	18	7 via email 11 via job websites	0
2011	Sales representative	5	0 via email 5 via job websites	0
2012	Customer service	29	0 via email 29 via job websites	0
2013	Customs declaration	5	0 via email 5 via job websites	5
2014	Human Resources	5	0 via email 5 via job websites	5
2015	Dispatcher	22	0 via email 22 via job websites	5
Total		132	24 via email 107 via job websites	15

Résumés in Company B are substantially different from those in Company A, as the recruiting practice differed largely between the two companies. A large portion of the résumés in Company B were submitted in person by applicants, and the remaining ones were sent via email. Since the company had not used online job search engines by then, all the résumés received were self-designed rather than in a fixed format as in a job website. A few of them were even hand-written. All the résumés were printed copies, stored in folders according to the year they were received. The earliest ones were in 2004. It was impossible to gather all of them, so I asked the HR manager to randomly pick one (if there were less than 10 résumés that year) or two (if there were more than 10) from each year submitted for the same position, course lecturer. The manager scanned the selected résumés and sent them to me via email. Finally, 18 résumés were collected from 2004 to 2015. Table 3.2 summarizes the résumés from Company B.

Table 3.2

Résumés collected from Company B

No.	Year	An English version	No.	Year	An English version
1	2004		10	2011	
2	2005	Yes	11	2011	
3	2006		12	2012	
4	2007	Yes	13	2012	
5	2008	Yes	14	2013	Yes
6	2009	Yes	15	2014	Yes
7	2009		16	2015	
8	2010	Yes	17	2015	
9	2010		18	2015	Yes

The résumés obtained from Company C were only from 2011 and 2012, mostly submitted through three job search sites. Those in previous years, if any, were not available due to personnel changes. From 2012 to the time I collected data, the company did not hold any large-scale recruitment since most of the positions were filled. The HR manager sent to me all but not a selected number of the résumés he had received in the two years. Table 3.3 shows the open

positions in 2011 and 2012, number of résumés submitted for each of the positions, number of résumés received via email or through job websites, and numbers of résumés with an English version attached.

Table 3.3

Résumés collected from Company C

Position	Number	No. / mode of submission	No. with an English version
Financial staff	65	2 via email 63 via job websites	0 5
Sales manager	8	2 via email 6 via job websites	0 0
Maintenance engineer	24	0 via email 24 via job websites	0 0
Technical support	24	9 via email 15 via job websites	2 5
Foreign trade merchandiser	201	9 via email 192 via job websites	2 65
Total	322	22 via email 300 via job websites	4 75

3.3.1.1.3 Other materials collected

Books that introduce and give instructions on résumé writing were located from the provincial library. The keywords (in Chinese) used in the search query included: 简历 (résumé), 履历 (personal history), 求职 (job search or job application), 实用文书 (documents for practical purposes), and 应用文 (practical writing). The earliest book retrieved was published in 1984, but the physical copy was missing. I paid attention to books with detailed information about résumés, but not those only mentioning the genre randomly or briefly. I also tried to include books published in different years, covering all the keywords mentioned above, and written or edited either by individuals or groups, especially authoritative or influential organizations such as governmental agencies, job search sites, and consulting companies. My selection was influenced by such factors as the collection of books in the library, the availability of a physical copy, and

the relevance to my topic and research purpose. Finally, fifteen books were located covering the keywords mentioned above and published from 1989 to 2015. The books are listed in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Books on résumés retrieved from the provincial library

	Year	Name	Author/Editor	Content
1	1989	[美]求职的艺术 [Am.] <i>The Art of Job Hunting</i>	Individual author (translated from a book published in US in 1983)	Résumé in general
2	2001	[英]撰写简历 [Br.] <i>Creating a Successful CV</i>	Individual author (translated from a book previously published in UK in 1999)	Résumé in general
3	2001	大学生求职英语指南 <i>English for College Graduate Job Search</i>	Individual authors	English used on job search
4	2002	实用文书 200 篇 <i>Documents for Practical Purposes: 200 Samples</i>	Individual authors	Chinese and English résumés
5	2002	求职简历 100 种 <i>100 Types of Résumés</i>	Group editor (by China Employment Training Technical Instruction Center)	Chinese and English résumés
6	2003	实用英语教程 教你写求职信及简历 <i>Practical English Tutorial: How to Write Your Résumé and Cover Letter</i>	Individual authors	Chinese and English résumés
7	2004	应用文写作 <i>Applied Writing</i>	Individual author	Chinese résumés
8	2004	[美]成功英文简历如何写 [Am.] <i>Résumés That Get Jobs</i>	Individual author (translated from a book published in US in 2002)	English résumés
9	2005	HiAll 求职快车: 简历篇 <i>HiAll Job Application Express: The Résumé Chapter</i>	Group editor (by an international education consulting company)	Chinese and English résumés
10	2009	[英]如何写好英文简历 [Br.] <i>Writing a CV that Works</i>	Individual author (translated from a book published in UK in 2002)	English résumés
11	2009	应届生求职简历全攻略 <i>Résumé Strategies for Graduates</i>	Group editor (by the job search site: YingJieSheng.com)	Chinese and English résumés
12	2011	应用文写作 <i>Applied Writing</i>		On Chinese résumés

13	2011	世界 500 强名企模板简历—— 迈进华尔街的简历 <i>Résumés for Fortune 500 – Leading You to Wall Street</i>	Individual author (recommended by HR managers, job search sites, and graduates employment guidance committee)	English résumés
14	2012	这些道理没有人告诉过你 <i>Have People Told You These?</i>	Individual authors	Chinese résumés
15	2015	应用文写作概论 <i>Introduction to Applied Writing</i>	Individual authors	Chinese résumés

Job notices are an important genre related to résumés. They were often posted in newspapers in earlier years and online in recent years. I picked *City X Evening News*, one of the most popular local daily newspapers to gather samples of earlier job postings. Using random sampling, I picked one month in each year and one day in that month to see if any job advertisements were posted. If there was no job posting on that day, I changed to another day until a posting was available. Sometimes, more than one posting was found on the day picked. Based on my search, newspaper job postings appeared as early as in 1983, but disappeared after 2000. These time points might help me map the evolutionary stages of résumé practices in China. The job postings found are listed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Job postings found in City X Evening News

Date	No. of posting(s)	Date	No. of posting(s)
1983-06-17	1	1992-12-11	1
1984-06-07	1	1993-01-07	1
1985-02-12	3	1994-08-23	1
1986-01-23	1	1995-04-06	2
1987-11-04	1	1996-11-03	1
1988-07-19	1	1997-03-11	1
1989-09-02	1	1998-10-26	2
1990-04-04	1	1999-08-04	2
1991-08-05	2	2000-11-20	1

It would be good to have the job postings corresponding to the résumés collected. Unfortunately, they were not available because the postings were usually closed or updated once the vacancies

were filled. A current job notice of Company B can be found on its website, but it is not clear how different it is from those used in the past years.

The official documents related to employment that I collected from the Provincial Archives included: personnel information form, registration form for urban unemployed people, labor contracts, official employment agreement for college graduates used nationally, job offer letters used in businesses in City X, official letters issued by an educational organization or a government-run employment center introducing a person to the business that hires them. These documents helped in my understanding of the settings of résumé practices in China.

In the last research site, a large university, I gathered some teaching materials regarding résumé writing in the graduate-level writing course. A self-compiled, unpublished booklet was used before 2013, which was replaced by a book published in 2013. Aside from these, I also obtained some students' résumés as class assignments but not yet for the actual use of job application.

3.3.1.2 Data analysis

In this part of study, I followed the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach to genre analysis, which often starts with analyzing context that provides knowledge of communicative purpose and discourse community. From there, the analysis turns to an examination of the genre's organization (schematic structure), and then the textual and linguistic features (style, tone, voice, lexico-grammatical features, language patterns, etc.) (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). As outlined by Bhatia (1993), the trajectory that most ESP genre approaches have taken consists of seven steps: 1) placing a genre-text in its situational context; 2) surveying existing research to identify and contextualize the genre; 3) identifying the genre's discourse community, i.e., the writers and readers, and material conditions; 4) collecting data; 5) introducing an ethnographic dimension (this step is debatable); 6) performing textual analysis; and 7) involving a specialist informant to verify findings.

3.3.1.2.1 Contextual analysis

I started with a contextual analysis of the political and economic conditions and physical settings that have set the stage for résumés and shaped this genre in different historical periods in China. This analysis helped me understand the rhetorical situations of résumé practices in these periods and enabled me to see, after analyzing the textual features, how the text is used to achieve the communicative purpose, how the text is organized to address the relationship between authors and audiences, and how the text responds to the material context where it is used. The analysis also informed me about data collection, generation, organization, and analysis.

3.3.1.2.2 Textual analysis

A textual analysis was performed on the résumés from the three companies and other related documents that I had collected. My data were dense and rich, which allowed me opportunities to base my findings on ample incidents. Of course, I needed to “winnow” the data as suggested by Guest, Namey, and Mitchell (2012), deciding which data to use and how to use them. The first step was, therefore, to process the raw data and prepare them for analysis. For example, the résumés were sorted, put in systematically named folders, labeled according to source, year, and target position, and catalogued. This process gave me a chance to look at the entire data, gaining a general sense of the information they carried. Some information directly obtained from this observation included the visual look or overall design of the résumés (designed as forms or not), ways of producing the résumés (self-designing versus filling out a pre-designed form in a job search site), modes of résumé submission (via email or via a job search engine), inclusion of an English version, and time when any changes in these aspects occurred. This information helped in determining résumé stages and deciding how to analyze the résumés.

Based on my contextual analysis and overall reading of the data, the résumés were divided into self-designed versus filled-out in a pre-designed template in a job search site. The self-designed

résumés submitted to a company were labeled first with the initial SD for self-designed, then a letter representing the company (e.g., A for Company A), and finally a number (e.g., SDA1, SDA2, etc.). They were further divided according to the evolutionary stages. Those submitted through a job website were stacked into years with applicants' names sequenced alphabetically, labeled first with the name of the website, then a letter for the company, and then a number (e.g., ZHAOPINA1, 51JOBA1, 01HRC1, CHINAHRC1, etc.). These résumés formed the pool from which samples were chosen for analysis later. Besides this, since different job websites may differ in résumé content areas or in their prioritized or emphasized elements, the résumé templates in the four websites used by the three companies were compared to identify commonalities and differences.

Given the rapid development and change of the résumé genre in China and the limited research that has been done on it, I took a descriptive and explanatory approach, grounded theory in particular, to analyze my data. Grounded theory is seen as good for exploring a social phenomenon, disciplined development of new ideas, and finding theory and structure in domains where there is no *a priori* guidance. The method does not require a preconceived hypothesis, which makes it particularly suitable for my analysis since the little evidence found in the literature does not afford a valuable hypothesis about résumé practices in China. In addition, grounded theory goes beyond regular description and explanation; it seeks explanation of real-world events by looking into the processes under the data, developing concepts at different levels of abstraction, comparing and relating the concepts, and finally reaching a theoretical explanation of why events are happening the way they are.

Grounded theory is seen as a complete research methodology that consists of multiple steps for data analysis. The steps include open coding of the data for conceptual understanding, constant comparison of codes, concepts, and categories as they emerge from the data, memo writing for clarity of thoughts, discovery of core categories to be the focus for selective coding, and

theoretical coding that investigates the links between categories (Georgieva & Allan, 2008, p. 45). Applying the steps systematically makes the analysis coherent and rigorous, leading to holistic conclusions. The process of grounded theory has been discussed extensively. Figure 3.1 is a visualization of the process by Charmaz (2014, p. 18). It can be seen that the pivotal link between collecting data and developing a theoretical account of the data is coding.

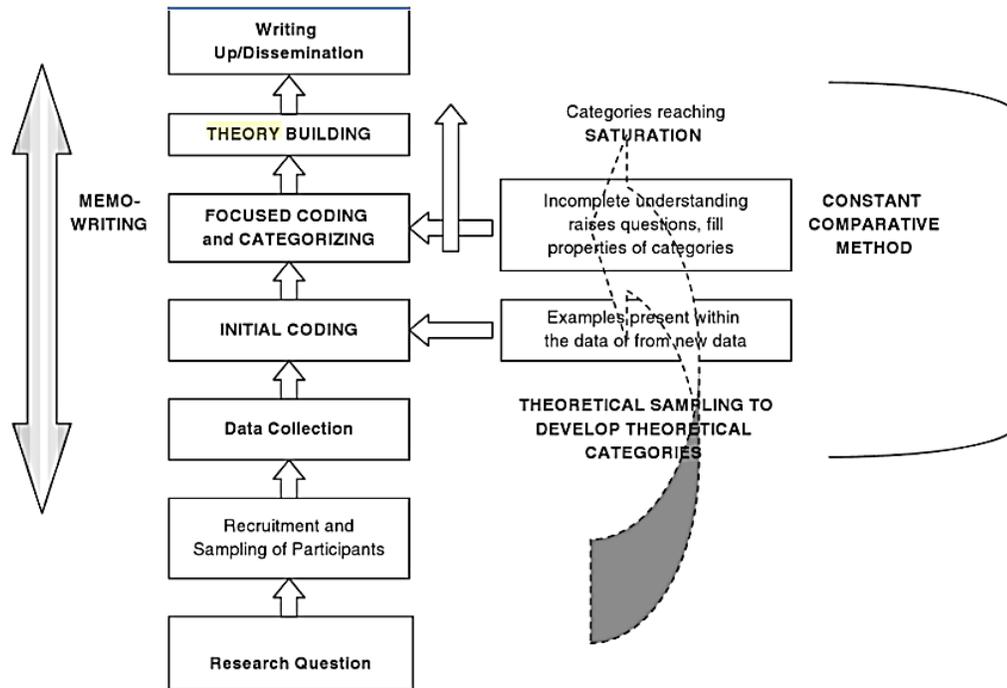


Figure 3.1. A visual representation of a grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014, p. 18)

Grounded theory coding consists of at least two main phases: “1) an initial phase involving naming each word, line, or segment of data followed by 2) a focused, selective phase that uses the most significant or frequent initial codes to sort, synthesize, integrate, and organize large amounts of data” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 46). Initial coding entails a close reading of the data for analytic ideas to pursue in further data collection and analysis. Focused coding pinpoints and develops the most salient categories in large batches of data. These coding phases are not linear, but rather iterative. Data are analyzed by constant comparison, initially of data with data, progressing to comparison between their interpretations translated into codes and categories, and categories are

compared with earlier data when needed. This iterative process is better represented in Figure 3.2, a figure in an earlier book of Charmaz (2006, p. 11).

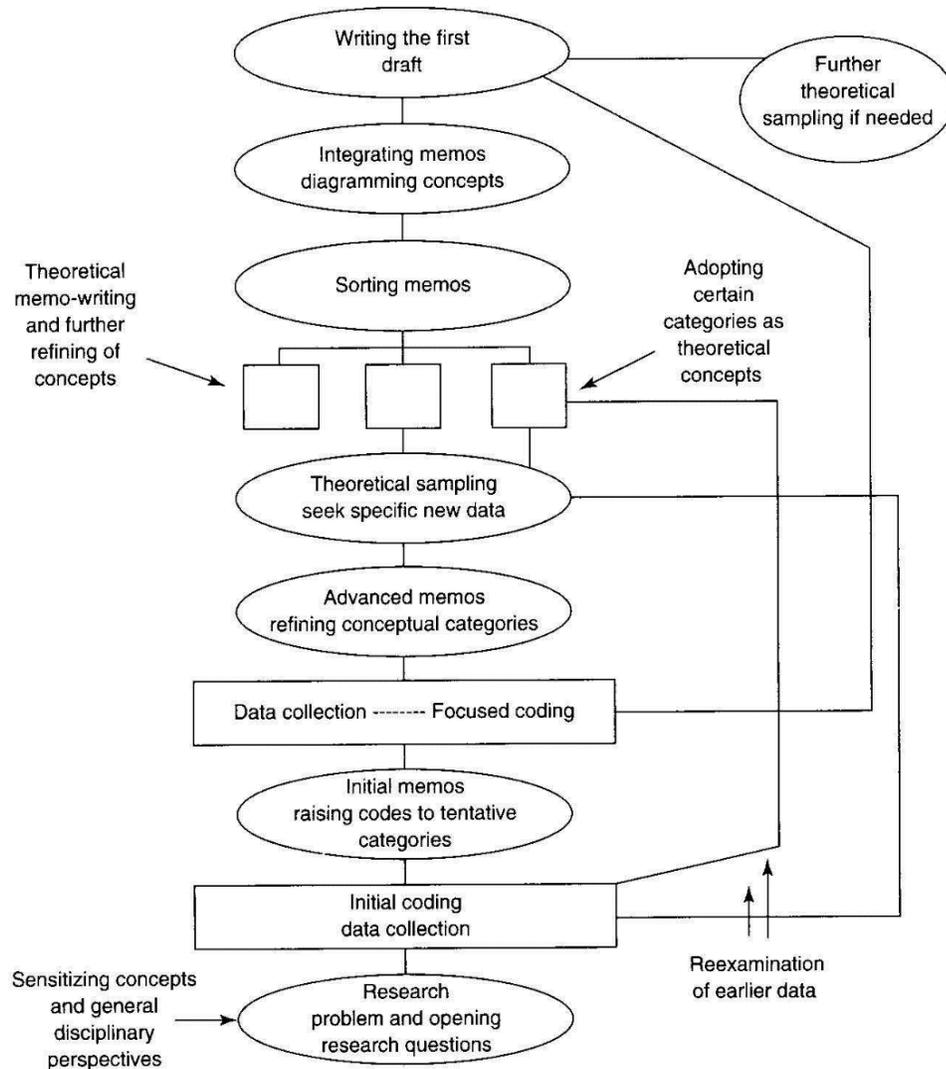


Figure 3.2. The grounded theory process (Charmaz, 2006, p. 11)

In my coding of the résumés, I coded segment-by-segment when the text was presented in a table or a segment format, and line-by-line if the text was in a paragraph format. My initial codes were largely terms taken from the language of the résumés. This was to preserve the texts' meanings as much as possible. I used many *in vivo* codes such as “籍贯 (ancestral hometown),” “户口

(household registration),” and “政治面貌 (political affiliation),” which are Chinese terms for significant meanings but their English translations are long. The initial codes were later grouped and conceptualized. Some codes transferred into names of categories; others became subcategories or properties of categories with a higher level of conceptualization or abstraction. An example of initial coding is provided in Appendix A.

After I finished coding the first 5 résumés, I examined the codes to see if any of them needed to be reworded to improve their fit with the data, and compared the codes to see similarities and differences and what patterns emerged. A memo was written to note down the codes and categories, and to clarify my thoughts. After that, I continued to code the next five. The experience of coding the first five texts fed into this stage as I became more theoretically sensitive and gained a sense of conceptual control over the data. The codes in these five texts were compared with those in the first five and with the emerging categories as noted in the memo. New codes, new categories, modifications, and reflections were noted down by writing another memo. This procedure of coding-comparing-memoing repeated until no new codes emerged to add to the set of concepts. The initial coding ended with concepts and emerging categories which gave me possible analytic directions. From there, focused coding started.

Focused coding means “using the most significant and/or frequent earlier codes to sift through large amounts of data” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 58). The codes that appeared more frequently among the initial codes and those with more significance than other codes were taken as the focused codes and were used to sift, sort, synthesize, and analyze the rest of the résumés. This was again a comparative process. One goal of this phase was to determine the adequacy and conceptual strength of the initial codes. This was done by comparing the initial codes with new data to see how the codes revealed patterns and which of the codes best accounted for the data. This process allowed me to further distinguish codes that had greater analytic power and codes that might be promising tentative categories. It gave me insight into how to manage my emerging analysis.

After coding the first group of résumés, I performed the initial and focused coding procedure on other groups as well as other text materials. This time, I became more familiar with the techniques because of the coding experience. The experience did not prevent me from being open minded; instead, the conceived concepts sensitized me to ask particular questions and pay attention to particular aspects while remaining open to all theoretical directions in the coding tasks. Finally, the obtained codes in different groups of résumés and other materials were compared to reveal any changes in the résumé genre over its evolutionary stages, any influences of related texts on this document, any differences caused by the changes in technology and recruitment methods, and any impacts of different cultures and languages on the practice of the genre.

3.3.2 Part Two: Perception and practice of résumé practitioners

This part examines how different groups of résumé practitioners perceive and practice the genre in the current time. Roughly, three groups of practitioners were addressed: writers (job seekers), readers (application reviewers such as HR managers/staff), and instructors (career service counselors and writing teachers). The research sought to answer the following questions:

RQ2-1: How are résumés perceived and produced by job seekers?

RQ2-2: How are résumés perceived and used by application reviewers?

RQ2-3: How are résumés perceived and taught by résumé instructors?

RQ2-4: Are there discrepancies in terms of perception and practice among different groups of résumé practitioners?

The data in this part were collected through surveys and interviews from the three Chinese companies and the university described previously. Data in each group of practitioners were analyzed to understand people's opinions about the résumé and how they write, read, and teach it. The opinions were compared between different groups to uncover any commonalities or

discrepancies. The analysis and comparison would help answer some questions that are important and have practical implications, for example:

- How do different groups of practitioners perceive the need for and role of résumés in job seeking? Are there any commonalities and discrepancies in their opinions?
- How do job seekers produce résumés? What do they find helpful or unhelpful in the process?
- What instructions have the job seekers received? What courses or training programs regarding the résumé are available in the university? Are the instructions effective or sufficient?
- How do different groups of practitioners perceive the need for résumé training? What types of training are seen as feasible or optimal?
- Do writers, readers and instructors of résumés hold similar criteria for effective or ineffective résumés? Are there any concerns of the current résumé practice?
- How do application reviewers in different companies think, read, and use résumés?
- Do job seekers know how résumés are read and used by recruiters and what recruiters look for in résumés? Do they tailor their résumés to the needs of employers?
- Do instructors know how résumés are read and used by recruiters and what recruiters look for in résumés? Do they include this understanding in their teaching?

Data collection took place in the Summer of 2015 when the institutional review board (IRB) approval was obtained from Oklahoma State University (Appendix N). Written consent was collected from all the participants of interviews. The subjects in surveys were given freedom to decide whether to finish the questionnaire or not; those who filled out the questionnaire were seen as giving consent to participate. The following subsections explain how data were collected and analyzed in each group of practitioners.

3.3.2.1 Data collection

3.3.2.1.1 Interviews of writing teachers and career counselors

The university mentioned previously was set as the research site. I targeted English teachers there because English courses seemed to be the only chance that students could get some training in writing. No courses related to Chinese writing were offered in the university. The English courses were offered in the first two years at the undergraduate level and in the first year at the graduate level. The first-year undergraduate courses were fairly basic, primarily on language skills. The second-year courses were of a greater variety and more on application of the language. There was even a Business English course, in which the topic of résumé was very likely to be covered. The relevant graduate-level course being offered then was on advanced writing in English. Since the first-year undergraduates might not have been involved in career planning or professional training, I focused on only the second-year undergraduates and first-year graduates and, in turn, the teachers teaching these students.

I contacted as many teachers as I could through email or phone, explaining my research and how they were expected to involve in. Finally, eleven teachers (4 teaching graduate-level courses and 7 teaching undergraduate-level courses) agreed to participate, willing to be receive interviews and help with student surveys later. These teachers were heterogeneous in their age (range 33 to 48), gender (4 males and 7 females), professional title (8 lecturers and 3 associate professors), teaching/work experience (3 with other work experiences prior to being teachers in the university), and overseas experience (5 with experience visiting a US or UK university). Information obtained from them, hopefully, would represent that of many college English teachers in China.

The interviews were semi-structured. Many qualitative research methods recommend that interviews be pre-planned to follow a structured or semi-structured framework that facilitates data

analysis, keeps interviews in focus, and avoids waste of time (Georgieva & Allan, 2008).

Following this recommendation, a set of basic, open-ended questions were pre-designed, seeking information in the topic areas listed below (See Appendix B for the questions). During the interviews, I let the participants elaborate on whatever they considered important or relevant. The interviewees would not be interrupted as long as their responses were relevant to this research project. The topic areas covered in the interviews include:

- their experience in writing résumés in either Chinese or English
- their education or training in résumé writing, if any
- their ideas about good or bad things regarding résumé writing
- their perceptions of the role of résumé in job application
- courses or training programs involving résumé writing in the university, if any
- their experience in teaching résumé writing, if any
- their opinions of necessity of résumé writing instructions in college education

The interviews were carried out at the times planned during the initial contact. In most cases, the interviewees met me in their offices. The atmosphere was relaxing and pleasant. The participants were friendly and most of them showed interest in my research project. All of them gave me permission to audiotape the interviews, probably because they were used to giving speech in public as being teachers and did not feel uncomfortable being audiotaped. I also took notes when I noticed anything interesting. The interviews were done in Chinese, the mother tongue of the teachers, which made them feel more comfortable and confident. The longest interview lasted for 70 minutes, during which the teacher showed me the books they used for the class related to the résumé topic, and the shortest was 25 minutes.

Interviews of career service counselors in the Graduate Career Guidance Center of the university underwent a similar process. The Center takes care of the paperwork needed when a student

graduates and gets employed, such as the student's *dang'an* (dossier) and *pai qian zheng* (an official letter issued by the university sending the student to the employer). It also provides services to help students get employed, similar to what the US university career services do. The Center has around 20 people as regular staff, being in charge of different types of affairs. I personally know one of the staff, so I contacted her and she then introduced three of her colleagues that she thought would be of help. The Initial contact was made to explain the research and set the scene for data collection. Data were collected in a subsequent in-depth interview (See Appendix C for the questions), with the possibility of a third short interview over phone to clarify any points of uncertainty. Altogether three career service staff were interviewed to gather information in the following areas:

- the services related to résumé writing that are provided by the center
- their perceptions of the role of résumé in job application
- their opinions of English résumés in Chinese job market
- their ideas about good or bad things regarding résumé writing
- their understanding of how résumés are read by recruiters
- any changes that they think the center needs to make regarding résumé training

Two of the interviews were brief, lasting for 20 to 30 minutes, in which the interviewees introduced general information about the center and its services. The third one was a lot longer, during which the interviewee provided more detailed information about the activities and services regarding résumés that were organized by the center, and shared his personal opinions about résumé practices and training.

3.3.2.1.2 Interviews of HR officers

The HR managers of the three companies were interviewed. One of them introduced to me another HR officer in a larger state-owned foreign trade company (Company D) located in City Z,

a big city in central China. The interview process was the same as described above. An initial contact was made via phone or email to get acquainted with the interviewee, introduce the present research, inform the participant of potential areas of questions, and make an appointment. Two managers were interviewed face-to-face, and the one in City Z was interviewed via online voice call. Similarly, a set of questions (See Appendix D) were planned in advance to guide my data collection and keep the interviews on track. The following topic areas were covered by the questions:

- general information of the company
- recruitment practice in the company
- the role of résumés in the recruitment process
- their experiences of reviewing résumés
- their opinions of effective and ineffective résumés
- any ideas or experience regarding résumés

The three face-to-face interviews were conducted in the participants' work sites. The HR managers not only answered my questions and shared their opinions, but also showed how they actually reviewed résumés. The interviews were audiotaped upon permission. Notes were taken when needed.

3.3.2.1.3 Surveys and interviews of job seekers

Students in the university were seen as job seekers (those with application experience) or potential job seekers (those without application experience). I surveyed students in the English classes taught by the teachers I had interviewed. In other words, the student participants were second-year undergraduates and first-year graduates from various majors who took English classes.

Résumé writing is more likely a topic covered in classes such as Business English or Practical Writing. The English department in the university offered a Business English class for the second-year undergraduates at the time when I was doing the surveys, so I purposefully collected information from both students taking the Business English class and those not in such a class to see whether there would be any differences or not. By the time the surveys were carried out (in June, the end of the second semester of the academic year), the students were about to finish their college English learning and should have already received instructions on résumé writing if there were any. Graduate students were included because some of them might have experience on job searching when graduating from college. In addition, graduate students were heterogeneous in their education and career experience, which hopefully would provide a broader range of information to my study.

Altogether 11 classes were recruited, one from each of the eleven teachers that I had interviewed. A questionnaire was distributed and filled out anonymously in a class setting with the help of the teacher. The teacher first read aloud a script introducing the research project and explaining what the students were expected to do and then distributed the questionnaire. Students were encouraged to participate by being told that they would receive instructions on how to write résumés in English offered by a technical writing instructor from a US university after the survey. Of course, students could choose not to participate. The questionnaire took around 15 minutes to fill out. It contained multiple choice questions (including Likert scale, single-answer, and multiple-answer) and open-ended questions (short-answer) covering the following topic areas (See Appendix E):

- their experience in résumé education or training if any
- their need for writing résumés
- their ways of writing résumés
- their understanding of the role of résumés on job searching

- their opinions of the necessity of résumé education/training in college

A total number of 160 responses were obtained from 4 graduate-level classes; 50 undergraduate students in two Business English classes responded to the survey, and 175 students in 5 other second-year English classes finished the questionnaire.

The survey was followed by two focus group interviews, one with 5 graduate students (Focus Group I) and the other with 13 undergraduates (Focus Group II). The students were from different classes, who volunteered to participate. The topics in the interviews were similar to those in the questionnaire, but participants were encouraged to discuss, sharing understanding and opinions, and agreeing or disagreeing with each other but not having to vote or reach any consensus.

During the focus group, I observed the students' interaction and noted down their discussion. The observations and notes would be analyzed together with the survey results to identify trends and patterns in students' perceptions.

I tried to negotiate with the teachers for some chances to offer instructions on résumé writing to the students participating the surveys. Unfortunately, none of them could find any time for me to do it in class. I had to ask them to distribute my contact information and encourage students to consult me. I then got emails and phone calls from a number of students (even after I came back to the US), and some of them sent me their résumés for feedback.

In addition to college students, I also recruited job seekers with work experience. While I interviewed the HR managers in the two companies in City X, I requested them to allow me to meet with some company staff who had successful experience in writing and using résumés in job application. I finally talked with two employees, one from each company, briefly, since they were not be away from their work for too long. The questions asked were similar to those in the student survey, with more attention paid to their experience of writing the résumés and how they made progress. In addition to these two company employees, the eleven college teachers were also seen

as experienced job seekers and were interviewed for their experiences of résumé writing and training.

3.3.2.2 Data analysis

The audios of the interviews were transcribed (in Chinese, the language used in the interviews) at the earliest time available. Any notes that I had taken during the interviews and any quick thoughts that came up during transcription were typed down in a separate column in the transcripts (See Appendix F for an example of the transcript and notes). I browsed through the transcripts multiple times to get familiar with the data. After all the audios were transcribed, I began to code.

I read a transcript line-by-line carefully and labeled relevant words, phrases, sentences, or sections. The labels represented concepts, opinions, activities, processes, similarities, differences, or whatever I thought was relevant (see examples in Appendix F). I paid particular attention to things that appeared or were mentioned multiple times, that were explicitly stated as important by the interviewees, and that had certain connections with previously conceived or reported concepts, theories, or issues. The codes in different transcripts were compared back and forth. Some codes were changed, some were combined to form new codes, and some were dropped. Through this process, the most important codes were identified and categories were emerging. From here on, my coding became more abstract, and I was conceptualizing my data. I then labeled, or named, the categories and looked into the connections between them.

For the survey data, descriptive statistics were performed on multiple choice questions to illustrate the participants' descriptions of the résumé instructions they received, estimations of their future need for résumés, their perceptions of the importance of résumés on job searching, and their views of the necessity of résumé instruction at college. Answers to the open-ended questions were coded to search for themes or patterns existing among the participants' opinions.

The categories and connections between categories identified from each set of interview or survey data helped answer my questions about the perceptions and practices of different groups of résumé practitioners. The categories were also compared among different groups to uncover shared or inconsistent opinions. This comparison would help answer some important questions and inform future résumé practices. All the interviews transcripts were compiled into one document, named Interview Transcript, and paginated. The survey responses were extracted from the questionnaires and put in one file; same or similar responses were counted and recorded; and the notes from the focus group interviews were inserted to corresponding places. This file was named Survey and Focus Group. In the following chapters, I will refer to these two documents when I report and discuss my data and findings.

An Outline of the Following Chapters

In the following four chapters, I will report and discuss my findings in this study. Chapter IV presents my historical analysis of résumé practices in China, based on which the features of résumés in each evolutionary stage are described, the changes over time are illustrated, and the influences of socio-cultural factors and related documents are visualized. Chapter V reports the results of interviews and surveys regarding how different groups of people perceive and practice résumés in the current time. Chapter VI discusses the findings from the two parts of research. Finally, Chapter VII summarizes the study and discusses the implications of the findings for future résumé practice and research.

CHAPTER IV

EMERGENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF RÉSUMÉS IN CHINA

This chapter presents the findings in the first part of my research. The determination of evolutionary stages of résumés in China is presented up front. Résumé practices in each of the determined stages are then described by examining the discourse features of the collected résumés and their connections with some relevant documents. The historical context is revisited to help understand the features.

4.1 Evolutionary Stages of Résumés in China

The résumé, as a professional communication genre which serves as one of the crucial steps towards employment, does not have a long history in China. We can understand the trajectory of its developmental by examining the historical contexts that involve policy changes, economic development, and educational reform in the past few decades in the country. The résumés from the three Chinese companies, the recruitment behaviors of the companies, and the relevant documents and materials that I collected also provide evidence as to when and how résumés have been used. The milestones in terms of historical events and the collected data are presented in Figure 4.1. In brief, the résumé emerged in the 1990s and began to be used widely after 2000. By now, the genre has experienced three major stages: the emergence stage from the mid-1990s to the end of the 20th century, the self-design and direct submission stage from the beginning of the 21st century to the late 2000s, and the web submission stage till now.

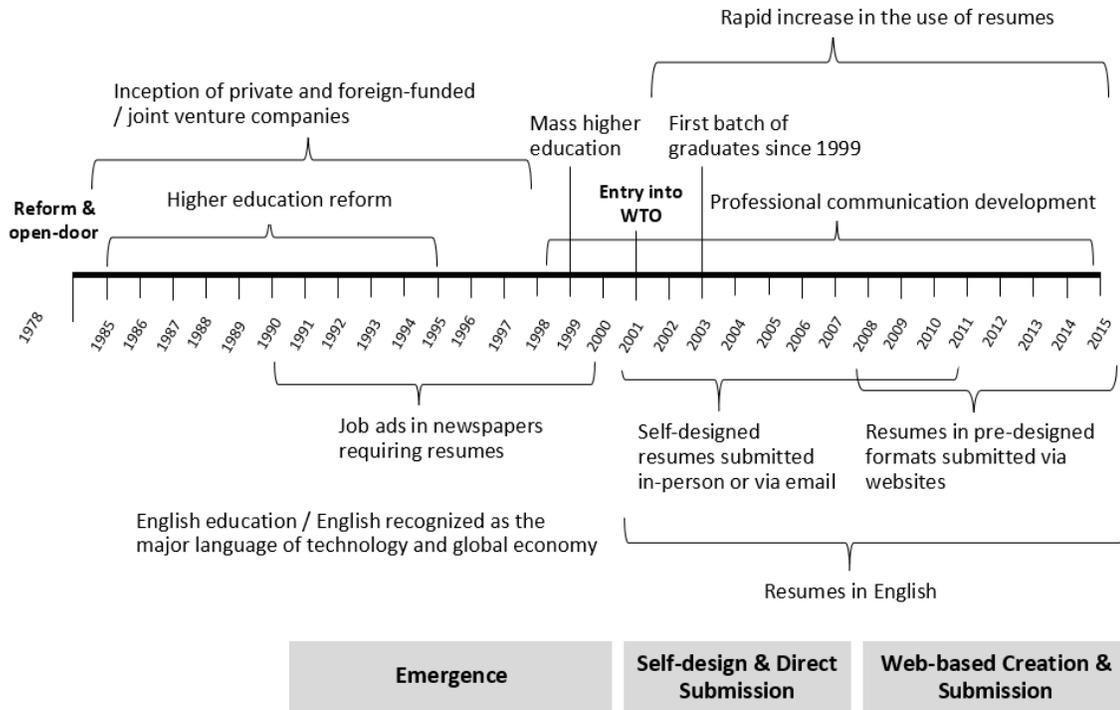


Figure 4.1. Milestones regarding résumé practices in China

China's reform and open-door policy which began in 1978 had profound influences on multiple facets of social life. Before 1978, the economic institutions for agriculture and industry operated essentially under a centrally-planned system. The government controlled production, consumption, and labor, and state-owned enterprises were the dominant type of businesses. The education system as part of the economic and social infrastructure was run and controlled completely by the government. Higher education served the manpower needs for developing the country. The institutions, their majors, and numbers of students enrolled were all set and controlled by the government. Students received free education, but they had no freedom in choosing their career destinations (Bai, 2006). Upon graduation, each student was assigned to a work unit as pre-planned and was required to arrive for duty within the scheduled time. The process of job assignment was usually arranged by college placement offices. An agreement was signed among three parties: the graduate (employee), the work unit (employer), and the institution (an agent representing the government) (see Appendix G for an example of the agreement). The

institution would then issue to the student a notification for registration (*baodao zheng*), which indicated information of the student, the employer, and the time for checking in. The student had to carry this notification to report his or her arrival to the designated employer upon the scheduled date. Such a notification has been used even today. The difference is that the title of the notification before 1985 contained the term “unified job assignment (*tongyi fenpei*),” whereas such term was removed after 1985. This difference is exemplified in Appendix H, which gives two notifications for graduate employment registration (retrieved from the Provincial Archives). One is of a graduate from a technical secondary school in 1981 and the other is of a college graduate in 1997.

Beginning in 1978, several major institutional reforms have been undertaken. One of them is of Chinese enterprises. It started by giving state enterprises some autonomy in production, marketing and investment decisions, proceeded to introducing “contract responsibility system” to the enterprises in 1987, and finally moved to giving up ownership and control of small and medium-sized state enterprises while keeping the control of large ones in the late 1990’s (as stated in the report of Jiang Zemin to the Congress of the Communist Party in September 1997) (Chow, 2004). The outcome of these changes is the inception and development of privately-owned enterprises, which enjoy more independence, autonomy, or freedom in all aspects of business operation, including recruitment.

Under the open-door policy, foreign trade and foreign investment are encouraged. Local governments were given autonomy to promote exports. Trading companies were established in cooperation with industrial enterprises manufacturing products for export, and these companies were responsible for their own profits and losses. By 1998, the volume of foreign trade increased to 37% of gross domestic product (Chow, 2004), and foreign trade companies gained more weight in the national economy. Meanwhile, foreign investors were encouraged to set up factories or businesses, independently or jointly with Chinese enterprises. The number of foreign-funded

companies or joint ventures increased enormously. Foreign investment increased from an annual rate of less than one billion US dollars in 1978 to nearly 30 billion in 1998 (Chow, 2004).

The rapidly developing non-state enterprises were hungry for educated labor power, but only state-owned enterprises had the privilege of receiving college graduates under the planned economy. The tension between the supply and demand for educated manpower increased drastically, which in turn sharpened the conflict between the labor distribution under government control and the actual needs in the workforce market. At the same time, many non-state enterprises offered positions with better payment, benefits, work environment, and opportunities for career development or promotion. These offers were appealing to not only graduates who needed to get employed, but also employed people who wanted to move to more promising positions. Consequently, some graduates refused the jobs assigned to them and chose to find jobs by themselves, and some employed people left their stable and secure positions for new opportunities. These tensions and actions urged changes in the Chinese higher education sector to cope with the new social conditions.

Along with China moving from the planned economy to a market-oriented economy, the higher education institutions also experienced a transition starting from 1985 (Bai, 2006). More market forces were introduced into the higher education sector. Individual institutions gained more autonomy in enrollment, finance, and job assignment. The role of college placement offices changed from assigning jobs to guiding students to get employed. They hosted job fairs on campus and served no longer as a delegate of the government but as a mediator of an employment agreement between an employer and a graduate (Hoffman, 2001). The previous direct assignments and local implementation of state plans gave way to a new two-way selection, in which different types of enterprises gained access to the workforce desired, while graduates and other job seekers enjoyed freedom and more options for employment. The transition from the unified job assignment to an autonomous mutual choice between work units and individuals

completed nationally by the mid-1990s; since then, college graduates and other job seekers across the country have come to make their own career decisions and manage their own professional development rather than expecting a job assigned (Hoffman, 2006). It was this transition that gave birth to the genre of résumé (Li, 2011a).

To facilitate the voluntary decisions of employers and job seekers, vocational guidance and career counseling services rapidly developed (Zhang, Hu, & Pope, 2002). Organizations such as Talent Service Center (*rencai fuwu zhongxin*) and Talent Market (*rencai shichang*), usually run by the municipal government's personnel bureau, were set up to offer services such as hosting job fairs, providing a computer database system for employers and employees, and helping people manage their personal archival documents and insurance records outside of their workplace. The first such center was established in the city of Shenyang in 1983 (Hoffman, 2006). A national system of college/university career services was developed from 1998 to the early 2000s (Garis, Dalton, Akin, & Wang, 2003). With governmental support, various school counseling models, programs, and materials emerged first in big cities and spread out quickly to all areas. Through these services, seasonal job fairs were held in all parts of the country. Company representatives stationed themselves at tables, posting announcements of open positions and desired credentials for the jobs on the wall behind them. Job seekers approached the tables to introduce themselves, and oftentimes went through a question-answer process similar to the face-to-face interviews today. Sometimes, a résumé would be required by the company representative or handed in by the job seeker.

However, résumé was just emerging and was not used widely in this period of employment reform (roughly from 1985 to 1995). Traditional ways of hiring and new recruitment strategies coexisted. Some companies, especially state-owned, still allowed an employee who reached the age of retirement to have a family member take his or her place, a practice known as “*jieban*”. Many small companies hired people based on recommendations from people they knew. As for

recruiting college graduates, a common practice of companies, not only state-owned but also privately-owned, was to contact the graduate placement offices in universities rather than reaching the students directly. The offices then passed the job information to department heads, professional consultants, or advisors, and asked them to recommend students as candidates. These recommended students would go to the arranged interviews, and a résumé might not be needed. Another way of hiring was that a company announced in a newspaper or on a poster the message of hiring. A résumé was sometimes required. It was also popular that the job posting indicated a particular date and place for people to present in person to sign up. The candidates would be asked to fill out a registration form at the site, which contained items such as personal information, education, work experience, family information, skills and hobbies, and awards or punishment received. Oftentimes the candidate was required to bring a recent identification photo to adhere to the form. The form would be used later for screening the applicants and making recruitment decisions.

The data I collected support the analysis above. The job advertisements in the newspaper (see Table 3.5) appeared as early as in 1983, a few years after the release of the open-door and reform policy and about the time when college reform started. However, early advertisements did not require a résumé to be submitted. It was until 1990 that such requirement appeared, but the names of the required documents varied, such as 资历 (qualifications and professional experience) and 履历 (experience or personal details). After 1995, a résumé became a regular requirement in job advertisements and the term 简历 (résumé) began to be used consistently. However, I could not collect any résumés used in this period. The three companies included in this study were all founded after 1999. I contacted the personnel staff in other organizations with longer history, including a state-owned factory established in the 1970s and a university founded in 1896, but none of them could provide a résumé used before 2000. Rarely did the organizations require résumés at that time. Even though some résumés were submitted, they were paper copies or even

hand-written, hard to keep, and hard to locate after so many years. This fact indicates, more or less, that résumés appeared but were not regularly used even a few years after the completion of job assignment reform. The books on résumés that I found in the public library provide additional evidence of the lack of résumé practices before 2000. Only one book published before 2000 was located; all others were published after 2000.

In brief, the Chinese higher education institutions began to transit to enterprises and moved from a unified job assignment system to mutual choice system from the mid-1980s, and the transition completed in the mid-1990s. During this period, résumés emerged to serve for the emerging needs of bridging job seekers and employers, but they were not put into wide use until the turn of the 21st century due to the fact that people needed time to abandon old means and adopt new strategies. The hand-filled registration or application documents, as described previously, might be seen as the embryonic form of the résumé genre in China.

The beginning of the 21st century was an important point in the history of résumés in China. In December 2001, China entered into the WTO, gaining open recognition of its position in the world economic community. This ushered in a new era of China's development and globalization. The country began to perform more actively in the global economy. Both domestic and foreign-invested companies increased dramatically in number and scale, which resulted in an increased need for a workforce. To reach more candidates and recruit more efficiently, companies adopted a more time-saving recruitment strategy – soliciting résumés from job seekers.

In another aspect, more people entered the job market and searched for jobs, which promoted the use of résumés because the documents enabled people to “show” themselves without face-to-face interaction with the employers and allowed them to contact as many potential employers as possible. A major cause of the increase in job seekers was the expansion in the tertiary education sector in China. In 1999, the Chinese government decided to accelerate the pace of higher

education growth by expanding college enrollment. The national enrollment rose from 10.5% in 1999 to 15% in 2002, achieving the national goal of “mass higher education” which means over 15 percent of the high school graduates have access to higher education (Trow, 1976). In 2004, the enrollment reached 19%; the number of students in higher education institutions reached 20 million, which made China the largest higher education sector in the world (Bai, 2006). The students who enrolled in 1999, the first year of college expansion, graduated in 2003. This means more graduates entered the job market in 2003 as compared with 2002. The trend continued, with an increasing number of students graduating each year, seeking and competing for jobs. This situation promoted as well as consolidated the use of résumés on job searching. Meanwhile, it posed challenges to application reviewers, who had to deal with huge numbers of résumés. Later, their pain was alleviated by the development of computer technology and the Internet. Hence, a new stage of résumé practices relying heavily on modern technology arrived.

In the recent ten years, companies have exploited the Internet to facilitate their business in every aspect. Most of them have built their own websites to introduce products, offer services, issue news, and keep contact with the outside world. Information about open positions and channels for applications are often regular components of such websites. Job seekers visit the websites of target companies and send in their résumés to the addresses indicated in the postings or through links provided on the websites. In this case, it is critical that job seekers can locate the companies and further the open positions posted on the websites. Otherwise, they will miss the job information. On the other hand, companies have to wait passively for applications, but not search actively for promising applicants. This particularly limits the hiring choices of small-scale or not well-known companies. To reach more potential candidates, most companies today recruit through broader platforms – job search sites. These websites greatly increase the chances for a job notice to be read and for a job seeker to find desired positions. When a job seeker locates a suitable position in such a website, he or she may submit a résumé by filling out a form pre-

designed by the website. Among the résumés that I collected from the Chinese companies, most of those before 2007 were submitted either in person or via email, while those after 2008 were largely through company websites or job search sites.

In short, résumés have been widely used since the beginning of the 21st century. From 2001 to around 2007, job seekers often submitted self-designed résumés directly to the company personnel staff either in person (by talking to the recruiter in a job fair or visiting the company, for example) or via email. Since 2008 on, most job seekers have applied for jobs through public job search sites, where they need to create their résumés following the pre-designed template offered on the job search site that they are using. When people apply for jobs posted on company websites (not through a public job search site), they may need to submit either their self-designed résumés or to fill out a form designed by the target company. However, the use of job search sites is predominant at this stage.

One thing worth noting is the involvement of the English language in résumés used in China. Multiple factors have contributed to forming this phenomenon. The open-door policy and economic development that started decades ago also promoted the introduction and absorption of new ideas and knowledge from the outside world. Foreign scholars and professionals of all kinds were invited to China. The Ministry of Education sponsored programs to cooperate with foreign educational institutions to improve education in China, and individual universities were given the freedom to invite foreign scholars (Chow, 2004). From 1978, foreign language education, especially English education, was established as a formal discipline in higher education in China to cope with the use of English as the major language of technology and hence of the global economy. Within a little more than 10 years, a large number of Chinese universities or colleges had foreign language departments and many of them offered master's degrees in English language and literature (Barnum et al., 2001). English education became a solid component in schools at all levels. After China's entry into the WTO at the beginning of the twenty-first

century, English education gained another great momentum to cater to the need for the language when international corporations began to invest heavily in the country and built economic partnerships with China (Cheng & Wang, 2012).

As China becomes increasingly globalized, there seem to be more potential opportunities where English may be used. Some foreign-invested companies have English as the working language, or at least employees need to communicate in English with colleagues from other parts of the world or global clients. Foreign trade companies do business with overseas customers, so their staff need to use English at their jobs. Even companies currently not involved in any foreign business prefer to hire employees with certain English language ability in case someday or somewhere the language would be needed. In response to such needs, many companies require or prefer applicants to submit English résumés as evidence of their language ability. Many job seekers provide an English résumé in the hope that it would increase the chance of impressing the recruiter and getting an interview invitation. Based on my résumé samples, inclusion of an English résumé is largely decided by the job itself. For jobs that require or potentially need the language ability, an English version might be provided. When a job had nothing to do with the English language, there was no need to submit an English résumé. However, the involvement of English in Chinese people's résumé practices is a prominent phenomenon.

At the same time, job seekers from all over the world come to China looking for opportunities. Some of them even target positions in Chinese companies. The majority of them use English as the working language and write résumés in English. Many job seekers consider the local conventions and hope to make their résumés meet the needs of target employers. Instructions on how to write résumés for China are available online, for example, in *echinacities.com* and *at0086.com*. These instructions often inform readers about unique Chinese résumé elements. Following such instructions, the résumés will bear some non-US features. Such practices make the situation in China even more complicated.

In conclusion, my examination of the historical contexts and my collected data leads to an identification of three stages that résumé practices in China has undergone: the emergence stage when résumés just appeared but were not widely used; the self-design and direct submission stage when résumés were largely self-designed and were submitted by applicants directly to HR staff in person or via email; the web-based creation and submission stage when résumés are intensively created following a pre-designed format offered by a job search site and are submitted through the website in use. The following parts describe the features of résumés in each of these stages and look into the differences between résumés in different times and created or submitted in different ways.

4.2 Stage I: Emergence

As analyzed above, the social changes in the 1980s gave rise to the résumé genre in China. From the mid-1980s, résumés began to appear, gained recognition gradually, and performed an increasingly important role in the recruiting processes. Unfortunately, I was unable to collect any real résumés used at this stage. My understanding of the document is based on the examination of some related materials, including job advertisements and personnel archives. Below I discuss in detail the inception of this genre and the prospected textual features of résumés in this early stage.

4.2.1 Inception of the résumé genre

Like any other genres, the résumé appeared and developed in response to social needs and recurrent situations. The social needs of résumés are typically represented in job advertisements where employers announce what they require from applicants regarding the recruiting process. My search of the job postings in the local newspaper, *City X Evening News*, revealed that the postings began to appear in 1983 but disappeared after 2000. Using stratified random sampling, I collected altogether 24 postings within the 18 years (see Table 3.5). An overall look at the postings showed a pretty identifiable demarcation that a résumé or résumé-like document was not

required until after 1990. Based on this observation, I divided the postings into two time periods: 1983-1989 (7 years, 9 postings), and 1990-2000 (11 years, 15 postings). From each period, 5 postings were randomly picked for investigation. The selected 10 postings were from:

- a construction company
- a textile factory
- a real estate company
- a shopping mall
- a computer company
- a museum
- a bank
- a restaurant
- a hotel
- a photo studio

The open positions included worker, technical staff, manager, accounting staff, secretarial position, sales representative, receptionist, shopping guide, security personnel, and market specialist. Four broad categories of major content areas are identified in the postings: recruitment method, personal details, qualifications and skills, and documents or materials required to show or submit. Table 4.1 gives the detailed information of the 10 postings.

Table 4.1

Content areas of newspaper job postings from 1983 to 2000

Job ad. components		1983-1989						1990-2000					
		1	2	3	4	5	Sum	6	7	8	9	10	Sum
Recruitment method	In person	X	X	X	X	X	5		X	X	X		3
	Mailing						0	X				X	2
	Exam				X	X	2						0
Personal details	Age	X	X	X	X	X	5	X			X		2
	Gender	X	X	X			3	X	X		X		3
	Local residency	X	X	X	X	X	5				X		1
	Marital status		X				1						0
	Health	X	X	X	X		4		X				1
	Height			X			1	X	X	X	X		4
	Appearance		X				1		X		X		2
Qualifications / Skills	Degree		X	X		X	3		X		X	X	3
	Major					X	1				X	X	2
	Work experience						0	X	X	X		X	4
	Foreign language		X			X	2	X	X	X		X	4
	Computer skills						0		X	X			2
	Other qualities						0			X	X	X	3
	Household register		X	X		X	3						0
	Identification card						0		X	X	X	X	5

Documents / materials to present	Introduction letter from an employment office			X			1						0
	Registration form for people waiting for employment			X			1						0
	Diploma			X		X	2	X	X		X	X	4
	Professional certificate					X	1		X				1
	Photo			X	X	X	3	X	X	X			1
	Résumé						0	X	X	X	X	X	5

Comparison of the postings between the two periods uncovers changes over time. These changes resulted from the social changes and might transfer into the résumés. The first change was in the method of recruitment. In 1983-1989, all the companies required applicants to be present at a particular date and place (as specified in the posting) for interview or registration. Candidates did not need to prepare a résumé in advance; they were often asked to fill out a registration form at the site, which contained information needed by the employer. This situation changed notably after 1990. Many companies did not require applicants to visit in person; instead, they asked candidates to mail them relevant materials for an initial selection. The change in the recruiting strategy called for a written document providing the needed information for the recruiter to gain a certain understanding of the candidate and make an initial decision in hiring. This social need for job seekers to introduce and recommend themselves and for employers to get basic information about candidates before meeting in person triggered the emergence of the résumé.

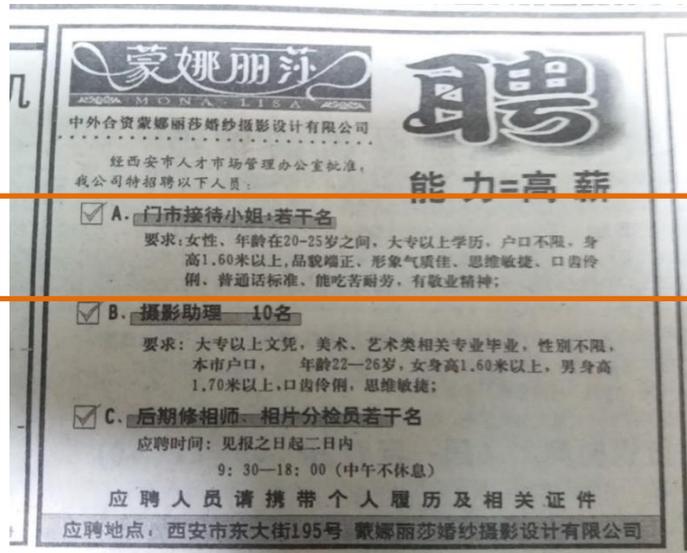
The second category of information in the postings is personal details, including age, gender, residence, marital status, health, and even height and appearance. A prominent change over the two periods is the requirement of local residency. Before 1989, all the job postings indicated explicitly that candidates should be citizens of the very city and needed to bring the local household register (户口本) when signing up. However, such requirement diminished after 1990; only one of the five companies required local residency for one specific position. This change was a result of the reform of residence system in China. China's household registration system,

termed 户口 in Chinese, started in 1958 with the basic function of providing individual identity, safeguarding social stability, and facilitating the government's control of resource distribution and labor flow. Chinese citizens were divided into two major categories in the household registration system: city residents and rural residents. Which type of resident a person was registered meant great differences in his or her life. Before the reform of household registration system in the 1990s, each local area (e.g., a province or a city) had a pre-planned quota designated to its residents. Rural residents could not enjoy the quotas allocated to urban people; i.e., they could not get formal jobs in cities. This is why all the job postings before 1989 required candidates to be urban residents of the very city where the companies were located. After 1990, the dichotomy in residential registration was broken. Changes happened in the registration system which restricted the free flow of people, resources, and capital ("Reform of Residence System Needed," 2000). Different types of classification appeared in response to the increasing demand of labor flow, such as agricultural versus nonagricultural population, and permanent versus temporary residence. In some cities, immigrants were allowed to obtain residence permits by purchasing houses. These changes exerted profound influences on various aspects of social life, and the requirement of local urban residency disappeared in job postings. The changes continued. By November 2002, the government announced to eliminate residence quotas in provincial capitals and cities so that college graduates could seek jobs across the country (Li, 2011a).

Another notable change in personal details is age. Before 1989, all the job postings, regardless of the positions, indicated a required age range, for example, under 23 as in the posting of the museum and 16-22 as in the posting of the textile factory. By contrast, a large portion of postings after 1990 did not have this information. An age requirement was indicated only for age-sensitive positions, such as receptionists in the photo studio and waiters/waitresses in the hotel. This change in age requirement was rooted in the change of the populations that sought jobs. Before 1989, the unemployed population was mostly young people, either after finishing secondary

education or after receiving higher education. Most of them were between 16 and 23. After 1990, not only graduates but also people with work experiences entered the job market with the hope of getting employed or finding new jobs. The age of job seekers thus varied, and it was pointless to stick to a fixed age requirement as before. In addition, employers realized the value of candidates with relevant work experience, which might save their time on new staff training and even bring in knowledge beneficial to the companies. As a result, the age requirement diminished in job postings, but previous work experience became highly valued. Within the five postings after 1990, four indicated explicitly that previous work experience was required or preferred. In comparison, this information was completely absent in the postings before 1989.

Requirements regarding gender, height, and appearance were included in some postings in either period. Generally, such information was indicated when the open position had specific requirements regarding these aspects. For example, the textile factory announced explicitly to hire 10 males and 50 females, since the positions in this industry were conventionally gender-sensitive. A height of over 1.56 m was required due to the need for operating certain machines in the manufacturing processes. The photo studio announced to hire female receptionists, probably due to its perception of the role and conventions of such a position, and its expectation of what type of image to build through the receptionists. This expectation was further reflected in the requirements of age, height, appearance, degree, and other qualities. Figure 4.2 is the job posting of the photo studio. Information regarding the receptionist position is marked with a square and a translation is provided under the posting.



A. Receptionists: several

Requirements: female; age 20-25; associate degree or above; height >1.60m; good appearance; good manner; thinking quickly; speaking clearly; standard mandarin; hardworking; professional dedication.

Figure 4.2. The job posting of a photo studio in 1999

Two other items of personal information are found in the postings. One is marital status, which appeared only once in the 1984 posting. It is not clear why this information was required by the employer. Another is health, appearing in 80% of the postings before 1989 but in only 20% in those after 1990. The inclusion of this item in earlier job notices, by my guess, was out of inertia, since all the personnel files contained an item of health condition. The diminishing of it in later notices might be the realization of employers that this item did not make much sense.

The next category of content areas in the job postings is qualifications, skills and other qualities required for the positions. Information about degree and major was consistently required in both periods. Foreign language and computer skills were more emphasized after 1990. Candidates were required or preferred to be able to speak a foreign language and use computers even though their jobs might not require the skills intensively. This change was in line with the technology

development and globalization progress in the late 20th century. Computer and web technology were penetrating into every line of business and people's lives; international communication was increasing tremendously. The language and computer skills were no longer job-specific or highly technical, but pretty basic for people who tried to survive in the increasingly globalized and technologically advanced job market of the new era. Work experience was required or preferred only after 1990, when people who had been hired previously entered the job market and tried to find new jobs. This item was missing in the postings before 1989 since the unemployed population at that time was primarily graduates with no work experience. Another item that appeared only after 1990 was qualities or personalities such as good character, sense of responsibility, hardworking, creativity, enterprise, dedication, communication skills, etc. (as shown in Figure 4.2). A possible reason for the absence of such information before 1989 and its emergence after 1990 was again the expansion of the job market. For one thing, many of these qualities were gained from years of work and newly-graduated students might not have the chances to develop these qualities. For another, the expanded job market enabled employers to choose from a greater variety and a greater number of candidates those that fit their positions better.

The last category is the materials that the candidates were required to bring or submit upon application. A clear-cut change over the two periods is the identity document used by people. Before 1989, household register (户口本) was the official document used for identity verification; however, it was replaced by identity (ID) card after 1990. Compared with ID card, household register contains more information related to one's residential registration and household background. The use of an ID card reflects the diminishing role of residential registration in employment.

Two items that appeared only once in the postings were the introduction letter from the local employment office (a government-run organization providing services regarding employment)

and the registration form issued by the local government or governmental unit for people waiting for employment. Both documents were required by the same recruiter, which is the only state-owned enterprise among the 10 recruiters. These documents give hints to how people got employed in the last two decades of the 20th century. An introduction letter issued in 1994 and a registration form filled out in 1983 that I collected from the Provincial Archives are presented in Appendix I and Appendix J.

Six out of the ten postings asked applicants to bring or mail their photos. The other four did not have such an explicit requirement. However, a second look at the postings reveals that photos of candidates would be available to all the recruiters because most of the materials required to be submitted would contain photos: household register, ID card, diploma, certificate, etc. The additionally required photos might be to attach to some forms used in the recruiting processes.

Finally, the most important change in this category is the requirement of a résumé. Such a document was not asked in any of the job postings before 1989. From 1990 on, all the postings announced explicitly that candidates needed to bring or submit a résumé or résumé-like document providing information needed in the recruiting processes. The names for such documents varied, such as 资历 (qualifications and professional experience) in the 1990 posting and 履历 (personal history or experience) in the 1999 posting. However, this consistent inclusion of such documents marked the inception of the genre in China.

4.2.2 Features of résumés at Stage I

No actual résumés at this stage were found. The three companies where I collected samples were founded after 1999. As mentioned before, I contacted a state-owned factory and a university with longer history, but they could not provide me with any résumés since they rarely required résumés before 2000 and the résumés, if any, were paper copies and hard to locate after so many years. The personnel staff in both of the places expressed such an idea that if a résumé had been

needed in their recruitment processes, it should have contained information that overlapped essentially with the information in personnel archives. They provided me with a personnel information form filled in and filed in 1979 in the factory (Appendix K) and a labor contract signed in 1987 in the university (Appendix L) as examples to show the information potentially expected in a résumé if there was one. Another source of information was the registration forms filled out by candidates when they presented on a particular day set by a recruiter. A description of such registration forms can be found in the study of Li (2011a). Table 4.2 lists the content areas in the above-mentioned forms, which might give ideas about the potential contents in résumés at that stage. The left column shows the sections contained in the forms and items within each section. The right column presents the actual expressions regarding each item. The sign “***” means that the expression is the same as the item name shown in the left column. These details, to a certain degree, give hints to the features of résumés in the emergence stage.

Table 4.2

Potential content areas in résumés in the Emergence Stage

	Personnel information form (1979)	Employment contract (1987)	Registration form (Li, 2011a)
Personal details			
Name	Current, Original, Used	***	***
Gender	***	***	***
Age	Date of birth	Date of birth	***
Ethnicity	***	***	
Birthplace			***
Marital status		***	
Ancestral hometown (籍贯)	***	***	
Health condition	***	***	
Specialty		***	
Personal class status (本人成分)	***	***	
Political affiliation (政治面貌)	***; date and place of starting the membership; introducer	***	
Family information			
Family origin or class status (家庭成分)	***	***	Place of origin of ancestors; family background
Family members: name, job	***; political affiliation	***	***

Spouse	Name, family origin, current job and position		
Other social relatives	Domestic and overseas social relatives		***
Family financial status	***		
Education			
Current degree of education	***	***	
From elementary school to the last degree or where coursework was completed	***		***
Experience			
Name of work unit, when, where	***	***	***, who was in charge
Work experience before or after joining the army	***		
Awards / Punishments			
Awards or punishment received: When, where, what		***	***

All these documents were predesigned forms. If they were seen as the precursor of modern résumés, we would get an impression that the résumés at this stage were likely to be forms, which contained sections such as personal details, family information, educational background, experience, and awards or punishment received. Within each of the sections are more detailed items. Usually, the section or item titles were listed first, followed by blank spaces or cells for people to write down the required information. Both of the forms I collected are hand-filled. As discussed by Li (2011a), handwriting could be used by companies to speculate about the applicant’s personality. In addition, good handwriting was often seen as a strong point in the time when computer was not popular and people relied heavily on hand-writing.

The Chinese term “简历,” whose current meaning is résumé, appeared in both the personnel form and the employment contract. However, its meaning in these documents is not the same as the current one. In Chinese, “简” means brief and “历” means history, so “简历 literally means a brief summary of one’s personal history or a brief record of one’s life experience. This summary or record might include anything in the person’s life. The contents of the 1979 personnel form, which was literally named “Staff 简历,” may give us some idea about what “简历” meant in the time of the 1970s and the 1980s (see Appendix K). There were actually various terms in use, such

as the aforementioned “资历” and “履历” in the newspaper job postings. The terms were essentially similar, but slightly varied in where they were positioned and what to be expected. For example, in the 1987 employment contract, “personal 简历” is one of the components within the category of personal details (see Appendix L). The expected information (based on this example) is a chronological list of one’s experience from elementary school to the current status. The time, location, and personal status (e.g., student, unemployed) of each of the past experiences should be included. In brief, the term “简历” was used at this stage but its meaning differed from that of résumé today. A document named “简历” was not necessarily for job application. By contrast, a document used for the purpose of self-introduction in the recruiting process might not be named “résumé.” It could be “资历,” “履历,” or “求职申请表 (application form),” etc.

The section of personal details in the forms is very detailed. Apart from basic information such as name and address, it includes very private details such as date of birth (not only age), marital status, health condition, and personal photo. Place of birthplace and 籍贯 (ancestral hometown) are two different concepts and might be asked separately. The latter gives the origin of a person’s ancestor, which may not correspond to the former. A person’s 户口 (household registration) was often the latter. This registration system, as explained previously, is the result of central planning in China before the reform and opening-up at the end of the 1970s. Under the unified, government-controlled distribution of resources and products, the registration played a critical role in a person’s life, deciding which school he or she went to and where he or she got employed. It was, thus, an indispensable component in any archives of a person and were characteristic to Chinese society at that time. Also characteristic to that historical period are the items of class status and political affiliation. People were stratified into different social classes such as peasant, worker, cadre, student, intellectual, merchant, landlord, and others. Marxist-Leninist rhetoric in earlier time like “class conflict” and “class struggle” still existed and had some influence on social life. One’s political attitude, as reflected by his or her political

affiliation, was also important at that time. The two items of information, class status and political affiliation, were seen as necessary components in a person's profile.

The second section, family information, is unique to archive documents. It includes information of immediate family members, their relationships with the person, their names, jobs or schools, and political affiliations. It also includes items such as family origin or social class status, which is decided by the status of the household head, often the father. Aside from these direct relatives, other social relatives sometimes are also included. The 1979 staff personnel form even has the item of family financial status. These details here are very personal and typically included in archives. They might hardly appear in résumés, as none of the newspaper job postings under analysis requires such information.

Education, work experience, and awards/punishments received are common sections in the forms. The education section usually follows a chronological order, starting from elementary school, then middle school, and until the last degree or where coursework was completed. In the work experience section, details such as name of work unit, when, where, unit administrator, and job title are required.

A noteworthy element is an identification photo on the upper right corner of the forms. It is understandable that a photo is inherent to such a document that tries to cover all-around information about a person. A photo provides information which cannot be gleaned by words. Li (2011a, p. 272) reported that résumés sent to enterprises before 2000 usually did not have a photo attached. However, my analysis does not seem to support this claim. According to Li (2011a), the "so-called résumés" used before 2001 preferred the "archival style" and many used a predesigned form (p. 266). If this were true, the résumés should have included a photo because typical archive documents in China do contain a photo. The upper right corner of the forms is by default for a photo. The staff information form and the employment contract under analysis provide evidence.

In a word, the earlier the document, the more detailed personal data are included. The 1979 personnel form, for example, asks about the current, original, and used names of a person, while the 1987 employment contract asks only the name. The 1979 form also asks information of spouse (name, family origin, job and position), original residence and current address, and work experience before or after joining the army. In comparison, these items are not included in the 1987 form. The differences between the two documents reflect the social changes in the 1980s. Some information unique to an earlier time disappeared in the documents used at a later time.

No conclusion can be drawn about what the résumés were exactly like at this stage, as no actual samples were collected from this period. The résumé genre was just initiated into the social scenes in China. It is natural that practitioners needed to follow or refer to some existent materials. Given the related roles of application materials and personnel documents in the recruitment process, together with people's presumption of what information was needed for employment based on their experiences of filling and reading personal archival files, the personnel documents were most likely the referential materials based on which people decided the content, organization, style, and design of their résumés.

Based on my search in the library, a very limited number of books on résumé were published before 2000 (see Table 3.4). In fact, I found only one book with a hard copy available in the library, which was published in 1989. The second earliest book located there was published in 2001. This partially suggests that the résumé was at its early stage and there was not much instruction available on the genre at this stage.

4.3 Stage II: Self-design and Direct Submission

The second evolutionary stage of résumés in China started from the beginning of the 21st century and lasted till the late 2000s. It is hard to set a clear-cut dividing line, a specific year, for example, between stages because it always takes time for people and businesses to accept and adapt to

changes. Based on the résumés I collected from Company A, the state-owned company that has consistently recruited people for various positions each year, it took the company a few years to change from one mode of recruitment to another. Before 2007, the company received résumés solely through email; after 2007, the résumés were submitted either by email or via job search sites; and from 2011 on, all the résumés were received through job websites (see Table 3.1). The changes in company recruitment behavior as well as means of people to apply for jobs can be seen as marking the shifting of résumé stages. Before job websites serve as intermediary between recruiters and job seekers, applicants often sent their application materials directly to companies in person or via email. The résumés were usually designed and produced by the job seekers themselves, maybe by following some templates or samples. Self-design and direct submission thus characterized the practice of résumés in the second stage. The following parts delineate the features of résumés at this stage, changes of the documents as compared with those before 2000, and résumé instructions that influenced people's perception and practice of this genre.

4.3.1 Features of Chinese résumés at Stage II

The year 2010 was set as a dividing line for the analysis of résumés at this stage based on the fact that Company A began to recruit solely through job websites after 2010 and has hardly received self-designed résumés since then. Altogether 33 self-designed résumés submitted by 2010 were collected, 24 from Company A and 9 from Company B (see Tables 3.1 and 3.2).

4.3.1.1 General features

Before zooming into the detailed contents and linguistic elements, I first looked at some general features such as the inclusion of a title, the overall design of the document, the provision of a personal photo, broad components that are often marked as sections by headings, and inclusion of an English version. Table 4.3 summarizes these general features of the self-designed résumés.

Table 4.3

General features of self-designed résumés

General features		No. of Résumés	Percentage (n=33)
Title	Résumé	30	91%
	Applicant's name	3	9%
Design	Table	A space for photo	18
		No space for photo	0
	Non-table	A space for photo	15
		No space for photo	9
Photo	Designed and provided	14	42%
	Designed but not provided	10	30%
	Not designed	9	27%
Components	Personal details	33	100%
	Work experience / Internship	33	100%
	Self-evaluation	25	76%
	Education	23	70%
	Career objective	19	58%
	Skills and abilities / Specialties	17	52%
	Certificates	13	39%
	Honors and awards	8	24%
	Training experience	5	15%
	Hobbies and interests	4	12%
	Social / Campus activities	2	6%
	Personality	1	
	Motto	1	
	Expression of determination	1	
	Note	1	

A title is consistently included in all the résumés, positioned at the top, centered, and usually in a bigger font. The majority is titled as “个人简历 (personal résumé),” with some rare variations such as “简历 (résumé),” “我的简历 (my résumé),” “简历表 (résumé form),” and “工作申请简历 (job application résumé).” The use of the word “个人 (personal)” in the title seems redundant, since résumé by itself is a document of an individual. This naming seems to have followed the regular way that Chinese personal archival documents are named. Personnel records of individuals in Chinese are often titled with the word “personal” at the beginning, for example, personal history, personal information, and personal file. This similar naming partially reflects the influence of personal archival documents in the formation of the résumé genre. Of the 33 résumés, three are titled with the applicant's name. A further look at the documents reveals that

all three are not formatted as a personnel form or archive-like. Rather, they follow the Western style of résumés.

The résumés look different. Not any two are identical or seem to be created following the same template. A bit more than half (18 out of 33) of the résumés are formatted as a table with cells and borders. Figure 4.3 showcases such a table format (résumé SDA22). The table consists of multiple sections, with section headings often at the left margin. Those non-table résumés do not have cells and borders, but contain similar sections. In all the résumés, the first section is always personal data, composed of a long list of items. Consistent in the table-formatted résumés is a reserved position at the top right corner for the applicant's photo. Such a photo space also appears in some of the non-table résumés (6 out of 15, 40%). Of the 24 résumés containing a photo space, 14 applicants included a personal identification photo.

The sections of personal details and work experience / internship are included in all the résumés, which indicates the essential role of such information in job application. The education section is another basic component, but sometimes it does not stand as a separate section but is listed as an item in the personal data section. A few résumés contain a section of training experience, which can be seen as supplementary to education or internship. A prominent section is self-evaluation (自我评价), appearing in 25 out of the 33 résumés (76%), more frequently than sections such as career objective and skills/abilities. Other common sections include certificates, honors and awards, and social/campus activities. More interesting are some rare and special elements including personality, motto, expression of determination, and a final note. Below are descriptions of the résumé components in greater detail.

		基本情况		
Name / Gender	姓名	[Redacted]	性别	男
Date of birth / 籍贯	出生年月	1985.03	籍贯	陕西西安
Height / Weight	身高	173cm	体重	58kg
Education level / Political affiliation	学历	大学本科	政治面貌	党员
Major / Health	专业	第一专业：汉语言文学 第二专业：报关与国际 货运代理	健康状况	健康
Contact information	联系方式	手机：[Redacted] 地址：[Redacted] E-mail：[Redacted]		
Work experience / internship	实习经历	<p>2006.7-2006.10 西安庆安制冷有限公司任人事部助理，协助公司人事管理</p> <p>2007.7-2007.9西安天豪进出口有限公司销售助理，参与公司日常销售和是市场拓展，在与团队良好的合作中，使公司第一个月销售量提高1.5%，有良好的销售和开发能力</p> <p>2008.9-2009.7西安工程大学辅导员办公室任助理，负责学生日常管理和其他助理的日常工作安排，工作受到老师和同学一致好评，锻炼了我的计算机操作能力和工作调度能力</p> <p>2009.7-2009.9陕西机械进出口公司兼职办公室助理，负责整理和制作公司日常工作所需资料，工作业绩良好，熟悉外贸工作的相关信息</p> <p>2010.03-2010.5华贸国际货运有限公司杭州分公司实习报关员，熟悉口岸报关和H2000操作，和海关有着良好的沟通能力。</p>		
Training / awards	教育及获奖经历	<p>2009年，通过全国报关员资格考试并获得报关员资格证</p> <p>2006-2007年，国家励志奖学金、优秀学生</p> <p>2007-2008年，先进科技工作者、校二等奖学金、校三等奖学金</p> <p>2008-2009年，社会活动先进工作者</p> <p>2008-2009年于西安外贸科技学院学习报关与国际货运代理专业英语四级，计算机二级，C1驾照</p>		
Social / campus activities	主要职务	<p>大学四年班长</p> <p>院学生会班委会会长、院足球队队长</p> <p>校社团联合会组织部组长</p> <p>学院办公室助理</p>		
Self-evaluation	自我评价	<p>很有责任心，虚心求学安分守己。能够吃苦耐劳，专业知识牢固，学习新事物的速度很快，在新岗位能够很快的适应，有良好的抗压能力。</p>		
Interests & hobbies	兴趣与特长	<p>喜爱文体活动和户外探险。</p> <p>喜爱足球运动，曾担任中学校队、大学院队长，并率队参加全国可口可乐杯比赛。</p>		

Figure 4.3 An example of résumés in a table format

4.3.1.2 Detailed personal data

All the 33 résumés have a very eye-catching personal information section on top of other sections. Table 4.4 summarizes the types of information appearing in this section and their frequencies and percentages in this corpus of 33 résumés. The items are put into two groups. Recurrent items are those occurring multiple times in the résumés under analysis; haphazard items are those occurring just randomly for a couple of times.

Table 4.4

Personal information section in self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

Recurrent items		Frequency	Percentage
Basic information	Name	33	100%
	Gender	33	100%
	Date of birth / Age	27/6	100%
Ethnicity		20	61%
Political affiliation		14	42%
Marital status		8	24%
Health condition	Health	9	27%
	Height	17	52%
	Weight	6	18%
户口/ Residency	Ancestral hometown (籍贯)	22	67%
	Current place of residence	7	21%
Education	Education level	25	76%
	Major	25	76%
	Institution	16	48%
	Year of graduation	8	24%
	Certificate / professional title	8	24%
Contact information	Phone number	25	76%
	Email	19	58%
	Address	10	30%
Years of experience	Length of work experience in the field	10	30%
Haphazard items			
Career objective	Target position	4	12%
	Full time job	2	6%
	Job location	1	3%
	Expected salary	1	3%
ID number		3	9%
Skills	English proficiency	2	6%
	Computer skills	2	6%
	Driving	3	9%
Hobby / Interest		3	9%
Personality / Specialty		1	3%
Extracurricular / Campus activities		1	3%
Honors / Awards		1	3%

Name, gender and age appear consistently in all the résumés. Gender and age are often avoided in Western résumés, but they seem to be obligatory in Chinese résumés. The applicants seemed to take it for granted that they should provide their gender information no matter what types of jobs they were applying for and whether there was a gender preference. Likewise, age information was always provided. It is understandable to include this information since many jobs may have specific requirement or preference for age. However, instead of giving an age, 27 of the 33

résumés (88%) presented the information as date of birth, which is very private, may result in safety issue, and is not actually necessary. The reason why applicants provided this detail seems to be following the tradition that date of birth is obligatory in archival documents of individuals.

Some items specific to Chinese résumés appear to be prominent. A large portion of the résumés (22 out of 33) included the information of their residential registration (籍贯, ancestral hometown), and 7 of them provided the current residence. Inclusion of these details indicates that the 户口 (household registration) system in China still had a certain influence on employment in this period, and people saw them as necessary or included them habitually. Ethnicity is a piece of personal data that stemmed from the nation being multi-ethnic and the government's implementation of ethnic policies that protect and support minorities. Minority ethnic groups often have different customs as compared to the majority, and they may need different facilities or be treated differently. It was once very important to make clear a person's ethnic identity, and ethnicity was thus an obligatory item in personal archival documents. Among the 33 résumés under analysis, more than half (61%) included this item. Another personal detail characteristic to Chinese society is political affiliation. In a certain historical period of China, a person's political status and attitude played a prominent role in his or her life. It was once an inherent element in one's personal records (see Table 4.2). In these résumés created between 2004 and 2010, 42% include the item of political affiliation.

Health information is unique to Chinese résumés. Related items include health condition, height, and weight. Employers in China would like to know whether the prospective employees are healthy, and the health information should be of value. But surprisingly, the most frequently provided item in these résumés is not the overall health condition (27%), but height (52%). Weight is included in 18% of the résumés. It is not clear why height was prioritized by the job seekers and why weight mattered in finding a job. The résumés here do not show any hints as to why the applicants chose to provide which of the details. They were submitted for positions

including financial manager, secretarial staff, customs declaration, and teacher. None of these positions had special requirements regarding height or weight.

Another special detail is marital status, provided by 8 of the 33 applicants. This information will never appear in a Western résumé because it is private and does not have much to do with one's job. In China, it is a regular item in one's personal record, but is not a detail required in the hiring process. Only one of the job advertisements before 2000 required the candidates to be unmarried (see Table 4.1). One more private detail in the résumés is ID number. Three people provided their ID numbers in full, which was rare, and their reasons of doing so remain unknown.

The personal information section also includes items that summarize or highlight information in other sections, such as education, years of experience in the career field, career objective, skills, extracurricular/campus activities, honors and awards, personality, specialty, and hobbies and interests. This repetition makes the section particularly long. One of the reasons of doing so was to list the most needed information up front, for example, years of experience. Another reason might be to list the information which is brief and not worth being a separate section. An additional reason, as hinted in the résumés under analysis, should be the influence of archival documents on the production of the résumés.

4.3.1.3 Work experience/internship with details

Work experience is another prominent section. All the 33 résumés have such a section with very detailed information including the time when the person was at the position (usually with year and month), the name of the company or organization (even the department in some cases), the position taken (mostly a job title and in a few cases a brief description), the responsibilities or duties performed, and what was achieved or what skills was developed at the position. Table 4.5 shows the details in the work experience section and their frequencies in the résumé corpus.

Table 4.5

Work experience section in self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

Work experience / Internship	Frequency	Percentage
Time (year and month)	33	100%
Employer	33	100%
Position	33	100%
Duties / Responsibilities	27	82%
Achievements / Skills	11	33%

Information of year, employer and position is routinely included in the résumés. A large portion (82%) of the applicants described in great detail what duties they performed while at a position.

Figure 4.4 gives an example of such description (from the résumé SDB5). The applicant submitted both a Chinese résumé and an English version. A few applicants did not provide details of their past jobs. Most of these jobs were accountant and customs declaration, which involved very specific duties that could be indicated substantially by the job title.

工作经验

2008/06—2008/08: 埃意(卢森堡)电子工程有限公司 | 物流专员 | 负责采购, 价格核算及发票

2007/12—2008/06: 北京 EASY ENGLISH 国际英语培训中心 | 讲师 | 负责教材编写, 教授新概念英语以及一对一英语辅导

2007/09—2007/12: 齐力 DM 广告公司 | 网站设计 | 负责网站建设和维护, 日常更新等

2005/09—2006/06: 外国语学院通讯编辑部 | 主编 | 负责校内新闻采集、编辑、排版、出版

Education Background

2004/09 -- 2004/09: Southwest University | English oriented Business Trade | Bachelor

Work Experience

2008/06—2008/08: IEE (Luxembourg) Electronic Project Ltd. | Logistics | Be responsible for internal purchasing and invoice.

2007/12—2008/6: Beijing EASY ENGLISH international training centre | Instructor | Be responsible for editing teaching materials , teaching Adult's English and Concept English and Face to Face instruction.

2007/9—2007/12: Qili DM advertisement company | Web designer | Be responsible for designing websites and maintenance, daily update.

2005/09—2006/06: Communication and Edition Section of Foreign Language and Literature School |

Figure 4.4 Description of duties in past jobs in self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

One third of the applicants included descriptions of what they had achieved in their past jobs or what skills they had developed. Figure 4.5 gives an example of such descriptions (from the résumé SDA17), with a translation provided beneath the original. Compared with the archival documents in the emergence stage, an evident change can be seen in the résumés at this stage. Instead of listing briefly the history of work with only when and where a person took a job or position, the work experience section in these résumés is remarkably more detailed, better depicting a person’s relevant career history, familiarity with the target duties, qualifications, abilities and skills, and potentials. These details better served the need of recruiters to get a “picture” of the candidates and make decisions. This result conforms to what Li (2011b) reported in her study of English résumés used by Chinese job seekers that the experience section is expanded, with more details and specifics.

社会实践:

- ◆ 2005.9-2006.6 西安方元市场调研有限公司、深蓝一线有限公司 **调研员、QC**
先后进行**西安地区 IT、数码产品**的经营单位、数量的普查工作和**摩托罗拉手机**卖场设计调查工作。
- ◆ 2006.4-2006.6 陕西亿乐传媒有限公司东方亿乐卡 **校园代理**
- ◆ 2007.3-2007.5 北京赛特尔科技发展有限公司驻西安办事处 **亿点通即时通讯业务员**
亿点通即时通讯是适用于企业、政府等行业的互联网实时交流平台，期间负责该软件在西安的销售工作并有一定的业绩。
1 ※ 提高了我的业务能力和销售技巧，锻炼了吃苦耐劳精神。
- ◆ 2007.10 西安（深圳）迈科实业有限公司 DVD **销售员（为期十天）**
- ◆ 2008.3-2008.5 《飞鸽传信》校园 DM 报纸 **创始人、负责人之一**
《飞鸽传信》校园 DM 是我自己创立的面向高新区高校的校园资讯，负责内容编辑、整理、招商，期间与**百脑汇、北大青鸟 IT、天祺教育、礼客培训**等企业合作。
※ 总结失败原因为①前期忽视了报纸内容和排版的质量问题，直接导致了下一期的报纸广告业务来源困难，资金链断链。
②对行业的了解不够深入，盈利点单一。放弃的原因是面临考试和实习，精力不够。
- ◆ 2008.5-2008.9 陕西嘉信达贸易有限公司国际贸易部 **外贸实习**
2 期间主要是利用课余时间在企业学习报关知识和外贸流程。实习业绩得到公司认可。
3 ※ 报关和外贸工作是对专业知识要求很强的工作，及时给自己补充专业知识，积累报关工作经验，熟悉外贸企业的工作流程，为以后走向工作岗位打好基础。
- ◆ 2008.12-2009.1 平遥旅联实业有限公司 **行政助理**
主要是协助办公室主任处理公司的日常事务。
- ◆ 2009.1-2009.3 浙江永吉木业有限公司 **地板销售实习**
在车间进行地板产品流程和特征的学习，公司的渠道建设和销售学习

Translation:

1. My professional proficiency and sales skills were developed and I learned how to endure hardship.
2. My performance during the internship was recognized by the company.
3. Customs declaration and foreign trade are jobs that require professional knowledge. I developed my related knowledge, accumulated work experience, familiarized myself with the workflow, and laid a solid foundation for my future job.

Figure 4.5 Description of achievements in past jobs in self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

Another notable thing reflected by this section is that the majority of the applicants had a certain length of experience in the target career field. Only a couple of applicants did not have formal work experience, but they described their internships or relevant training experience or activities. It is clear that most of these job seekers were not fresh graduates but people with experience. This provides evidence that not only college graduates were searching for jobs, but people who had jobs were trying to find better positions. Companies also looked for experienced candidates as it would save them time and money for training new staff. Many companies set work experience as a rigid requirement. People with experience were often more advantaged as compared with those who just stepped out of campus. Obviously, the prominent, expanded, detailed work experience section in these résumés was a strategic response to the recruiters' needs.

4.3.1.4 Self-evaluation as a prominent and unique section

It is within expectation that related professional experience is something sought by most, if not all, the employers. However, out of expectation is that the next most frequently included section is not educational background or skills and abilities, but a section named self-evaluation (自我评价), which appears in 25 out of the 33 résumés (76%). In some rare cases, the section is named self-assessment or self-appraisal (自我鉴定), self-introduction (自我介绍), personal or self-description (个人或自我描述), and personal profile (个人情况). It is often positioned right after the personal information section or at the end of a résumé. Different from other sections that list

solicited factual details in an objective manner, this section is a chance where the candidate has the freedom to choose to highlight certain things that they believe will help impress and persuade the audience. It is where some subjective elements appear. Table 4.6 summarizes what the self-evaluation sections in the 33 résumés cover. My coding generates six categories of content areas, and each area consists of a few properties or items.

Table 4.6

Self-evaluation section in self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

Categories	Properties / Items	Frequency	%	Total
Professional ethics	Sense of responsibility; conscientiousness	18	55%	45
	Being hard working; working under pressure	9	27%	
	Dedication	5	15%	
	Passion for the job	5	15%	
	Being dependable and surefooted	4	12%	
	Loyalty	3	9%	
	Confidentiality awareness	1	3%	
Skills / Abilities	Communicative skills	12	36%	48
	Interpersonal skills	11	33%	
	Teamwork skills	9	27%	
	Leadership	5	15%	
	Problem-solving	4	12%	
	Computer skill	2	6%	
	English proficiency	2	6%	
	Writing ability	2	6%	
	Working independently	1	3%	
Personality & character	Being honest	10	30%	37
	Being easy-going or outgoing	10	30%	
	Being optimistic	4	12%	
	Being self-confident	4	12%	
	Being modest	2	6%	
	Being patient	2	6%	
	Being calm	2	6%	
	Being reasonable	1	3%	
	Being organized	1	3%	
	Self-cultivation	1	3%	
Potential	Taking initiative at work; being enterprising	9	27%	35
	Learning quickly	8	24%	
	Being adaptive	7	21%	
	Being innovative	5	15%	
	Having passion with new things	4	12%	
	Having spirit to challenge	2	6%	
Professional capacity	Technical knowledge / skills	9	27%	25
	Familiarity with relevant professional process	6	18%	
	Work experience in the field	6	18%	
	Professional title / Certificate	2	6%	

	High efficiency in work	1	3%	
	Ability to apply theories to practice	1	3%	
Others	Promise	3	9%	7
	Shortcomings or things to improve	2	6%	
	Career objective	1	3%	
	Appearance	1	3%	

Professional ethics are frequently discussed in the self-evaluation section. The ethics are rooted in one's work experience, but oftentimes they are not spelt out explicitly in the descriptions of past jobs which focus primarily on the actual duties performed at a position. Discussion of the ethics involves one's understanding or judgement of self. It is thus suitable to be in this self-evaluation section. The most prominent work ethic mentioned in these résumés is the sense of responsibility. More than half of the applicants claimed that they were conscientious at work, indicating their perception of being responsible as one of the most valuable qualities at the workplace. Another important quality is diligence. Over one-fourth of the applicants said that they worked hard, could bear hardship, and could work under pressure. Other recurring ethics include respect and dedication to the job, having passion for the job, and being surefooted and dependable.

Skills and abilities are another frequently-discussed category. One may ask why the applicants included this category here, given the fact that over half of the résumés had a separate section of skills. A close examination of the separate section reveals that it covers two major groups of skills: the technical skills related to the target professional field, and basic skills including computer and foreign language. These skills appear rarely in the self-evaluation section. Most self-evaluations discuss non-technical, soft skills such as communication, team spirit, problem solving, management, and others. The most frequently-mentioned are communicative, interpersonal, and teamwork skills. These three are actually interconnected. At a workplace, a person often needs to work together with other people. It is important to set up good relationships with colleagues and communicate with them effectively to get jobs done. The consistent high frequencies in these three reflect a consensus of people in their importance at the workplace.

Similar to professional ethics, personality and character also involve subjective perception and description, and they are thus suitable to be discussed in the self-evaluation section. The résumés under analysis cover a wide range of properties of personality, such as integrity, optimism, self-confidence, modesty, and patience. The top two most frequent are being honest and being easy-going or outgoing. The former is a basic trait of human beings either in work or in life. The applicants tried to tell the employers that they were trustworthy and reliable. By describing oneself as easy-going or outgoing, the candidate was delivering the message that he or she was easy to get along with and would be able to blend into the company or team quickly.

Another thing that the job seekers saw as important is a candidate's potential. This included whether a person is enterprising, taking initiative to achieve a goal at work; whether he or she learns things quickly and adapts to a new environment quickly; and whether he or she is creative in work, has passion with new things, and dares to challenge and face challenges. Learning ability, passion, and adaptivity show the employee's potential to grow, and a grown employee will be a more valuable asset to a company. Innovation, creativity, enterprise, and spirit of challenge mean that the employee may bring new ideas or changes, which are critical to the development of a company. Descriptions of these potentials are again subjective, and they often appear in the self-evaluation section.

Professional capacity appears less frequently as compared with the four categories discussed above. This is because many of the items are presented elsewhere, for example, in the work experience section. The mention of technical knowledge or skills, familiarity with specific professional processes and techniques, and experience in the target field is to highlight once more the person's qualifications and to argue that he or she fits the job.

There are some rare but interesting items in this section. Three applicants made promises, promising that he or she would put the company's interest above personal interest, maintain the

company's image, spare no effort to serve the company, and grow with the company. The purpose of doing this seems obvious: to appeal to the employer. Two applicants talked about their shortcomings and what they needed to improve in the future. A possible reason for this could be the influence of Confucianism that people should be modest.

4.3.1.5 Relevant educational background / training experience

Information of one's education is obligatory in résumés. This is proved in the 33 samples under analysis. However, education stands as a separate section in only 23; in the rest of the samples, the information is placed as items in the personal data section. The résumé in Figure 4.3 gives an example where education level and major are listed as two items in the personal data section and no education section exists in the résumé.

Compared with the work experience section which stands independently in all the résumés, the lower frequency of education as a separate section and the presentation of the information as brief items in the personal data section might indicate that this group of job seekers saw educational background as of less value as compared with work experience. This perception is further evidenced by the difference in how detailed each of the two parts is. The majority of the 33 résumés have very detailed descriptions of past jobs, including the basics such as where and when, positions, duties and responsibilities, specific processes and techniques, and achievements. By contrast, information about education is very brief. Even when it stands as a separate section, it includes only the highest or most recent education the candidate received, the institution from where he or she graduated, year of graduation, major, and sometimes what certificates or titles the person had earned. None of the 33 résumés includes courses and grades.

A reason for the less prominently displayed education information in the résumés might be that most of the applicants had had work experiences before they applied for the target positions. These experiences were more recent than their education and even more relevant, and thus

deserved more attention. The few applicants without formal jobs also had relevant training or internship experiences, which were seen as worth highlighting.

Compared with the education information in the personnel archives used before the 21st century, here in the résumés the applicants provided only the highest level of education or the most recent schooling, rather than listing from elementary school to college. This change seems to be a discursual adjustment to the communicative purpose of the document: to present the candidate's qualifications and capabilities relevant to the target job. Irrelevant information is not needed, particularly when the space in the document is limited (usually one-page long for entry level professional jobs) and the time spent in reading the document is limited. Relevance is an important policy in writing résumés. The condensed education information and the rich descriptions of professional experience in the résumés studied here reflect how these applicants achieved relevance.

4.3.1.6 Recognition of foreign language and computer skills

The section of skills and abilities is common in résumés. Job seekers may list different skills here, including technical skills specific to their professional fields and other skills such as computer, foreign language, communication, leadership, management, etc. Of the 33 résumés, 17 (52%) have a separate section of skills and abilities. But interestingly, these résumés are quite consistent in what skills they cover in this section. As shown in Figure 4.6, computer skills appear in 13 of the 17 (76%) résumés and English language proficiency appears in 12 (71%) résumés.

Professional skills are mentioned in only 6, probably because they are already integrated in the description of past jobs. Some other skills are mentioned, but each appears only once. It is not that the job seekers did not see these skills as important, but that they used a different rhetorical strategy, presenting them in the self-evaluation section (see Table 4.6).



Figure 4.6 Skills section in self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

In brief, the skills section in the résumés highlights essentially two sets of skills: computer and foreign language. This reflects the recognition of the importance of these skills in the job market in China after 2000. The social drives for this recognition should be the advancement and distribution of technology, and the progression of globalization.

4.3.1.7 Rare and random elements unique to Chinese résumés

Also interesting in the résumés are some elements that are rare and unique. One applicant (SDA20) included a motto at the end of the résumé, talking about the importance of attitude and sincerity in life and work. Another applicant (SDB2) had a complex note at the end, expressing his thanks to what he had experienced, his perception and insight of life, his aspiration for future career, his thanks to the résumé reader, and his expectation of further contact. This note seems to perform the function of a cover letter. It even has a signature, where the person calls himself a “trustable applicant.”

There is only one case of either the motto or the note. It is not clear where such elements stemmed from and how popular they were at that stage. More hints might be obtained when I examine other materials, such as résumé instructions, samples from books, and résumés in other stages.

4.3.1.8 The English version of résumés

As discussed previously, English has been involved in résumé practices in China, and the Western résumé conventions have played a role in the evolution of Chinese résumés. All the three companies from which I collected data received résumés in English. I chose to focus on only Company B, because the open positions in this company, lecturers, involved using English at work, so it was more possible that applicants included an English résumé in their application. As shown in Table 3.2, 6 of the 9 résumés sent to the company from 2004 to 2010 had an English version. I examined the English résumés in terms of format and content, and compared them with the Chinese versions to see how they were produced and how they differed from the Chinese versions. Table 4.7 briefly summarizes the results of my examination.

Table 4.7

English versions of the self-designed résumés (2004-2010)

	Format		Production	Unique personal details	Self-evaluation
	Chinese	English			
SDB2	table	table	Simplified	Kept: gender, date of birth, nationality	Excluded
SDB3	non-table	non-table	Simplified	Kept: gender, age	Excluded
SDB4	table	non-table	Simplified	Kept: none	Excluded
SDB5	non-table	non-table	Translated	Kept: all	Kept
SDB6	non-table	non-table	Translated	Kept: all	Kept
SDB8	table	table	Simplified	Kept: gender, age, date of birth	Excluded

Half of the 6 Chinese résumés are in table format and half are not. Most of the English versions follow the same format, except one that changes from table-format to non-table format. Two of the English résumés are translated exactly from the Chinese versions, with nothing changed but the language. The other four differ more or less, for example, in content, in the sequence of sections, or in how detailed the résumé is.

The four English résumés that are different from their Chinese counterparts are largely simplified, with some items excluded and details left out. All the Chinese versions have complicated

personal data section, including items such as marital status, height, weight, and 籍贯 (ancestral hometown). These items are largely excluded in the English versions, with only gender, age and/or nationality kept. Self-evaluation is a consistent component in the Chinese résumés, but it is consistently excluded in the English counterparts. Figure 4.7 is the English version of the résumé SDB8 submitted in 2010. It is in table-format, with very brief lists of items in most sections.

Resume

Personal detail

Name:	[redacted] i
Gender:	Female
Age:	30
Date of Birth:	Sept.29, 1979

Study background

Date of time	Describe the detail
1991---1997	Studied in North-West Cotton Mill NO.4 middle school
1997---2001	Studied in Shaanxi Normal University and got bachelor degree
2005---2008	Studied in Shaanxi Normal University and got master degree

Working background

Date of time	Working area
2001--- now	Work in Xi'an University of Arts and Science

Personal skill

➤ Office work (words, excel, powerpoint, photoshop)
➤ Basic network (searching, mail, software, website)
➤ Language (Chinese, English,)

Certification:

➤ Get the second prize in English speaking contest of Shaanxi area in 2010
➤ Get the second prize in Multimedia Contest of the university in 2009
➤ Get Teaching Achievement Award in university in 2009

Contact:

Mobile:	[redacted]
Email: sh	[redacted] n

Figure 4.7 An English résumé in a table format

One may argue that the simplification or removal of personal details and self-evaluation unique in Chinese résumés could be a strategic rhetorical response of the job seekers. Since they were writing the résumés in English, they should follow the Western résumé conventions and remove elements that are not supposed to appear in a Western style résumé. However, this argument is immediately denied by the fact that other key components are also simplified. Figure 4.8 gives an example of a simplified English version of the work experience and educational background in a Chinese résumé submitted in 2007 (SDB4).

Work Experience	<p>工作经历</p> <p>英语翻译经验: 1999—2002 从事于英语的口笔译工作, 就职于西安邦尼翻译社, 并同时为爱华, 澳汰及信达雅等翻译公司做兼职的口笔译工作。主要从事于机械, 电子, 化工, 及金融, 会计, 汽车等领域的笔译和口译, 以及会议, MBA 教学等会议翻译和陪同翻译。</p>
Objective	<p>工作经历</p> <p>英语教学经验: 2002—2007 任教于西安外国语大学, 西安翻译学院, 并兼职于各大培训机构, 担当启航, 文都的四六级培训课程, 并于 2003 年冬任教南京恩波的四级辅导班, 2006 年任教朗格西安分部的雅思及新托福课程。</p>
Education	<p>工作意向</p> <p>英语教师; 四六级, 雅思, 托福以及托业考试培训。 英语日语的口译笔译, 以及其它富有挑战性的工作。</p> <p>教育状况</p> <p>英语: 1995—1999 年就读于西安外国语大学英语系完成本科课程, 先后通过上海中级口译考试, 英语专业八级考试, 熟练掌握英语听说读写译技巧, 口语流利。 2009—至今 西安外国语大学研究生部外国语言学及应用语言学专业在读硕士。 日语: 达到二级水平, 曾为日本友人岛川训一做西安旅游地陪, 能熟练进行会话交流和中等难度的口译。</p>

Education

Xi'an International Studies University **1995-1999**

Major: English Language

Education Highlights: Advanced English, Advanced College Composition, A Course in English-Chinese Translation, Oral Interpretation, modern English Grammar, Modern Linguistic, English Lexicology, Listening, Oral English and English and American Literature.

Honors: Awarded Scholarship two years.

Work Experience

Xi'an Bany Translation Agency **1999-2002**

University English Teacher **2002-present**

Figure 4.8 An example of simplified English version of a Chinese résumé

The applicant is an English professional. He has a Master's degree in English and worked as a translator and an English teacher at the college level. Language is not a problem for him when he produced the résumé. He also knows very well the Western résumé conventions, as his English résumé looks exactly like one in a Western style, not formatted as a table, with only name and contact information at the beginning, and including the career objective and then other sections. Paradoxical to his knowledge of the language and résumé style, he has very brief and even sloppy descriptions of educational background and work experience (as in Figure 4.8), the sections that are supposed to be the most important in résumés.

This applicant is not alone. Other English résumés under analysis, except the two translated word by word, are also remarkably simplified. The reasons of doing so remain unknown, since I could not reach the applicants and ask why. However, the simplification made the résumés not detailed enough and thus not effective in performing the typical function of a résumé to present abilities and achievements of an applicant and market the person successfully. If an English résumé did not do this job, what was the purpose of having it? A possible function or purpose of an English résumé accompanying a Chinese one is that it serves as proof of one's English ability (Li, 2011b). The guess sounds reasonable, but the fact might be more complicated. It is doubtful whether a one-page-long document with many formulaic expressions can effectively reflect one's language proficiency. It is also not guaranteed that the document is produced by the applicant on his own. In most cases, people would ask someone more experienced for help or at least to proofread the documents. In such cases, the English résumés reflect the language skills of the consulted persons but not the applicants themselves.

Also interesting is the reader's perspective. How do recruiters perceive English résumés? Do they need them, and why? What do they expect from these documents and how do they use them? Do they believe that the English résumés are written by the applicants themselves? Do they take the Chinese or English résumé as the primary application material? How much does an English

résumé weigh among the application materials? It is interesting to understand the role of English résumés in the recruitment process. Hopefully, answers to these questions can be obtained in my interviews of HR staff in the Chinese companies.

4.3.1.9 Summary

In conclusion, my examination of the résumés in use during 2001 to 2010 reveals some distinctive features of this genre at that time.

- First, the self-designed résumés were diverse in their formats. The formats reflected influences from both Chinese archival documents and the Western résumé conventions.
- Second, nearly all the résumés had a detailed personal data section where some very personal or even private information was listed.
- Third, 籍贯 (ancestral hometown) and/or residence was deemed important, reflecting the influence of 户口 (household registration) system in employment.
- Fourth, providing an identification photo seemed to be obligatory. A space for a photo was always reserved at the top right corner of the document.
- Fifth, work or internship experience was the most important component. It often contained details of past jobs, including duties and achievements.
- Sixth, prominent and unique in the résumés was a narrative section named self-evaluation. It seemed to perform the function of a cover letter and/or add emotional appeals to the objective list of facts in the document.
- Seventh, computer skills and English language skills were recognized as important and were highlighted in résumés.
- Eighth, personalized items such as personality, hobbies/interests, mottos, and self-promotion are used by some applicants to make their résumés personal and distinguishable, and to impress and persuade the audience one more time.

- Ninth, a remarkable portion of applicants provided an English version of their résumés, some being solicited and some being unsolicited.

Together, these features characterized the résumé practices at the stage of self-design and direct submission. In the following part, I examine the instructions on résumé writing during this period in the hope to understand more of these characterizations and some influential factors in the process of résumé development.

4.3.2 Résumé books at Stage II

The explosive increase in the need for résumés since the beginning of the 21st century triggered the development in the teaching of this genre. Many books were published and training programs were designed and implemented. In the early 2000s, the Internet was not yet very popular to ordinary people and online résumé materials were still limited. More prevalent were printed books, which should have played important roles in guiding people how to write résumés.

My search in the provincial library finds that books about résumés were very rare before 2000.

Only a limited number of books about practical writing can be seen in the library catalog, among which only one is solely on résumés. The books are about writing documents used in settings such as business, official occasions, and the workplace. Only a couple of them cover application letters very briefly; even fewer mention résumé as a genre. The only résumé book before 2000 that I located in the library is a translation from a US book published in 1983 (see Table 3.4). In great contrast, a large number and a greater variety of books about résumés were published after 2000. The résumé grew to be a regular component in books on practical writing in Chinese.

However, in such books the descriptions of résumés are brief, as it is only one of a large number of genres covered in the books. Fortunately, a lot of books dedicated primarily to the résumé were published with the increased awareness of the need for this genre. Some of these books cover résumés in both Chinese and English, and some talk particularly about how to write résumés in

English. The widespread books on English résumés were from the increasing chances of getting jobs in foreign-invested enterprises or joint ventures, as well as the recognition of English as the first language of technology, international business, and global communication.

The role of the books in the development of résumé is in how they help the genre become distributed to the users – the dissemination. As discussed previously, a genre is usually disseminated when participants read examples and then go on to produce their own renditions of the genre, imitating (consciously or unconsciously) the ones they have read. This imitation process, repeated over time, helps establish what a genre is like. To understand the résumé books published during this stage on the production and consumption of résumés in China, I picked one book with rich samples of different styles, for different positions, and in different languages. More importantly, the book was edited under the supervision of China Employment Training Technical Instruction Center (CETTIC), an authoritative government agency responsible for guiding employment/vocational training and organizing occupational skill testing nationally. Hopefully, the samples provided in this book represent the officially accepted résumés used at that time. The book is named *100 Types of Résumés*, published in 2002. Table 4.8 summarizes briefly the elements and features of the 83 Chinese résumé samples in the book. It also highlights the differences between these samples and the 33 résumés collected from the Chinese companies.

Table 4.8

Features of Chinese résumé samples in the book 100 Types of Résumés

Features		Samples in the book (n=83)	Résumés from the companies (n=33)
Title	*Résumé	60%	91%
	*Applicant's name	25%	9%
	*No title	15%	0%
Design	*Table (full / half)	16% (8% / 8%)	55%
	*Non-table	84%	45%
Photo	*A space designed	41%	73%
	*No space designed	59%	27%
Components			
Personal data	Name	100%	100%

	Gender	93%	100%
	Age	100%	100%
	Ethnicity	41%	42%
	Political affiliation	48%	42%
	Health	20%	27%
	*Height	13%	52%
	*Weight	4%	18%
	*Marital status	7%	24%
	Ancestral hometown (籍贯)	67%	67%
	Source of students	6%	0%
Education	As items of personal data	30%	30%
	As a separate section	70%	70%
Work experience		100%	100%
Skills / Abilities		61%	52%
*Self-evaluation /	*Skills, ethics, potentials	45%	76%
Self-promotion	*Motto / Promise	23%	6%
	*Hobbies / Interests	51%	21%
	Personality	25%	30%

*Note: * signalizes difference existing between the book samples and the résumés in use.*

In general, the samples from the book show a great diversity in terms of format and contents. For example, they can go with or without titles, be designed as a table or plain text, have a space reserved for a photo or not, and contain detailed personal data or just basic information. This diversity could be the evidence that this period was the early evolutionary stage of résumé, in which the genre was developing and did not yet reach conformity and stabilization. Many different perceptions and practices coexisted. Even the book editors and supervisor, the authoritative government agency regarding employment, acknowledged the existence of different types and various components of the documents, and did not determine and distinguish between necessary and unnecessary details, relevant and irrelevant information, preferred and non-preferred designs, and effective and ineffective strategies.

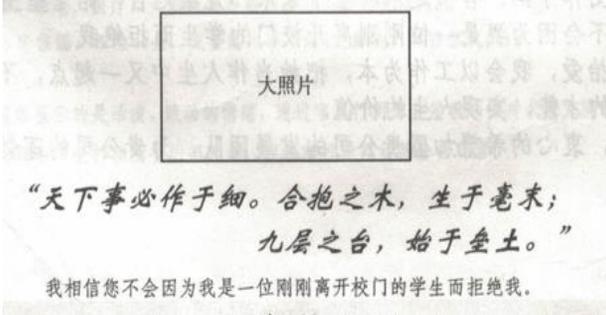
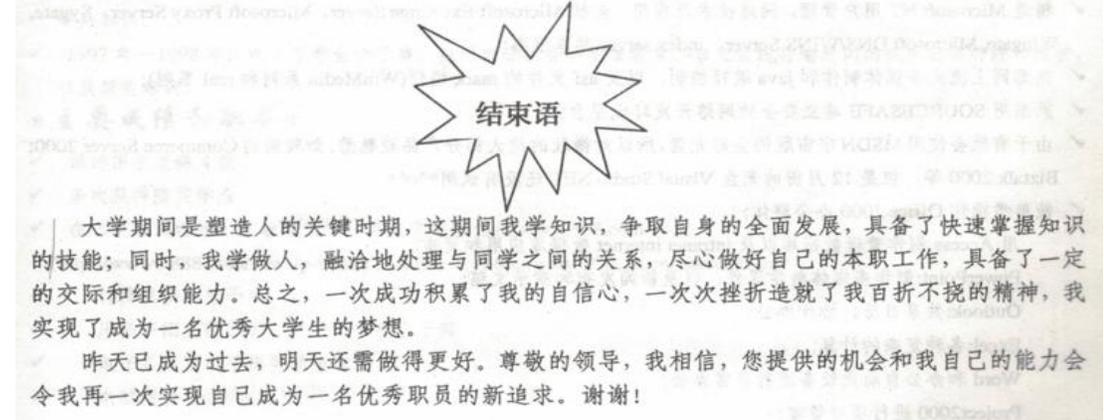
The book samples cover all the elements that appear in the résumés collected from the companies. Comments are provided in some cases explaining why certain elements should be included, but some items are left unexplained. For example, nearly half of the samples contain ethnicity and political affiliation, while the other half do not. It is not explained why these details are included or not included. It seems as if they appear just randomly, and learners may choose to have them

or not based on their personal preferences. It is also the same case in items such as marital status, health, height, and weight. The book samples reflect the existence of these items in résumés, but do not provide explanation, justification, or negation of the inclusion of such information.

The book samples differ from the actual résumés in how frequently some features or components appear. A lower percentage of the samples are titled “résumé” (60% versus 91%), and correspondingly a higher percentage has the applicant’s name as the document title (25% versus 9%). A remarkably lower percentage of the samples are designed in a table format (16% versus 55%); accordingly, a lot more of them are not formatted as a table (84% versus 45%). In addition, a lower portion of the samples have a space designed for a photo (41% versus 73%). These differences may indicate a tendency in the book editors, who functioned as résumé educators, to encourage people to follow the Western conventions in creating résumés. The Western style of résumé usually has the applicant’s name on the top to stand as the title of the document. It is rarely created as a table with borders and cells. Photos never appear, so are some personal details such as gender and age. This tendency reflects, to a certain degree, the influence of Western conventions on the development of Chinese résumés. It is from this early stage on that Chinese résumés have strived for incorporation of local traditions and imported Western conventions.

Another difference is in elements that are subjective, for example, self-evaluation or self-promotion. These may include highlighting of one’s professional skills and ethics, one’s potentials such as being creative or learning quickly, one’s personality or character that helps establish a positive image, and one’s hobbies or interests which make the person a more interesting colleague to work with. Sometimes an applicant shows respect or thanks to the employer, makes promise, or expresses ambition. In general, many of the book samples and the real résumés have at least some of these elements. The book argues that a résumé should not be just a tool that is dull and dry, but something that portrays the person and leaves the reader a pleasant impression. It encourages people to make their résumés distinguishable and lively by

integrating personal features into the documents through content organization, language use, and document design. This may explain why the book samples have more free-style elements such as using a motto to reflect one’s belief or attitude, saying something in a boastful or challenging manner, making promises or showing ambitions, and mentioning specialties and hobbies to look more appealing. Figure 4.9 shows some examples of such elements in the book samples.

<p>Example 1</p> 	<p>Translation</p> <p>A big photo</p> <p>“The devil is in details. Huge trees grew from tiny seeds; High towers started from the dust at the base.” I believe you won’t reject me simply because I just graduated from college.</p>
<p>Example 2</p> 	<p>Translation</p> <p>Concluding Remark</p> <p>College is the key period that shapes a person. During this period, I learned knowledge and tried to develop myself fully. I also developed my ability to learn things quickly. At the same time, I learned how to deal with people and how to establish good relationships with my classmates. From this, I developed interpersonal and management skills. In brief, I gained confidence in the cases I succeeded and I became perseverant through those I failed. I realized my dream of being an excellent college graduate.</p> <p>Yesterday passed. Tomorrow is waiting for me to perform better. Respectable leaders, I believe that the opportunity offered by you and my capability will make me realize my new dream of being an excellent employee. Thanks.</p>

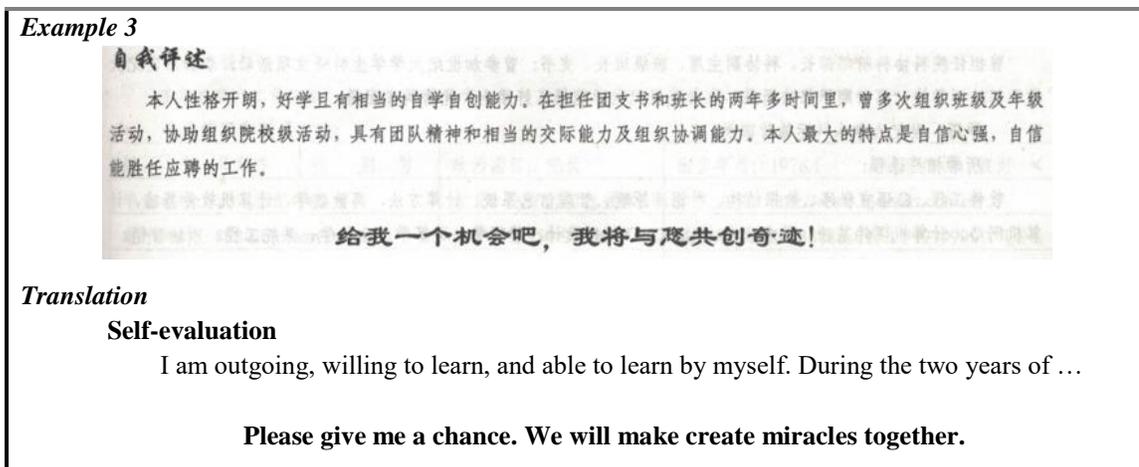
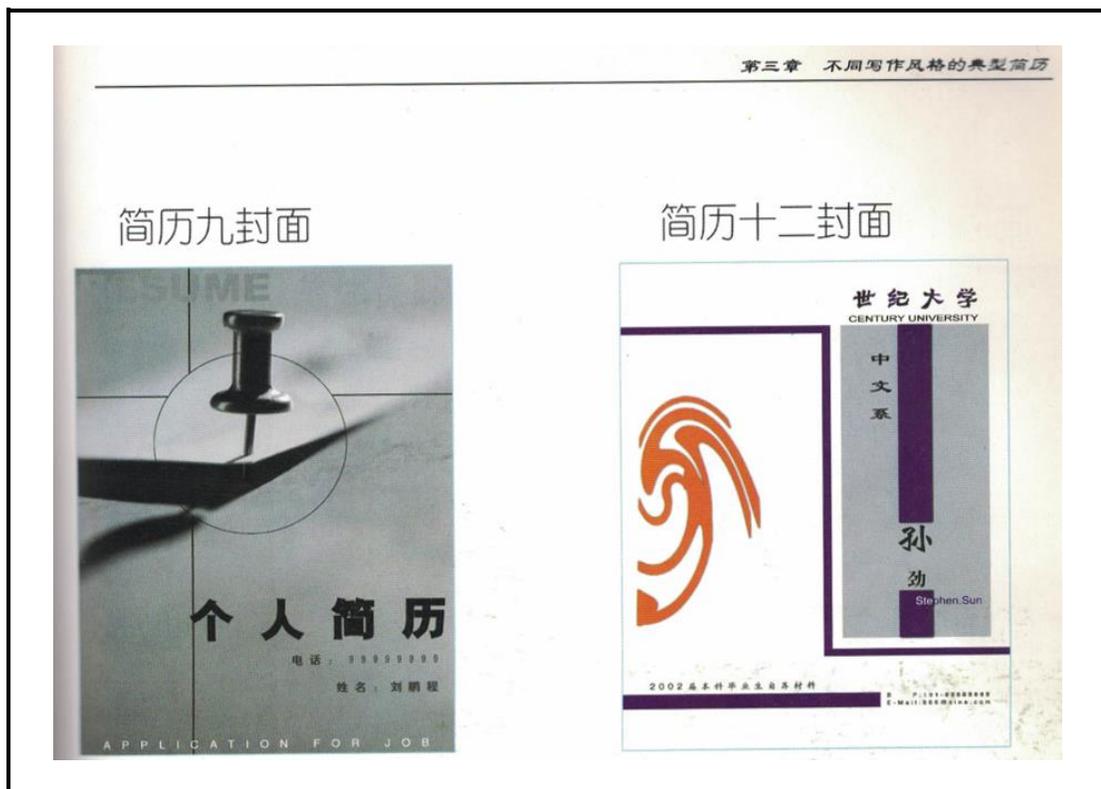


Figure 4.9 Subjective elements in the résumé book samples

The first example has the mottos at the end of the résumé, under a big photo. Such a photo is different from the standard identification photo; it is more lively and colorful, showing how a person looks in his or her daily life. The mottos are in bigger font, centered and italicized, so they are very eye-catching. The applicant quotes the mottos to persuade the employer not to reject him simply because he is a fresh graduate and does not have much experience or achievement. He argues that all great things start from being tiny and tiny things will grow to be big. In the second example, the applicant has a pretty long ending remark, in which he reflects on what he experienced and gained at college and looks forward to his future professional life. The title of the ending is decorated to make it stand out. The phrasing makes it more interpersonal or conversational, with more emotional appeal. The third example showcases how an applicant promotes himself in a boastful manner.

One thing introduced in the book but not found in the actual résumés is a cover page. The book seems to see a cover page as a useful addition to résumés. It has a chapter particularly discussing how to design and create a cover page. Figure 4.10 demonstrates some of the examples in the book. Having a cover page in one's résumé was reported as a special and popular phenomenon in 2003 to 2006 (Li, 2011b). As a result of mass higher education in China, competition in job

market got fierce after 2003 (Bai, 2006). To improve employability, college graduates made great effort to develop self-recommendation materials to impress employers and market themselves. The materials took different forms in design, content, and length. In some cases, they looked similar to a portfolio, with various components such as a cover page, a narrative passage or letter that introduced, described, or even marketed the person, a résumé, sometimes an English version of the narrative passage and/or résumé, copies of honors, awards, and certificates received, photos showing their professionalism or positive qualities, and recommendation letters. The design of the application documents was seen as important. At the 2007 Conference of Association of Teachers of Technical Writing, Hu and Gu (2007) presented a paper on résumé design in China, in which they demonstrated a range of résumé cover designs that showed individuality and/or conformity (cited in Li, 2011a).



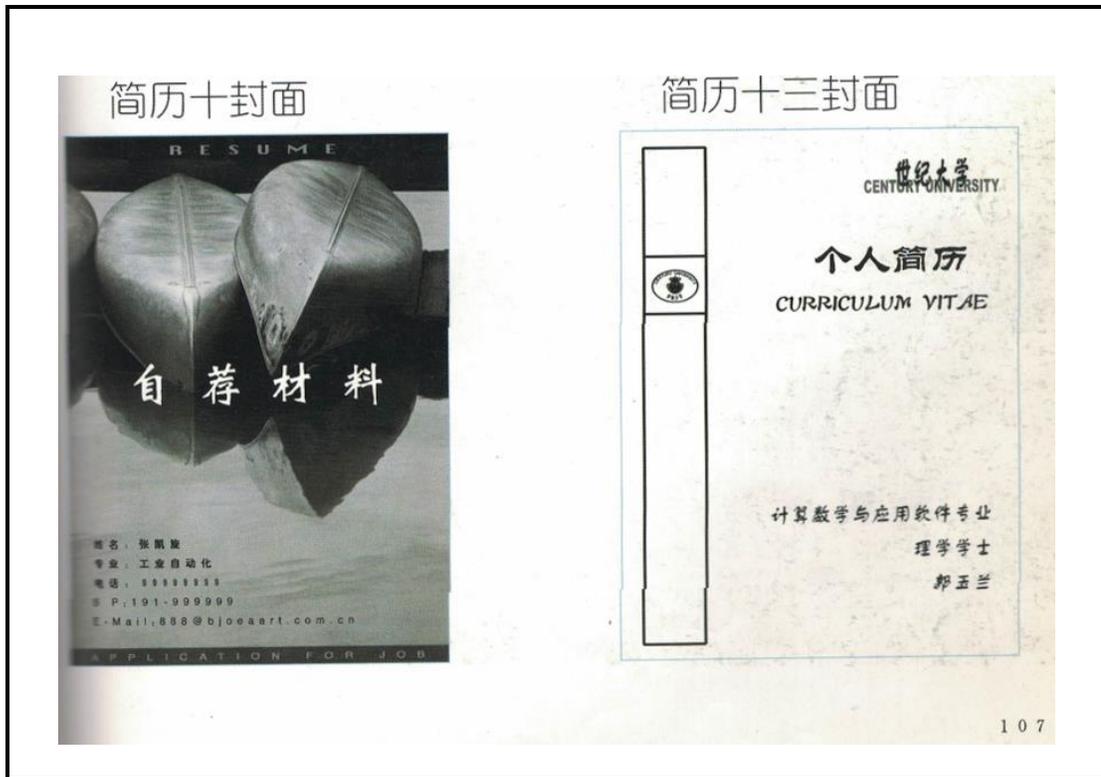


Figure 4.10 Cover page examples in the résumé book (2002)

The cover page was an important element to show an applicant's creativity. However, Li (2011b) reported that the cover page often had a background image unrelated to the candidate. This argument seems to be supported by the examples included in the résumé book under examination. Two of the cover page examples in Figure 4.10 have background images, but it is hard to see any direct or explicit connections between the images and the job seekers or job application. Another common way of designing the cover page was by seeking inspiration from poems, proverbs, metaphors, cultural symbols, or classic advertisements. Students also played with Chinese characters, English letters, or computer fonts in the two languages to create special textual or visual effects.

One more interesting thing found in the book samples is the inclusion of English elements in Chinese résumés. Figure 4.11 is such an example. The part in English is similar to the subjective, free-style elements discussed previously. The purpose is to include something personalized and

try to persuade the audience once more. Inclusion of English elements in Chinese résumés is not uncommon. This example is not a single case. All the cover pages shown in Figure 4.11 also have something in English.

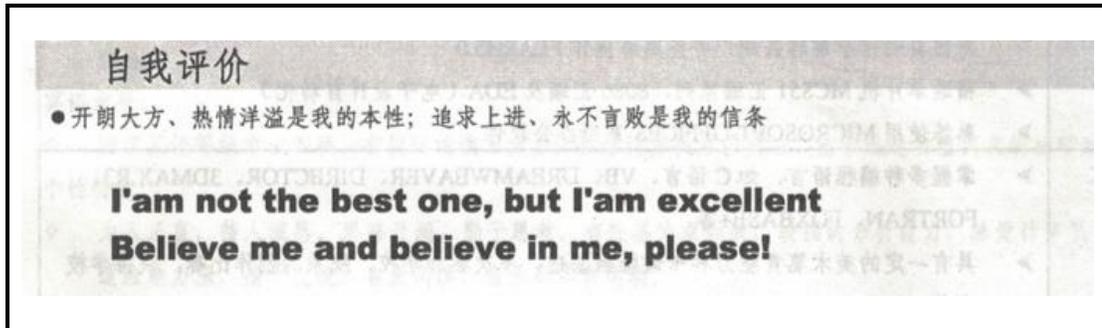


Figure 4.11 English elements in Chinese résumés

The English language seems to have an active and prominent role in China's job market. Foreign invested companies or joint ventures need their employees to be able to use a foreign language, in most cases English. They may use English résumés in the recruitment processes. Domestic companies also prefer their employees to know the language as many of them do business with international clients or have the potential to develop such business. Some companies require or prefer applicants to submit an English résumé in addition to their Chinese résumés. Even when an English résumé is not required, job seekers may still include one out of the belief that it may be helpful to their application. English language ability is considered as a basic quality of a person with higher education. It is highlighted consistently in résumés of applicants with a college education. Some job seekers even design and include, purposefully, something in English in their résumés.

The book under examination has a section dedicated to English résumés. It talks about language use such as action verbs and formulaic expressions in English résumés. As for contents, the samples show a conformity between the English and Chinese counterparts. Some English samples even resemble the table or segment format of their Chinese versions. There is no evidence

showing a recommendation to follow the Western conventions when writing an English résumé to be used in China. It seems that applicants need to present all the needed information, including the details unique to the Chinese job market. There is also no suggestion or restriction on the design or format of English résumés. They can take any form, a table, half table, segment, or text, similar to their Chinese versions.

To sum up, résumé books and training programs mushroomed in the first decade of the 21st century. Résumés in Chinese were not taught in formal classes due to the fact that there were hardly any Chinese writing courses at the college level (Ding, 2010). Some college students received instructions in the employment training programs or activities held by university career services. Résumés in English had a few chances to be included in college English classes, but the instructions were more on the textual features than on the communicative purposes. English teachers see it more as a chance for teaching the English language. They might feel more confident and comfortable in teaching the language than to teach other aspects of the genre because many of them did not have much professional experience that would be needed in the teaching (Barnum et al., 2001; Barnum & Li, 2006). As a result, most job seekers relied on résumé books and experienced people they knew to learn how to write an effective resume in either language. The résumé books at this stage played an important role in disseminating and shaping this genre.

4.4 Stage III: Web-based Creation and Submission

From the late 2000s on, companies and job seekers have relied heavily on the Internet to recruit staff and seek for employment. Many companies post their positions on job search sites, where large numbers of people register for job information and making applications. Most of these websites have a pre-set résumé format, often as a table, in which job seekers are solicited to fill

out some information. The résumés created in such a website thus look standardized, bearing the same site-specific features such as title, logo, design, and components.

A job seeker can send his or her résumé to a potential employer through the website when he or she finds a promising position. The employer often receives multiple applications through the website where it posts the job information. Company A in this study has recruited people in this way. In the past ten years, it has used two popular job search engines in China: *zhaopin.com* and *51job.com*. The majority of résumés it has received are submitted by applicants from these two sites. Sometimes, companies can use some services provided by the websites to help locate qualified candidates. For example, a company can hire an employment specialist whose duty is to match candidates with a particular position and forward their résumés to the company. Company C in this study used this service. In 2011 and 2012, it received over 300 résumés found and recommended by employment specialists through three websites: *51job.com*, *ChinaHR.com*, and *01hr.com*. The company HR staff selected from the forwarded résumés those that interested them and contacted the candidates for further information or interviews. Apart from the two recruiting methods above, some companies post job information and solicit applications through their own websites. The companies usually do not require a particular design of résumés, but those submitted to them are often in the formats set by some job websites because very likely the applicants have registered on a website, created their résumés there, and used the résumés to apply for all possible positions. Company B uses this method of recruitment.

As discussed above, when job search engines have become the major method of recruitment and job seeking, most résumés are created online following the formats designed by job websites. A large portion of applications are made through job websites and candidates' résumés are sent or forwarded to employers through the sites. In the cases when people apply through a company's website, they most likely still use the résumés created through a job website. In short, the pre-designed format and web-submission are the prevalent features of résumés at this stage.

Instructions on résumés are extensive. More books on topics such as career planning, résumés and interviews, and workplace writing are published. Résumé instructions, samples, templates, and other materials are widely available online, which are handy, user-friendly, and diverse. When job seekers create their résumés through a website, they may refer to the templates and samples provided there, and the website even offers suggestions in the process of résumé creation. With the increase of foreign job seekers in the Chinese job market, corresponding websites are set up, which post job information or offer résumé tips to these foreigners. It will be interesting to see how the foreign applicants are taught to write résumés in response to the context in the Chinese society. In the following subsections, I will show the résumé templates of the four websites used by the Chinese companies, examine some actual résumés submitted through the websites, and then look into the instructions for foreign job seekers to write résumés for China.

4.4.1 Résumé templates on popular job search sites

The companies in this study used four job search engines in China, namely *zhaopin.com*, *51job.com*, *ChinaHR.com*, and *01hr.com*. Each of the websites has a pre-designed résumé template, which includes a long list of items and sections that are considered important or necessary components in résumés. People who choose to use a website need to register and create their résumés in the pre-set format. They often start by filling in some solicited information, such as name, age, gender, target job, desired work place, education, and others, to form a brief basic profile of an applicant. The solicited items often appear at the top of a résumé, being the first block of information presented in the document. The job seekers then choose from the list of sections those they would like to include in their résumés. They are also given the chance to upload any materials they want to use in the application process. In addition, job seekers can choose to create an English résumé through the websites. Appendix M shows two résumés from *ChinaHR.com* and *51job.com*, both with Chinese and English versions. The design of the English

version is often exactly the same as the Chinese version. An English résumé is therefore primarily a translation of the Chinese original.

As noted in Appendix M, the pre-designed templates of job websites all cover the elements necessary in recruiting processes, while they may differ in some way from one another. Table 4.9 displays the components of the résumé template in the four websites. The items in the left column are located from the four designs. A tick means it appears in the template in a certain website. The number of websites that include an item is given in the right column.

Table 4.9

Résumé templates in four job search sites

	zhaopin.com	ChinaHR.com	51job.com	01HR.com	#
Front matter					
	Target position	Target position	Target position	Gender	
	Target organization	Résumé No.	Target organization	Age	
	Job location	Date of update	Date of submission	Highest education	
	Résumé ID		Résumé keyword	Major	
Personal information					
Name	√	√	√	√	4
Gender	√	√	√	√	4
Age (Date of birth)	√	√	√	√	4
Photo	√	√	√	√	4
Current residence	√	√	√	√	4
household registration	√	√	√		3
Marital status	√	√	√		3
Political status	√	√			2
Personal status			√		1
Ethnicity		√			1
Citizenship		√			1
Highest education	√	√	√	√	4
Major			√	√	2
Time of graduation		√			1
Institution			√		1
English proficiency		√			1
Length of experience	√	√		√	3
Latest job		√	√		2
Former employer		√	√		2
Industry of last job			√		1
Job title			√		1
Current salary		√			1

Mobile address	√	√	√	Contact information available on the website	
Email	√	√	√		
Homepage	√	√			
QQ		√			
ID number	√				
Career objective					
Desired position	√	√	√	√	4
Desired location	√	√	√	√	4
Desired salary	√	√	√	√	4
Employment condition	√	√	√	√	4
Time available to start	√	√	√		3
Desired industry	√	√			2
Desired company type				√	1
Other sections					
Self-assessment	√	√	√	√	4
Work Experience	√	√	√	√	4
Education	√	√	√	√	4
Language Skills	√	√	√	√	4
Professional Skills	√	√		√	3
Specialties	√	√		√	3
Certificates	√	√	√	√	3
Project Experience	√			√	2
Training	√			√	2
Awards/Scholarship	√				1
Honors	√				1
IT skills			√		1
Interests & Hobbies	√				1
Family members		√			1
Others				√	1

Each of the four templates has some items at the beginning that are specific to the website. The items derive from the process of résumé creation and the way it works. Information about one's target job is needed first since it works as an index. Some items that help identify a résumé may be included, such as a number, some keywords, or date of submission.

The résumé begins formally from the applicant's name, which literally initiates the section of personal information. Following the Chinese résumé tradition, this section includes a long list of items, ranging from basic personal information, to information unique to Chinese society, and to information of past work and education. Even the contact information has a variety of choices, not restricted to phone, email, and address. Consistently appearing on the websites are gender and age (in many cases date of birth). These details may not appear in a US style résumé, but they are

taken as default information in a Chinese one, and all those involved in the recruitment process, the employer, employee, and intermediary, do not seem to feel anything wrong to provide or read them in a résumé. Likewise, a photo is also a default item to include. Employers always want to know the physical look of an applicant, while most job seekers see this as a chance to show their professionalism and charm. They upload photos in which they look professional or good.

Another personal detail appearing in most of the websites is marital status. It is not clear why this information is considered necessary to be included. I could not get in touch with the website staff to ask about this, but I got some recruiters' opinions in my interviews with the HR people (see the next chapter). The item "political status" appears on two websites. The reason for including this item might be that the websites try to provide the chances for applicants to present all possibly useful information and a person's political affiliation or attitude may still matter for certain positions. Of course, the absence of this item in the other two websites might indicate that this information does not draw much attention today. Also appearing consistently in all the four websites are residency information, including current residence and 户口 (household registration). Even though great reform has taken place in the Chinese 户口 system and nationwide job market have come into being and been in service for years, 户口 seems still to play some role in employment.

Education and work experience are two mandatory categories in this first section. They appear to be solicited items in the form of table cell or segment, like other items in this section. Related details include education level, major, institution, graduation date, the latest job, employer, and salary. Two consistently included details are the applicant's highest education and length of experience in the professional field where he or she is searching for employment. The importance of these items is evident. Education level and work experience are often threshold requirements and are used as screening criteria in the first step of recruitment.

For contact information, the websites provide a wide range of options. In addition to the regular items such as phone, email, and address, an applicant can provide his or her homepage link and/or QQ account (a popular social networking tool in China). Inclusion of these non-traditional means of contact partially shows the influence of technology on hiring and job seeking. People now have more means available to market themselves. Personal homepages push the boundary of regular materials for self-promotion, such as traditional paper-based résumés and photocopies of certificates. Applicants break the restriction of paper, and present themselves in a more vivid, diverse, comprehensive, multi-layered, and interactive manner. Recruiters, when they need to, may have a chance to know more about their candidates. The social networking services provide additional ways of contact. They are powerful, with many great functions, making inter-personal communication quicker, more convenient, and more efficient.

Next to the personal information section is often career objective. Different from the brief statement in one or a couple of sentences that expresses one's professional goal in the Western style résumés, the section here consists of a list of details, presented in the form of table or segment. In addition to regular information such as the target job or position and target type of company or industry, the section also has items such as desired place to work, employment condition (full time or part time), expected salary, and the time available to start work. Many of the items are solicited. Applicants have to fill out the required items when they create their résumés; otherwise, they will not be able to move on to the next step in the process. The details here help narrow down the searching range, make the search results match the requirements better, and save time for both recruiters and job seekers.

All the websites provide a wide array of content areas for people to present themselves as fully as possible. Similar to the self-designed résumés dominant in the first decade of the 21st century, the website résumés also have self-assessment, work experience, and education as mandatory sections. The self-assessment section is even prioritized, being placed before other sections. Also

appearing in all the websites is a section of language skills, where people describe what foreign languages they speak, how well they can use them, what tests they took, and what trainings or certificates they have received regarding the languages. This common section reflects how important foreign language ability is considered in today's job market in China. By contrast, the computer skills, which are attached equal importance in the self-designed résumés are not treated similarly. The websites do not set the skills as a separate section. Only *51job.com* includes an item named IT skills. A possible reason is that computer skills often mingle with professional skills as many jobs today require the ability to use computers and some software. What's more, the skills can also be covered in sections of training, specialties, and certificates.

A section for family members is included in one website. It surprises me at first, but a second look into the résumés collected from the companies shows that only very few applicants provided the information and the purpose was to have another person to contact in case there was a need. This detail shows that the website is very careful when designing the template, trying to include all options that may be useful. This is also the case in other websites. At the bottom of the templates, there is always a place for people to attach other materials they would like to present. In short, the websites try to let job seekers put in whatever is useful in the recruitment processes.

4.4.2 Features of résumés at Stage III

Résumés created through a website bear the same features specific to the website. In the process of creating résumés, job seekers are required to fill out certain information, and they cannot move on to the next step if any required items are missing. In this way, there is no clue as to whether an applicant includes an item out of his perception of its necessity or because he or she is forced to. These solicited items form a basic résumé, and the applicant can then choose to add other components. At this point, a website may give writing suggestions according to the statistics of all the applicants using the website. Figure 4.12 demonstrates an example of the suggestions on

ChinaHR.com, one of the job websites used by the companies in this study. Such suggestions are based on the statistics of all applicants using the website, so they differ according to what position the person is looking for and what other applicants for similar positions have done in their résumés. The suggestions help applicants get to know and follow the trends regarding what information is considered necessary or important in their target industries or jobs. They assist job seekers to produce effective résumés.

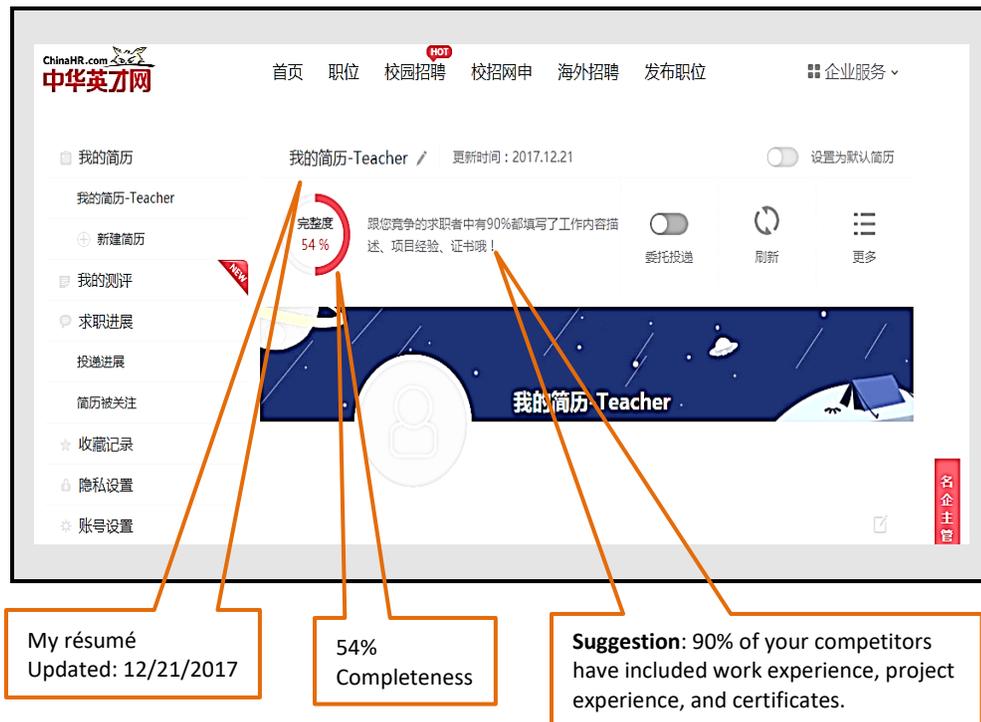


Figure 4.12 Suggestion by a job website to an applicant on developing the résumé

Despite the fact that job seekers cannot decide the designs of their résumés and are required to list certain details, they do have some freedom in deciding what to present. They choose by themselves from the list of sections which ones to include. The websites only set the section names but not any restrictions on how many sections to have and what to include in each of them. The details to include and the way to present them are completely the applicant's choice. There is also no limit to length, not like in the traditional paper-based résumés where one has to pay

attention to the page layout and number of pages. Furthermore, job seekers make their own decisions as to whether an English version will be included or not.

The analysis here is focused on the aspects for which applicants make their own decisions. The résumés used in this analysis were from Company C. The company posted its positions in three websites and hired recruitment specialists to find qualified candidates for it. Most of the résumés it had received were forwarded by the specialists from the websites; a small portion were sent directly by applicants. The HR manager provided to me all the résumés it had received in 2011 and 2012 (see Table 3.3). In other words, the résumé data from Company C were original, not screened consciously or subconsciously by the HR manager; the data thus may reflect things that cannot be shown in those from other companies where the HR people sent to me only some of their résumés. Altogether 300 web-based résumés were received by the company from three websites for 5 types of positions in the two years. I picked from them 15 résumés, 5 from each website, by random sampling to look at what components, apart from those required, the applicants chose to include. Table 4.10 summarizes the components in the 15 web-based résumés.

Table 4.10

Self-decided components in web-based résumés

Self-decided elements		Frequency	%	
Section	Section components / description			
Self-evaluation		15	100%	
	Work ethics	13	87%	
	Personality	10	67%	
	Professional skills	9	60%	
	English ability	7	47%	
	Computer / IT	5	33%	
	Other skills / potential (learning ability, teamwork, leadership, interpersonal, communication)	8	53%	
	Resolution, career expectation	3	20%	
Work experience		14	93%	
	Routine items: time, employer, position / job title	14	93%	
	Industry	9	60%	
	Company description	6	40%	
	Description of duties and achievements	Detailed	13	87%
		Brief	1	7%

Education	15	100%
Routine items: date, institution, degree, major	15	100%
Courses taken	10	67%
Certificates	5	33%
Awards	2	13%
Training experience	4	27%
Certificates	4	27%
Language ability	15	100%
English proficiency	15	100%
English test taken / proficiency level recognized	10	67%
Mandarin proficiency	4	27%
Local dialect (Cantonese)	2	13%
Foreign language other than English	1	7%
Skills	5	33%
Professional skills	4	27%
Computer / IT	3	20%
English skills	2	13%
Professional skills / Specialty	4	27%
Hobbies / Interests	2	13%

As expected, the sections of self-evaluation, work experience, and education are “must-haves.” However, unique to the web-based résumés is the prioritization of the self-evaluation section, which not only appears consistently in all the samples, but is placed up front, right after personal information and before all other sections. This is a change as compared to the last résumé stage. In the self-designed résumés prevalent in the 2000s, the self-evaluation section was common, but was not necessarily included in every résumé. It would appear anywhere in the document, often at the end. Whereas, the web-based résumés have it as an early section. The sequence of sections is decided by the design of the website, and the website’s design often reflects perceptions of professionals and opinions of a larger portion of practitioners. The examination of résumés in the two stages uncovers that the self-evaluation section has long been an important component, and its prominence even increases today in web-based résumés.

The web-based résumés cover similar information in the self-evaluation section as to that in self-designed résumés. Work ethics, personality, and all types of skills are frequently mentioned. Compared with those in the self-designed résumés, job-related professional skills appear more, while other skills such as teamwork, leadership, and communication are mentioned slightly less.

A guess of the reason for this change is the applicants' strategic adaptation to the recruitment methods used today. Many companies use computers to scan for keywords in résumés, so a résumé with more job-related phrases may have a greater chance to be "caught" by a recruiter.

The work experience section in all the résumés includes routine information such as time, employer, position or job title, and duties and achievements. Some websites require special items such as work location, employment condition (full time or part-time), level of the position, industry of the company, and company description such as size and business. Whether to include these items or not is not under the applicants' control. What applicants can control is how detailed they are in describing their their past jobs. Of the 15 résumés, one does not have this section because the applicant was a fresh graduate without formal job experience. Among the remaining 14, 13 have very detailed descriptions, either in a paragraph style or in bulleted lists, of what duties they took, what procedures they got familiar with, what technical skills they developed and used, and what tasks they accomplished. On average, the descriptions of job duties and achievements in these web-based résumés are even more detailed than those in the self-designed résumés. For one thing, it is a consensus that work experience is of substantial importance in seeking employment. For another, online production of résumés does not set a limit to the length of the documents. Also, it may be the strategic adaptation that job seekers try to include as many job- or industry- related elements as possible for their résumés to be searched by recruiters.

Education is another mandatory section. Beside the routine items such as date, institution, degree, and major, job seekers also include certificates or awards that they have received. Different from the self-designed résumés in which few applicants listed the courses they had taken at school, two-thirds of the web-based résumés include the course information. However, it is not a blunt list of all courses taken, but a careful and purposeful selection of those relevant to the target job or industry. Many of the descriptions are narrative in style, rather than a list of facts.

Besides the three sections discussed above, language ability is another section that appears in all the résumés. Obligatory in this section is a description of English proficiency, often accompanied by what English test one has taken and/or what certificate the person has received. In a few cases applicants describe their Mandarin proficiency or the ability of speaking a local dialect. These may be for the purpose of seeking jobs in special places where Mandarin or a local dialect is used. In brief, great attention is paid to the ability of speaking English. This information can be placed in various sections, for example, self-evaluation, education, training, language ability, skills, specialty, and certificates. Many job seekers mention it in multiple places. This emphasis of English ability reflects the important role of the language in today's China. With the progression of globalization, both organizations and individuals see the increasing potential of using English in their business and work. Ability of speaking the language has become a solid part of one's skill kit. Job seekers present and prove this ability through different means. In addition to mentioning it within the résumé, some applicants also create an English version of their résumés. The English résumé produced by a Chinese job seeker seems to perform multiple functions. It may be used as the major application material if the target company requires an English résumé, or it may serve as proof of one's English ability.

To see how likely job seekers would provide an English résumé, I examined the résumés received by Company C from two websites (*ChinaHR.com* and *51job.com*) for two positions (financial staff and foreign trade merchandiser). Including two websites helped reduce the potential influence, if any, from a single website. Selection of the two positions was done because they were in contrast in terms of the need for English at work. The financial staff position did not need to use the language in its daily duties, while the merchandiser position involved using English to fulfill multiple job tasks. In addition, the résumés received for the two positions were plenty, which enabled a statistical calculation. Figure 4.13 illustrates the portions of applicants providing an English résumé.

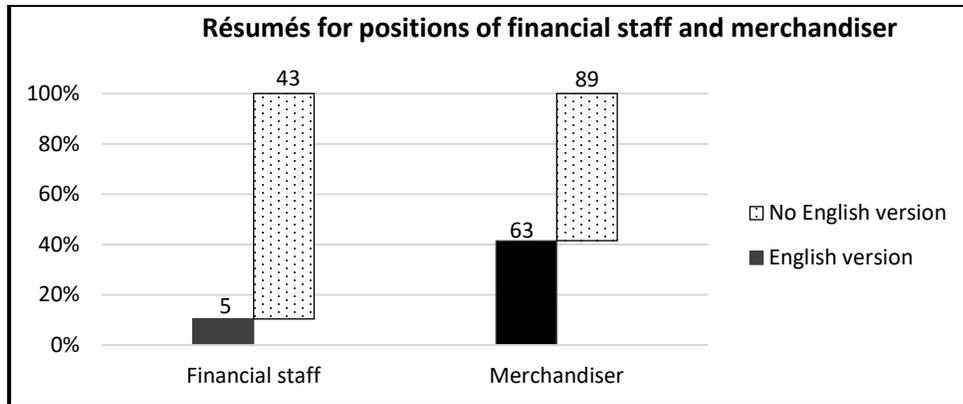


Figure 4.13 Inclusion of an English résumé for two positions

The difference between the two positions is evident. Only 10% of the résumés for the position of financial staff have an English version attached; by contrast, over 40% of those for the merchandiser position include an English résumé. Multiple factors may influence an applicant's decision, for example, whether an English résumé is required or preferred according to a job notice, how necessary an English résumé is seen by the applicant, what suggestion is given by the website, and how easy or difficult it is for the applicant to produce an English résumé. As described previously, a job seeker often creates his résumé with only a rough idea about the target field or target jobs. The résumé is not tailored in response to a specific job posting. The applicant's knowledge about what information should be provided and whether an English résumé is needed or not when applying for the target job may have been developed by reading relevant job advertisements or application samples. The applicant's perception and decision may also be influenced by the website's suggestions based on its statistics which reflect shared opinions of people. Simply put, including an English résumé is often not a direct response to the solicitation in a specific job notice, but an applicant's voluntary decision based on his knowledge of the target job and his perception of the role and necessity of an English résumé.

To sum up, web-based résumés are formalized. Document design is not a concern of the writers since they just follow the templates pre-designed by job websites. Many items are required for the

purpose of categorizing applicants and enabling employers to locate applicants as well as perform the initial screening. Job seekers can decide what résumé sections to include and what details to put in the sections. Websites may provide suggestions according to what other applicants do. All job seekers have the self-evaluation section where they try hard to appeal to employers by describing their work ethics, personality, and skills. They all have very detailed descriptions of their past jobs, including their duties and achievements. Many of them include core courses they took at college or in training programs, which are highly relevant to the target jobs. English ability and professional skills are mentioned multiple times to show how promising they are as candidates. Most importantly, job seekers strategically adapt to the current recruitment methods, filling their résumés with keywords that recruiters are searching for. The fixed formats and changed rhetorical patterns symbolize the maturation and stabilization of the résumé genre in China.

4.4.3 Résumé instructions for foreign job seekers

With China's economic growth and its developing into a global market, more people from all over the world are attracted to seek employment opportunities in the country. Correspondingly, websites providing job information in China and serving international job seekers are set up. These websites often post articles talking about how to get employed in China, including how to write résumés satisfying the local employers' needs. For example, an article posted in *eChinacities.com* in 2014 reminds job seekers of changes they need to make in their résumés when they apply for jobs in China ("Writing a Resume For China," 2014). It informs the readers that employers in China expect to see much more personal information, even though this would be deemed discriminatory in the West. The article suggests that one should include his or her date of birth, gender, marital status, as well as the number and age of his or her children, in addition to the regular details such as name, address, and contact information. The person should also include a headshot in which he or she looks smart and dresses conservatively. The reason for making

these changes, as claimed in the article, is to show that the job seeker is aware of certain Chinese cultural specifications.

This is not the only article making such suggestions. Many online posts give similar information. A post in *blog.tutorming.com*, targeting international job seekers, talks about how to write a Chinese résumé (Kim, 2016). It says that Chinese resumes generally provide more personal details than Western ones. Common items are gender, place of birth, date of birth, ID or passport number, and highest degree attained. Optional items include health condition, marriage status, ethnicity, foreign language ability, job search objectives, and salary expectations. Figure 4.14 is a screenshot of an example in this post, in which the author, Patrick Kim, uses himself to showcase how to write the personal information section in a Chinese résumé (an English translation is provided beneath the original).

个人简历

姓名: 金泽辉	英文名字: Patrick Kim	
性别: 男	学历: 本科	
国籍: 美国	住址: 北京市**区**街**号*楼**	
健康状况: 非常好	出生年月: ****年*月*号	
联系电话: +86*****	电子邮件: *****	

Name: Jin Zehui	English Name: Patrick Kim
Gender: Male	Highest Degree: Bachelor
Citizenship: The United States	Address: Beijing City**District**Street**Number*Building**
Health Condition: Excellent	Date of Birth: ****Year*Month*Day
Phone Number: +86*****	E-mail: *****

Figure 4.14 A sample of a Chinese résumé of an American job seeker (Kim, 2016)

Writing résumés for jobs in China is also discussed in scholarly studies. Li (2011b) talks about preparing students in the US for the global job market in her dissertation on résumés in China.

She advocates designing some activities in courses such as Technical Writing, for example, requesting and teaching students to write résumés for jobs in other countries. She uses China as an example and provides instructions based on the findings in her dissertation, which involve physical features of a résumé, detailed personal information, a self-evaluation section, and some unique features in education, work experience, and references. She also suggests that “[a] student may consider providing both an English version and a Chinese version of his/her résumé if he/she is really serious about getting a job in China” (p. 230). If the student does not know Chinese, as suggested by her, “he/she may need to consider using a career service translation agency or his/her Chinese friends for assistance in culturally translating his/her résumé. In the cover letter or the transmittal letter, he/she should clearly explain how this is done.” The benefit of doing so, similar to that suggested in the online post mentioned previously (“Writing a Resume For China,” 2014), is to show that the job seeker is aware of Chinese cultural specifications and is willing to blend into this cultural environment.

A large number of foreign job seekers create and post résumés through job search sites, where they follow the templates provided by the websites. Generally, web-based résumés contain less personal details, as demonstrated in Figure 4.15, a résumé of a Kenyan applicant posted in 2012 on a website *matchdragon.com* for jobs in China. The personal items included are similar to those on other job websites in China. In addition to the applicant’s name, items such as age, gender, degree, and major are regular components as well. Besides these, an eye-catching headshot is included. It seems that this applicant, and all other foreign job seekers as well, adapt themselves to the Chinese conventions of résumé practice and provide personal information as needed. This gives evidence of the influence of local culture and writing conventions on the production of résumés in English by foreign job seekers for jobs in China.

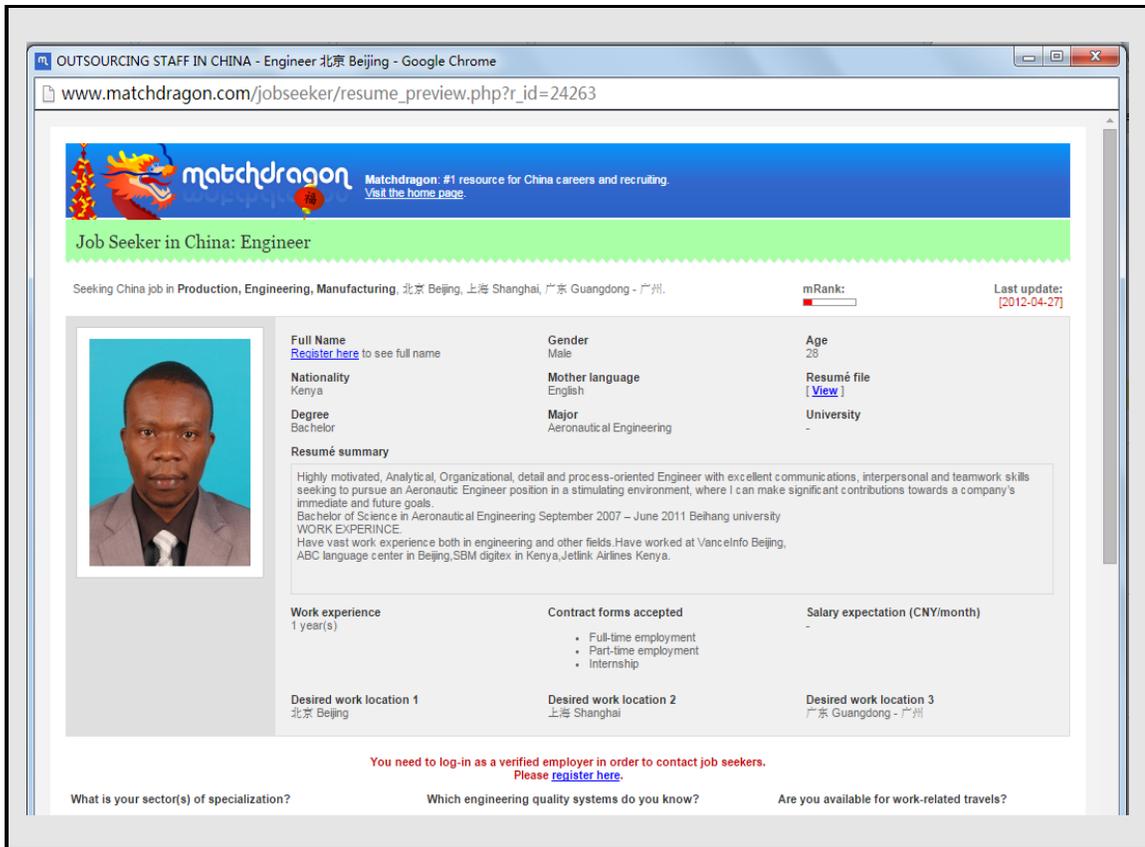


Figure 4.15 A sample of web-based résumés of foreign job seekers

Interestingly, résumés produced by people in some Asian countries have features similar to those in résumés in China. Figure 4.16 shows two résumés on *slideshare.net*, one of a Filipino posted in 2016 and the other of a Vietnamese posted in 2013. The résumés were posted on this social networking website for the purpose of seeking employment opportunities or expanding personal social connections. Due to their very different design features, the two résumés were likely to have been designed by the applicants themselves. Both of them, of people in two different Asian countries, have a long list of personal details, including items such as age and/or date of birth, gender, marital status, health, interest, a description of personal “features,” and a photo in which the person dresses professionally (as in the first) or looks serious (as in the second). The first sample even includes names of parents, their occupations, and religion.

Mary Grace O. Cervantes
166 Ibaba St. Liciada, Bustos, Bulacan
mgc.00018@gmail.com
0936-185-0783



OBJECTIVE

To acquire valuable knowledge and skills to complement those that I have learned from school in an actual job environment . In return, I offer my service and determination to be an asset of your company throughout the duration of my training period.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name	:	Mary Grace O. Cervantes
Age	:	18
Address	:	166 Ibaba St. Liciada, Bustos, Bulacan
Date of Birth	:	June 18, 1997
Place of Birth	:	Sto. Niño Hospital – Bustos, Bulacan
Citizenship	:	Filipino
Father's Name	:	Almario B. Cervantes
Occupation	:	N/A
Mother's Name	:	Trinidad O. Cervantes
Occupation	:	OFW
Religion	:	Roman Catholic

<https://www.slideshare.net/MaryGraceCervantes/mary-grace-o-cervantesresume-ojt>

HUYNH BA HOC
Address: 01 Church Street, 2nd Floor, Room 12, Nha Trang, Vietnam
Mobile: +84 120 5921 232
Email: huynhbahoc@gmail.com



CURRICULUM VITAE
Office Administrator

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Full Name:		Huynh Ba Hoc
Gender:		Male
Nationality:		Vietnamese
Date of Birth:		May 8 th , 1991
Languages known:		First language: Vietnamese (Southern Vietnamese accent) Second languages: British English and Mandarin Chinese
Marital Status:		Single
Occupation:		Fresh College Graduate
Health:		Very good
Interest:		Music, reading, net working, programming, sports, travelling, helping others...
Personal features:		Eagerness to learn, hard-working, work endurance, creativeness, willing to work overtime and far from home even for a long time if necessary

<https://www.slideshare.net/huynhbahoc/cv-resume-sample-for-fresh-graduate-of-office-administration>

Figure 4.16 Samples of self-designed résumés of foreign job seekers

158

These résumés seem to be targeting jobs anywhere, as they were written in English and posted on this international social networking website, and they were interconnected with the individuals' LinkedIn, Facebook, and Tweeter accounts. As shown in Figure 4.16, these résumés have some elements similar to those of résumés in China. This may indicate that résumés across Asian countries may share some common features. Examination of résumés in China helps develop an understanding of this genre in Asian countries, and this understanding contributes to the understanding of international professional communication.

CHAPTER V

PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES OF RÉSUMÉ PRACTITIONERS

This chapter addresses how people today perceive and use résumés. There are roughly three major groups of résumé practitioners. The first group is writers, namely people who need to create the documents to market themselves in the job market; the second is readers, such as HR managers and personnel staff who review application materials to make hiring decisions; the third is instructors, including college teachers, book authors, and career service counselors who provide instructions and suggestions to help job seekers produce effective résumés. Learning about the perceptions and practices of these résumé practitioners may supplement our understanding of the development of the genre and help us gain a thorough understanding of résumé practices in China. In the following sections, I report my findings in the surveys and interviews of college students, company employees, English teachers, college career guidance center staff, and HR managers. I also look at any connections or discrepancies between different groups of users.

5.1 Résumé Writers

The résumé writers examined in this study include the following: two company employees and eleven college English teachers representing experienced job seekers who once wrote résumés to apply for jobs and succeeded in their application; 160 graduate students from different disciplines who might have had experiences in writing résumés when they graduated from college and

applying for jobs, and were more likely to have received résumé instructions owing to their longer educational experiences; 125 undergraduate sophomores from various majors who were in an elective course, Business English (BE), and thus might have some chances to receive instructions on how to write English résumés; and 50 sophomores who did not take the BE class and only took general college English courses.

The two company employees graduated in 2008 and 2013, respectively. They had applied for different positions and worked in different companies before they settled down with their current jobs. Both of them had written and used résumés for job application multiple times. Over half of the college teachers, who finished their education at different levels from 1985 to 2011, had written résumés for job seeking. Some graduate students had written a résumé when they graduated from college, and a few used the document when applying for overseas graduate schools. The undergraduate students were only in their second year and had not yet needed a résumé for jobs, but some of them had written one in a class or a training program. The survey of these college students with little job seeking experience started from questions more related to their school life. I first asked about any résumé instructions they had received on campus and off campus, their opinions about whether or not they would need a résumé in the future, and how they would create a résumé in either Chinese or English. I then moved on to ask about their perceptions of the need for and role of résumés in job seeking and what training they would like to obtain to get them ready for the job market. The interviews of the company employees and the college teachers addressed in greater detail their experiences in writing their résumés and using them for applications.

5.1.1 Résumé instructions received by the job seekers

The participants were asked whether they had received any instructions on résumés in either Chinese or English and where they had received the instructions if any and what types of

instructions they had obtained. As shown in Figure 5.1, nearly half of the sophomores in the BE class reported previous résumé instructions. By contrast, a lower percentage (26%) of those not in the class had received instructions before. But surprisingly, the difference was not caused by the course itself. Only six students in the BE class reported that their teachers had talked about résumés. The majority learned about résumés from other sources, such as online postings, job search sites, courses related to career development, activities hosted by college employment services, communication with senior students or experienced friends, college English classes, and English training programs for studying overseas. The reason that more students in the BE class received résumé instructions seemed to be that these students were more active in participating in extracurricular activities related to career development. Their voluntary decision of taking the BE course partially proved their interest in and attention to their future careers.

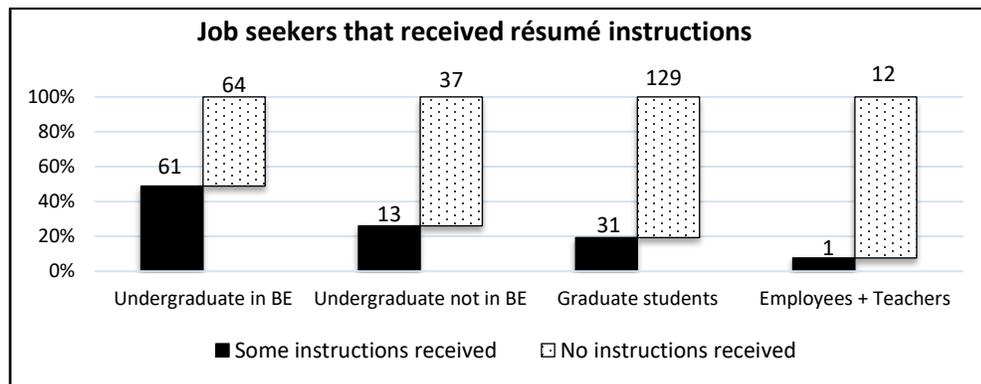


Figure 5.1 Proportions of the job seekers having received résumé instructions

The fact that only a few students reported résumé instructions in the BE class indicates that the résumé genre was not often taught in the class, and the instructions, if any, did not impress the students since the students had little memory of them. Students' descriptions in the questionnaire and the focus group support this guess. Most of them remembered that their teachers had mentioned résumé writing very briefly, talking about regular components and formats of English résumés, tips, and common mistakes (many were about language use and format). The class time

spent on this topic had usually been one session (50 minutes) with hardly any required follow-up exercises. In brief, the BE class was focused more on linguistic education; résumé was not a regularly-covered topic; even when it was covered, the instructions were brief and more about language use. Both teachers and students treated the class as a chance to learn the language used in some business contexts.

Of the 160 graduate students, around 19% reported prior experience with résumé instructions. This percentage is surprisingly lower than that of the undergraduates. A reason for it could be the diverse origins of the graduate students. The students were from different institutions in different areas in China, which differ remarkably in courses and programs that are set and offered. The university in this study is a leading higher education institution located in a big city in the central area of China. It is more advanced in many aspects as compared to a large number of other universities. Students there seem to have more opportunities to access various programs and training, including career development. By contrast, those who have their undergraduate education in other universities might not have as many opportunities.

The graduate students' sources of résumé instructions were similar to those of the undergraduates, ranging from online resources, career development courses or programs on campus and off campus, friends or schoolmates with related experience, and some undergraduate-level English courses such as English Writing, Translation, and Business English. The university offered an English writing course to first-year graduate students, using a textbook named *Advanced English Writing* published in 2013. The book is composed of four parts: Writing Essentials, Writing for Practical Purposes, Academic Writing, and Mechanics. Each part consists of a few chapters. Chapter four in Part two is Common Forms of Practical Writing, and résumé is included as one of the forms. Inclusion of the résumé as well as other forms of practical writing in a formal course seemed to indicate the progress in the education of professional communication in Chinese universities. However, the interviews of English teachers who taught this course revealed that

most of the forms of practical writing were treated as optional and were not discussed in class. The course was offered in one semester, which was, according to a teacher, not enough to cover all the topics. The teachers paid more attention to what they saw as more needed by students, for example, academic writing and some writing mechanics. “Graduate students need to write academic texts such as research paper and thesis,” said a teacher, “and they have various problems in their language use as EFL writers” (Interview Transcript, p. 20). As a result, the teachers strived for students’ improvement in these areas, and other topics were largely neglected.

The experienced job seekers, including the college teachers and the company employees, hardly received any formal training on résumé writing. Most of them learned how to write the document by themselves. The teachers who finished their undergraduate education between 1985 and 2002 relied on templates or samples found in books and from other people, while the company employees who graduated in 2008 and 2013 used online materials such as instructions given by job search sites, templates found online, and résumés of outstanding people available on company websites. The teacher who graduated in 2002 remembered that her English teacher talked about résumé writing in class, but the instructions were general and vague. An employee mentioned his participation in a résumé training lecture provided by his university career services at the end of 2012. He commented that the instructions at that time were not clear and effective. “The lecturer introduced a résumé template in general with brief explanation. After the lecture, I still did not know how to write a résumé” (Interview Transcript, p. 25). Another employee felt that her first résumé, created upon graduation based on a job website, was “naïve and unsatisfying” even though she followed the template and instructions available on the website. The résumé, as she described, was “empty in content,” not including enough details to illustrate her qualifications effectively, and was “aimless,” not addressing a target position or company clearly (Interview Transcript, p. 24). So was her English version, created by learning from examples of native English speakers. Luckily, she had a friend with rich workplace experience who helped her revise

the document. The person suggested that she describe her past experiences in greater detail, talking about what she had achieved, learned, and developed from the experiences; he also helped modify the phrasing. She learned a lot from her friend and felt more confident about her new version of résumé in both Chinese and English.

5.1.2 The need for a résumé as perceived by the job seekers

The majority of the college students thought they would “definitely” or “probably” need a résumé in Chinese in their future job seeking (Figure 5.2). The graduate students (91%) were more certain about the need than the undergraduates (BE 85.6% and non-BE 78%). Correspondingly, more undergraduates, particularly those not in the BE class thought they would likely or possibly, but not definitely, need a résumé. A possible reason for this difference between students at different levels, as revealed in the focus group discussions, is that many undergraduates planned to go to graduate schools and thus would not seek jobs.

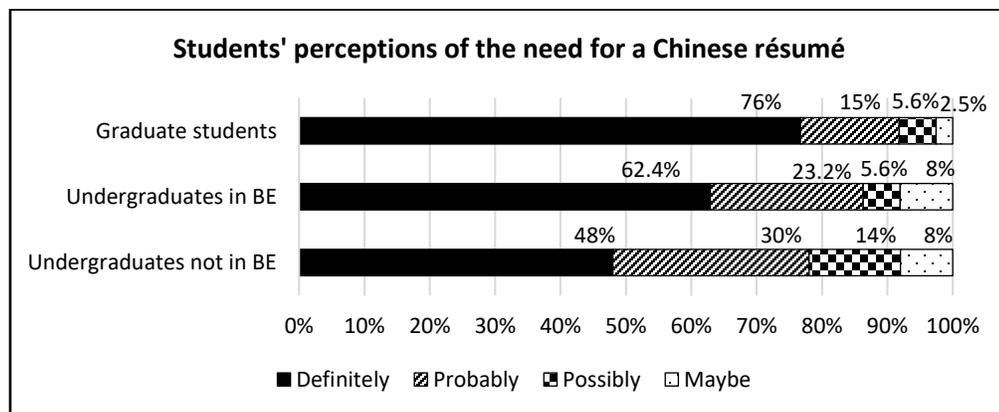


Figure 5.2 Students' perceptions of their needs for a Chinese résumé

Compared with a Chinese résumé, an English one was seen as less needed. Only 68.8% graduate students, 53.6% undergraduates in the BE class, and 38% undergraduates not in the BE class thought they would “definitely” or “probably” need an English résumé (Figure 5.3). More students were not sure or did not see it as needed.

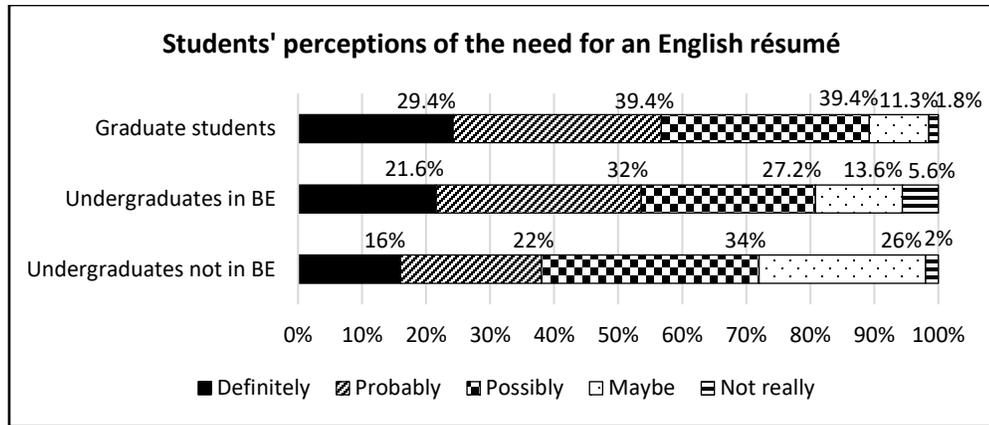


Figure 5.3 Students' perceptions of their needs for an English résumé

The focus group discussions revealed students' varied opinions. There was a consensus on the need for an English résumé when a person targeted an international company where a résumé in English was required and used as the major application document. Meanwhile, discrepancies existed in its necessity when people applied for jobs at domestic companies. Some students believed that an English résumé would help show their language ability and potential, and would thus benefit their application. Others doubted its usefulness when a job obviously had nothing to do with the foreign language. The two sides could not persuade each other, but the discussion demonstrated that these Chinese college students as future job seekers considered the rhetorical situations of job seeking when they thought about developing their résumés. They tended to address the target readers' needs and the contexts of use.

A larger portion of the undergraduates in the BE class, as compared with those not in the BE class, see a résumé in both languages as strongly needed. This difference seems not out of students' demographics, as all of them were in their second year and similar in age, both groups were from a wide range of majors, and the ratios of males to females in the two groups were similar. The only perceived inter-group difference is their decision of taking the BE class, a popular course on international professional communication in China. The students who chose to

take the class might have been more interested in the business world and international communication and more active in participating in activities related to career development. At the same time, learning about professional communication in the class might have strengthened their interest and deepened their knowledge about the workplace. Jointly, these factors may have caused students' different ideas about the need for a résumé in their future career paths.

The teachers and the company employees as experienced job seekers all saw a résumé as necessary in job seeking. Most of the teachers who wrote a Chinese résumé also wrote an English one, because all of them majored in English and targeted jobs that involved using the language. An English résumé might help demonstrate their professional ability. However, most of them actually had not thought about whether an English résumé was indeed needed or not; they produced it because all their peers had one or it was not hard for them to make one. Similarly, the two company employees also created an English résumé when they graduated from college. One made it just in case it would be needed, although the first job he applied for was in a domestic company where English was not used. The other wrote it to apply for a job at an international company. She then kept the English version and used it in her subsequent job applications even when the positions did not require an English résumé.

5.1.3 How the job seekers produce résumés

The students, including both graduate and undergraduate levels, reported various methods they would like to use to create résumés (Figure 5.4). The methods could be grouped roughly into two categories: to follow existing templates/samples, or to consult experienced people. For writing English résumés, a third category, translation, was added.

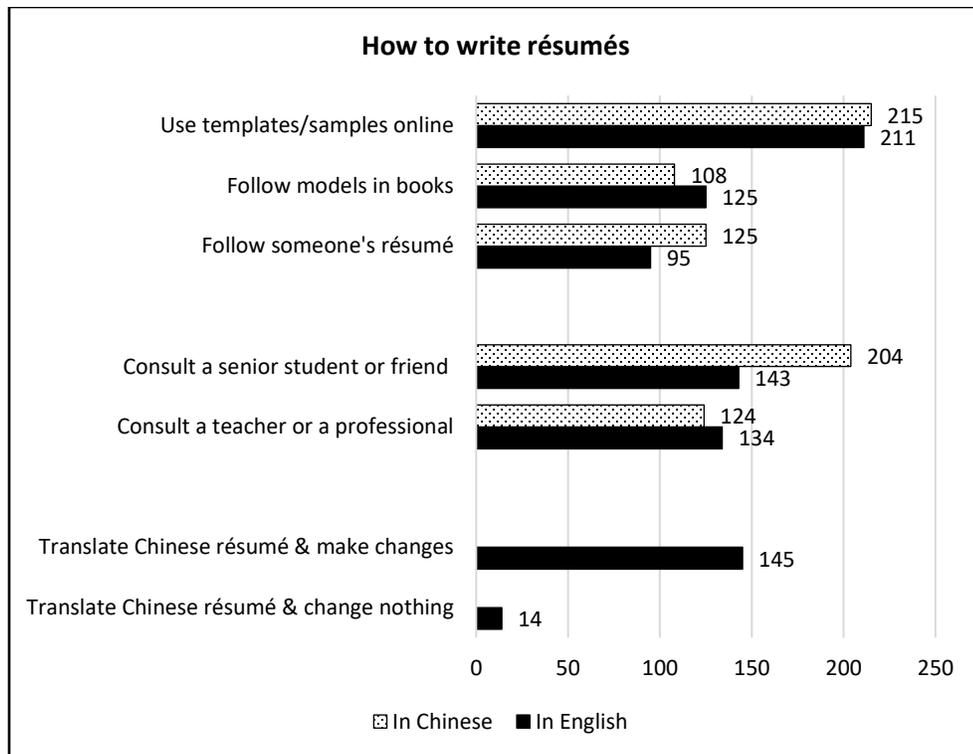


Figure 5.4 Students' ways of creating résumés

Résumé templates/samples were available from different sources, among which online materials were the most widely used. Compared with printed materials, as said by a graduate student in Focus group II, “online materials are convenient to search, store, and edit, and they are available as long as you get access to the Internet” (Survey & Focus Group, p. 17). However, printed materials were seen as having their own advantages. “Samples from books should be more reliable,” a student commented in Focus group I, “because books are officially published and are more authoritative” (Survey & Focus Group, p. 11). Another source of templates/samples was experienced people – those who had written the document, particularly those who had succeeded in job seeking and/or had applied for positions similar to the student’s target job. Many students would refer to résumés of the senior students in their departments, because these people would have experience in applying for similar jobs, and résumé samples from them would be more relevant. Some students planned to find people working in companies that they targeted and

follow their résumés. They saw these résumés as successful because their owners got the jobs successfully, and following such samples might increase their chance to succeed.

English résumé samples were available from similar sources. Online materials were still the dominant source where job seekers searched for instructions, templates, and samples. Slightly different from that in producing Chinese résumés, fewer students chose to follow other people's résumés and more students would rely on books. A potential explanation for this difference is that the activity involves using a foreign language, and the students would like to refer to more authoritative and reliable resources.

Consulting experienced people was another major category of methods that students would use to produce their résumés. Two groups of people were mentioned: 1) teachers and professionals; and 2) senior students and friends. For writing Chinese résumés, a lot more students chose to turn to friends or senior students majoring in the areas the same as or similar to theirs. Suggestions from peers were seen as relevant and easy to accept, and peer students and friends were also more available and pleasant to talk with. As for writing résumés in English, the number of students choosing to consult teachers and professionals increased, almost reaching that of students choosing to consult peers. This change might reflect the fact that students would have more trust in professionals when a foreign language was involved.

In addition to following existing templates/sample or consulting other people, some students planned to produce their English résumés by translating the Chinese version into English and making some changes. This common practice actually raises some often neglected questions: What is the relationship between a Chinese résumé and an English one? Which one is written first? Should they be the same or different? Which one is the primary application document? How will they be used in the recruiting process? Hopefully, at the end of this study, we can find some answers to these questions.

The two company employees, who graduated in 2008 and 2013, created their résumés in both languages by following templates found online. One of them later updated her document with the help of a friend with experience. The eleven teachers (labeled as T1 to T11) graduated from college and received a bachelor’s degree earlier, between 1985 and 2002. This is exactly the period when Chinese universities underwent job assignment reform. The year 1998 seems to be a turning point based on these teachers’ experience. All those who graduated before 1998 did not write a résumé, while those who graduated after 1998 from either college or graduate school all wrote résumés. Table 5.1 summarizes the year of graduation of the teachers and whether a résumé was written or not.

Table 5.1

Year of graduation and résumé writing experience of the teachers

College teachers	Year of graduation		If a résumé was written	
	Degree	Year	In Chinese	In English
T1	Bachelor	1985		
T2	Bachelor	1989		
T3	Bachelor	1990		
T4	Master	1999	Remains in the same university	
	Bachelor	1993		
T5	Master	1999	Yes	Yes
	Bachelor	1994		
T6	Master	2004	Yes	No
	Bachelor	1995		
T7	Master	1998	Yes	Yes
	Bachelor	1995		
T8	Master	2002	Yes	Yes
	Bachelor	1997		
T9	Master	2003	Yes	No
	Bachelor	1999	Yes	Yes
T10	Master	2002	Remains in the same university	
	Doctor	2011	Remains in the same university	
	Bachelor	1999	Yes	Yes
T11	Master	2008	Remains in the same university	
	Bachelor	2002	Yes	Yes
	Master	2005	Yes	Yes

T7 who graduated from college in 1995 mentioned that she filled out a form distributed by her university to all those graduating that year, which could be photocopied and sent to multiple companies and organizations that one intended to apply to. The form included personnel details and education background, introducing the student to potential employers. T8 who graduated in 1997 remembered that she visited a target company and filled out a form at the site. The form contained routine items that could be found in many personnel documents. These two forms seemed to have performed the function of a résumé in those years. The experiences of these two teachers have confirmed my division of the developmental stages of résumé practices in China in Chapter IV.

The teachers learned to create a résumé by themselves. T4 read about résumé writing from books when he graduated with a Master's degree in 1999, when online materials were very sparse. He adopted the most popular and common templates for both Chinese and English résumés. The English template seemed to be translated or developed from a Chinese one, which contained many Chinese-unique personal details and listed the work experiences in a chronological order similar to that in the typical Chinese personal archival documents. T7 chose a Chinese template that was comprehensive, detailed, clear, professional looking, and in use for jobs in her field. Her English résumé was translated from the Chinese version. T9 who graduated in 1999 used a template from his English teacher that he considered authoritative. At that time, there were not many books and online materials, and students still relied heavily on their teachers. T10, who also graduated in 1999, mentioned some résumé templates and samples available in small shops where people could use computers, printers, and photocopiers to process their documents. At that time, these machines were not widely available. Students had to go to such shops to type, edit, print, or make copies of their materials. These places, therefore, were experienced in developing popular documents such as résumé, course paper, report, and thesis. They provided samples, templates, and even services of editing and designing the résumé. All the teachers did not see résumés in

either language as difficult to produce. The only difficult part, according to them, was to translate some unique information into English, for example, awards.

In brief, the experienced job seekers created their résumés in either Chinese or English by referring to templates or samples obtained from books, teachers, or some special service places. Their criteria in choosing templates mainly included popularity, comprehensiveness, clarity, authority, and target disciplines or career fields.

5.1.4 The role of résumés as perceived by the job seekers

Participants were asked how important they thought the résumé (in general, not regarding a specific language) was to job seeking. Response choices ranged from “very important” to “not important.” The three groups of students were similar in their opinions, with over 90% in each group considering the résumé “very important” or “important” (Figure 5.5). A comparatively higher percentage of graduate students saw the document as “very important.” No one chose “not important,” and only four undergraduates chose “not very important.” In the focus group interviews, a student argued that social connections (关系) of a person and his or her family played key roles in job seeking, and the résumé could be merely one of the documents needed to go through the recruiting process.

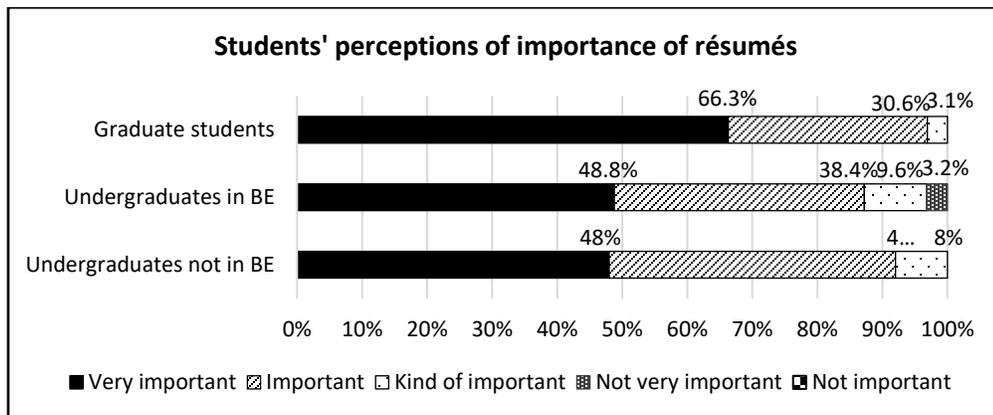


Figure 5.5 Students' perceptions of importance of résumé in job seeking

The 335 students described the role of résumé in a variety of ways. They used metaphors such as door-opener (敲门砖), open sesame (芝麻开门), ticket to the interview (面试门票), a person's name card (名片), and a person's face (面子). The descriptions roughly fell into two categories, with an almost equal number of occurrences in the survey responses. In a few cases, a participant's response included both descriptions.

The first category, with 185 pieces of description from the survey responses, defined résumé as having a decisive role in the recruiting process. It was compared as an open sesame, without which the door of employment would not open. The document was seen as critical in recruiters' decision making. Students believed that the résumé created the first impression, based on which a recruiter judged an applicant before they met in person. Four students replied in the surveys that the résumé was a chance for the applicant to impress the employer and “*tuoying'erchu* (sets you apart from other candidates)” (Survey & Focus Group, p. 20). Four other students claimed in their responses that the résumé “*jueding yiqie* (decides everything)” before the applicant got an interview (Survey & Focus Group, p. 12, p. 20). This claim is in line with the claim of Bovée and Thill (2008) that “until you're able to meet with employers in person, you are your résumé” (p. 561). Another four students responded that a résumé was second only to one's abilities, and was critical particularly when a person was competing with candidates with similar abilities.

The other category, with 188 pieces of descriptions, defined résumé as primarily a document to introduce oneself. The résumé was deemed necessary, as it brought an applicant to the recruiter, serving as the first channel through which the recruiter got to know the applicant. An applicant created the image of him- or herself through a résumé. By describing his or her background, experience, abilities, and personality, the person made a self-portrait. The way he or she produced the document might deliver some additional messages as well. The information conveyed in and by a résumé, as considered by these students, would facilitate decision making in the recruiting process, but not play a decisive role. Two students saw a résumé as not able to reflect the whole

of an applicant although it was an irreplaceable document in job seeking. Sixteen students argued that a résumé only provided information that recruiters would refer to in their decision making, and more important should be the applicant's solid qualifications and abilities. They used the term "*cankao jiazhi* (referential value)" in their survey responses.

Students also mentioned the influence of résumés on interviews in their survey responses. Seven students believed that information in résumés would affect what questions interviewers ask. Five graduate students described explicitly that a résumé displayed one's qualifications and achievements, and served to persuade the employer that the person was a good fit.

As for the role of an English résumé, many students did not respond in the questionnaire, indicating that they might not have a clear idea. Some students thought it could show a candidate's English ability. A couple of students said that it was useless.

The two company employees thought the résumé was important, but they were not sure whether it would be decisive in hiring decision-making. They also had no clue as to whether their English résumés indeed had any effects. The teachers were interviewed as both job seekers and résumé instructors. Their opinions of the role of a résumé are seen as more from the perspective of instructors and will be reported later.

5.1.5 Expected résumé training at college

When asked how necessary they thought résumé writing should be taught at college, around or over 85% of students in each group chose "very necessary" or "necessary" (Figure 5.6). None of the students chose "not necessary."

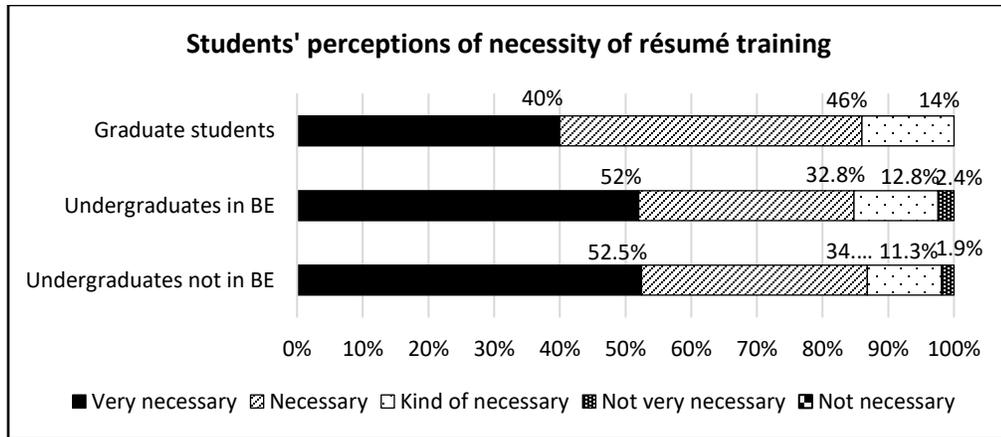


Figure 5.6 Students' perceptions of necessity of résumé training at college

The focus group discussions revealed that students wished to get formal training even though they had access to various sources for relevant information. The most wanted type of training was reported to be lectures from professionals, especially those from big companies in related fields. Students seemed to be thirsty for real world and cutting-edge information. The university career services held similar activities every year, but the responses of the students indicated the insufficiency of such activities. Résumé workshop was another recommended type of training. According to students in the focus groups, the brief mention and general explanation of résumé writing was not sufficient or effective. More helpful would be an intensive workshop, where students could get instructions, actually create their résumés, have professionals or experienced people read their résumés and give feedback, and finally perfect their résumés.

5.2 Résumé Instructors

Two groups of people who may provide résumé instructions were interviewed: college teachers of writing and college career service staff. As discussed previously, most universities do not offer courses on Chinese writing; neither does the university in this study. The eleven teachers included here are all teachers of English. Some of them have experiences in teaching the résumé genre.

The three Career Guidance Center staff are responsible for different affairs. One is an

administrator supervising everything in the center; another is responsible for documents that students need upon graduation; the third is taking care of all training activities regarding career development. Most of the information regarding résumé training is from the third person.

It is always important to understand the perceptions of instructors of a written text, such as their opinions of the content and format, and what is good or bad about it. The understanding of the role of résumés, the need for résumé instructions, and the types of instructions optimal or feasible, from a perspective of instructors, will help us understand the overall situation, and more importantly, will inform the future practice of the genre.

5.2.1 Experience of the teachers in teaching résumés

Two teachers at the undergraduate level and three at the graduate level had experience in teaching résumé writing. Two undergraduate elective courses for sophomores, Business English and Practical English Writing, touch upon the topic of English résumés. Both courses started in 2005, when the university attempted to make some changes in college English education in response to the increased need and progression of globalization (Zhong, 2005). The courses use self-compiled teaching materials. When compiling the materials, each of the teachers who taught the same course was responsible for one of the topics covered in the class, and they then shared the materials with the whole group. Due to limited time and a huge workload, teachers usually followed, did not go beyond, and were restricted by what other teachers offered.

The Business English class had been offered all the years since its inception. Résumé was included as an optional topic. As described by a teacher who once taught that class, the teachers introduced the “basic components and formats in the document,” and offered tips such as “listing past experiences in a reverse chronological order” and “not making the document too long” (Interview Transcript, p. 9). The instructions were usually brief, as teachers just followed what was offered in the teaching materials. There were no required follow-up activities, such as a

writing task. Moreover, not every teacher chose to teach it. In the recent few years, the topic was skipped by almost all the teachers as they had a lot of other topics to cover and the résumé was considered by them as comparatively a less important one. The other course, Practical English Writing, was offered only in 2005 and 2006. The résumé was a regular component and took on average four class hours. In addition to the basics such as common components, formats, and language use, the teachers also compared résumés used for different purposes such as applying for jobs and applying to schools. Students were required to write their own résumés. However, as a teacher recalled, “Not many students were strongly motivated, as they were at their early stage of college and jobs seemed far ahead. The résumés they created were also “simple because there was not much to write about” (Interview Transcript, p. 8).

At the graduate level, the résumé was covered in an English writing class as a minor topic which took two class hours. One teacher who taught the class said that his colleagues, if they chose to teach the topic, taught it by following what the textbook offered, which included two résumé samples and some very brief explanations. Another teacher said that the in-class time was too short for teachers to make detailed explanation and for students to develop a good understanding. She remembered that she had once asked students to create their résumés after class. It turned out that many of their works were like a laundry list of past activities, nothing detailed and nothing stressed. She admitted that she had not paid attention to audience analysis in her teaching due to her lack of awareness at that time. Then, she was not teaching it any longer and the résumé was actually skipped by most of the teachers in the class. Another teacher reminded students, in his class lecture, to pay attention to what their target jobs required and what the employers wanted, but he did not ask students to do any exercises due to limited time and, therefore, had no idea how much the suggestion was received by the students. The teacher also commented on the English education in China. He said, “School education seems to aim to cultivate language experts who know the language rules very well but are not necessarily able to use the language. Students take

the English courses for tests, but have to learn by themselves later when they face the real need for using the language at work.”

5.2.2 The teachers’ opinions of résumé format and content

The teachers shared with me their understanding and opinions about résumés in either Chinese or English in terms of format, length, style, and content. Their opinions should be representative of English teachers as a major group of instructors or potential instructors of résumés in China.

Most teachers agreed that a résumé should be brief, maybe one-page long. One teacher thought it needed to be at least two pages long because a longer résumé would show that the person had richer experience and would possibly be more competitive. The teachers differed in their preferences for using a table-format or not. Three teachers did not like the table-format in both Chinese and English résumés, feeling it visually dull, rigid, inflexible, restricting the arrangement of contents, and looking like registration forms but not résumés. Other teachers thought a table-format worked effectively in Chinese résumés, as the included items could be neatly arranged and easy to scan. At the same time, they all noticed that English résumés were rarely put in a table-format. Some of them suggested that English résumés should be produced following the Western style, because “that is the way they should be,” as claimed by one of them (Interview Transcript, p. 9). Another teacher argued, “If an applicant wants to show his or her English ability through an English résumé, he or she needs to pay attention to not only the language but also the culture and writing conventions imbedded in the document” (Interview Transcript, p. 8). The teachers’ varied opinions of résumé formats conformed to how they produced their résumés. Most of them used different formats for their Chinese and English résumés. The Chinese ones were mostly in forms or segments, while the English ones were in non-table formats.

There was a consensus on the inclusion of personal details in both Chinese and English résumés when the target position was in a Chinese company. The teachers believed that applicants should

provide the details in even the English version since their résumés were used in China, where these details were necessary in recruitment processes. They understood that personal information is not revealed in résumés in the Western culture for the purpose to avoid discrimination, but “this seems not a problem in China,” said a teacher (Interview Transcript, p. 14). Another teacher commented that Chinese people “are used to” providing certain personal details in many occasions and they “do not feel, are not aware of, or do not care about” the potential discrimination, if any (Interview Transcript, p. 3). Many teachers argued that even foreign people who sought jobs in China should follow the local norms and conventions, similar to the fact that Chinese people who sought jobs in foreign-invested companies or overseas companies would follow the Western résumé conventions. Of course, applicants needed to decide what details to include. One teacher pointed out that the decision should be made based on whether the information was useful or beneficial. He took the information about one’s political affiliation as an example. “A person’s political affiliation may be useful in a state-owned company where the control of the party is still strong, but it may not be useful if the target company does not even have a party committee or branch” (Interview Transcript, p. 11). Simply put, the teachers saw personal details as necessary in both Chinese and English versions of résumés which targeted Chinese companies. They believed that even résumés from foreigners should be localized, following the conventions in the Chinese job market.

Most teachers saw the self-evaluation section in Chinese résumés as acceptable and useful. It could be a chance to add some emotional appeal and provide the recruiter with a fuller picture of the applicant. One teacher argued that this part reflected a feature in the Chinese culture, where “a person’s character is seen as important” (Interview Transcript, p. 11). The self-evaluation section often included descriptions of one’s character and personality, and these would exert a certain influence on the recruiter. Another teacher saw it as necessary because it gave applicants an additional opportunity to market themselves. However, the teachers also pointed out that the

description should be appropriate, not boasting or exaggerating. “An applicant should be responsible for what he says. The information here will feed into the interview, in which HR people may find out whether it is true” (Interview Transcript, p. 6). As for English résumés, the teachers were less certain about whether this part should be included or not. Some pointed out that regular Western résumés stressed factual details and did not have such a subjective component; others thought it would not hurt to have this part. In brief, the teachers held a positive attitude toward the self-evaluation section, believing that the information, if presented appropriately, would benefit the applicant. It could even appear in the English version, as it probably would not hurt.

The self-evaluation section is usually written in paragraphs, different from other parts where items are listed and bulleted. The paragraph style is also employed by some résumé writers in the work experience section. Details of duties and achievements are described using complete sentences in paragraphs, rather than being listed in brief phrases. A teacher believed that this way of writing was in response to audience’s need. She argued, “Résumé reviewers would like to see narrative descriptions of one’s quality, personality, ability, and other things relevant, but not a dry list of data.” According to this teacher, the narrative description was expected by readers of résumés, and this was a tradition in China.

5.2.3 Good/bad things regarding résumé writing as perceived by the teachers

The teachers believed that a résumé should be brief, clear, easy to scan, and having the important parts stressed. Some teachers emphasized honesty in résumés. They believed that applicants should list facts, tell truth, and not exaggerate or boast. Half of the teachers pointed out that a good résumé should not be a laundry list of everything, but contain relevant information and highlight what the target employer was seeking. One teacher said that an applicant should not

prepare only one résumé and use it in all his or her applications; the résumé needed to be changed and tailored to what each employer was looking for.

Bad résumés or things to avoid were described as the opposite to what was mentioned above. Top on the list was to include everything but with nothing stressed. One of the teachers commented that this was largely due to a lack of rhetorical awareness, not knowing clearly what the audience needed, what the document aimed to achieve, and consequently how information should be arranged to satisfy the needs and achieve the purpose effectively. Another repeatedly-mentioned problem was boasting. One teacher said that sometimes applicants did not mean to exaggerate, but they overstated their achievements with the hope to impress employers. Another teacher talked about her observation that some applicants used too many modifying words or phrases, which made their statements or descriptions sound like exaggeration, stressing too much, or making emotional appeals excessively. Also mentioned by multiple teachers was insufficient description of work experience. Some applicants listed only the time, place, and position of past jobs. Lack of details about duties performed, skills developed, and tasks achieved would make the section less informative, less interesting, and less believable. As for document design, the teachers all agreed that unnecessary and distracting designs or decorations should be avoided. Problems in information grouping, contrast, and consistency should be addressed. Language errors and typos should be avoided, as they might reveal the applicant's ability, personality, as well as attitude.

The teachers' knowledge of résumés is quite consistent with the standard understanding of this genre, be it in China or the West. They might have developed their understanding through their own education, experience in writing the document, teaching, or reading of relevant materials. This suggests that the teachers do have the required knowledge to teach the résumé genre, maybe in both languages. Unfortunately, based on the surveys and interviews in this study, the résumé education was not stressed in college classes.

5.2.4 The need for and role of Chinese résumés as perceived by instructors

All the teachers believed in the necessity and importance of résumé in job application. “It is true that personal connection (关系) plays some role,” one of the teachers commented, “but more common today is that companies post their positions openly and select from candidates who apply for the positions.” This selection was made based on the résumés of applicants that the company HRs had not yet met, and the résumés would play a critical role. Another teacher mentioned that her students often contacted target companies very early and might have already raised their interests or even got their job offers before graduation. In such a case, the résumé looked like just part of the paperwork to do in the recruiting process but did not play a decisive role. However, she also agreed that the document would be critical if a student did not have any contact with a company in advance.

The Graduate Career Guidance Center staff defined the résumé as “a tool for HR people to gain a quick impression of the applicant” (Interview Transcript, p. 33). According to them, what influenced the HR’s decision was the content of the résumé, in other words, the “hard data” of the applicant. How the applicant selected, organized and presented his or her information in the résumé might affect, to a certain extent, what messages he or she sent and how the messages would be interpreted. The design of the document was not important.

As for an English résumé, the teachers agreed that it would play a major role when it was used to apply for a job at an international company where English is the only or major working language and the company has a non-Chinese culture. They also thought that the résumé should be written by following the Western conventions because the reader might be used to English writing conventions. By contrast, when an applicant targeted a domestic company, the Chinese résumé would serve as the major application document and the English version would be supplementary. Many teachers assumed that an English résumé, in this case, was to show the applicant’s mastery

of the foreign language. Due to this function, they thought it would be beneficial to provide an English résumé. However, this supplementary role and function were doubted by one of the teachers and the career service staff. The teacher denied explicitly the need for an English résumé when a person applied for a position at a domestic organization. He argued that the primary function of a résumé could be perfectly realized by a Chinese one, and an English version would be redundant. “The HR officer would be a Chinese. Why does he or she need to read an English résumé? It is of course more convenient to read a Chinese one” (Interview Transcript, p. 10). To him, the argument that an English résumé might show or prove one’s language ability did not make much sense, because the document was often produced by following templates or with other people’s help, which did not reflect how well the applicant could use the language. “Some of the HR officers are not good at English themselves,” the Career Guidance Center staff added. “How can they judge the English ability of a candidate based on an English résumé?” (Interview Transcript, p. 34). The teacher also argued, “The need of a Chinese company for an English résumé from Chinese applicants is not true. It is formalism when a company does this” (Interview Transcript, p. 10). However, another teacher had a different idea about the phenomenon that some Chinese companies require résumés in both languages. In her eyes, “It is a result of globalization, showing the increased connection of China to the outside world” (Interview Transcript, p. 3).

5.2.5 Current and expected résumé training in the university

Similar to what was reported in previous studies (Ding, 2010), Chinese résumé writing was not covered in any formal courses in the university. Relevant training was offered by the Graduate Career Guidance Center. The center held various activities regarding career development, such as courses, lectures, salons, and contests. The course was named Career Planning, consisting of over 40 hours of online sessions and offline enhancement activities. The online classes covered topics such as “planning your career,” “seeking jobs,” “writing résumés,” “interviews,” and “starting an undertaking.” The part of résumé writing took a couple of hours, and the online instructions were

enhanced by offline activities such as lectures given by invited HR officers, alumni, or senior students with job application experience, salons and camps where students could share their opinions and experiences, and interview simulations or résumé contests. These activities focused mainly on Chinese résumé. The Career Guidance Center paid less attention to English résumés. No formal training was offered. The document was included only in résumé contests, in which participants wrote English résumés in response to some sample open positions, submitted them for competition, and got feedback from senior students with more experience. Figure 5.7 shows some examples of job postings in English used in the résumé contests. This seems to be the only occasion when English résumés were involved in activities held by the Career Guidance Center.

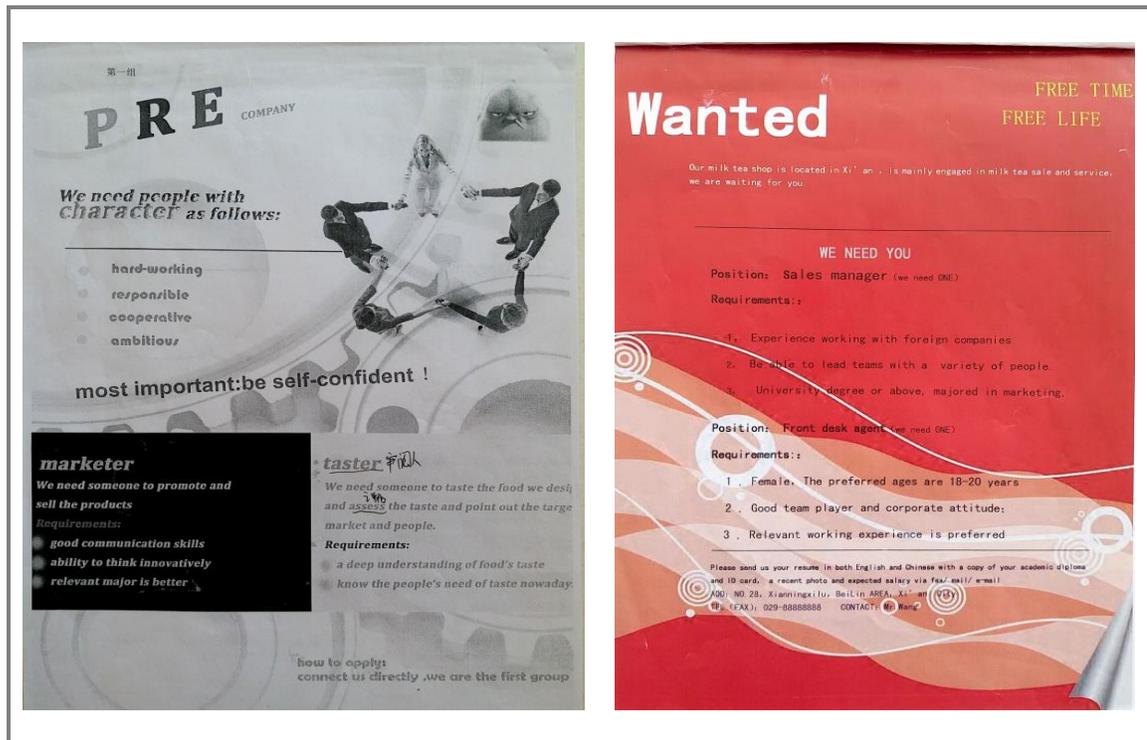


Figure 5.7 Job postings used in résumé contests in the university

Such activities were offered to all the students in the university. According to the Career Guidance Center staff, courses on career planning covered a large portion of students, but résumé

training activities involved fewer students. The reasons for this lower attendance were not clear. One possible reason might be that students did not think it was hard to write a résumé. Another reason could be the multiple sources available for résumé instructions, and students did not feel they needed to rely on formal training offered in school. However, the Career Guidance Center staff believed in the necessity of such training at college. He argued that such training “is not only to help produce a document, but more to guide students to reflect on their college education and map their career paths, to understand the needs of specific positions or employers and organize their information accordingly, and to mine their personal experiences and find their strong points to show to the prospective employers” (Interview Transcript, p. 35). Online information or non-professional individuals might not be able to provide such help.

Two of the English teachers considered it was easy for students to produce their Chinese résumés since they could follow templates or samples available online. They saw only English résumés as necessary to be taught. One argued that the best time of teaching should be when students faced strong needs. The other agreed, but suggested to provide consulting or tutoring services instead of teaching. To him, such services would still be language polishing. These two teachers, obviously, saw résumé writing simply from the perspective of language using, and did not consider other aspects that might be involved in creating the document.

All the other nine teachers saw it as necessary to offer instructions on résumés in both Chinese and English, because students needed good résumés to help start their career paths. One teacher recalled her experience in teaching the Advanced English Writing course and said that the résumé was the part receiving the greatest attention from students in that class, because it related to students’ practical needs. Most of the teachers suggested setting training programs in junior or senior years when students began planning their careers or facing the needs of seeking employment. However, it was impractical to have a formal course for résumé training at this stage. Short-term courses and workshops seemed more reasonable and effective. A couple of

teachers argued that the training should be offered the earlier the better. They saw résumé writing as a basic skill of college graduates, useful not only in job seeking but in pursuing further study. It was particularly useful today when more people were seeking education and employment in other countries. In addition, a teacher with overseas experience pointed out that the résumé genre could be used as a means to training students' rhetorical awareness and thinking skills. Such awareness and skills, in her mind, were particularly recognizable in the résumé genre as compared to many other written texts. These skills were transferable and should be grasped the earlier the better.

In sum, no Chinese writing classes were available in the university. The training activities regarding Chinese résumés held by the career services seemed insufficient in both number and coverage. Training on English résumés was also neglected. It was involved in only one type of activity organized by the Career Guidance Center but was not attached importance. It was seemingly included in a couple of English courses, but was often skipped as a minor topic. A good news is that the Career Guidance Center staff said that they were planning to collaborate with the English Department to hold some lectures or workshops on English résumé writing. Hopefully, this will enrich the training activities in the university and benefit students more.

5.3 Résumé Readers

Four HR managers from four companies were interviewed. HR A, B, and C were from the three companies (Company A, B, and C) where the résumé samples were collected. HR D was from a large state-owned foreign trade company (Company D). All the companies hired people for different positions in the past decade. Many of the positions involved using English at work. For example, the customs declaration position in Company A, the lecturers in Company B, the foreign trade merchandiser position in Companies C and D all need employees to be able to speak and write in English. In recent years, all the companies had relied on job search and recruitment websites, posting open positions and collecting résumés from applicants.

The HR managers introduced their companies and their recruitment practices. They described how they used and read résumés. They also shared their opinions of the role of résumés, effective and ineffective résumés, and of any issues regarding résumé practices.

5.3.1 How résumés were viewed and reviewed by the HR managers

The HR managers described how they used résumés in recruiting processes. In résumé screening, all of them scanned for key information as indicated in the job notices. The applicant's major, degree, work experience, English ability, computer skills, and certificates were among the most frequently considered key details. This is in conformity with the report of Cole (2007) that applicants' academic qualifications, work experience, and extracurricular activities interacted to influence recruiters' perceptions of applicants' employability. Due to the limited time available for each résumé, the managers only searched for these key items and did not pay attention to other parts in the résumé. In some rare cases, they had more time and would read other parts to gain a fuller picture of the candidate.

The quick initial screening selected candidates that met the baseline requirements and moved them to subsequent steps. Based on the practices in these four companies, it is still common in Chinese companies to have paper examinations in addition to an interview in the recruiting processes. The tests are largely for language and computer skills. For example, Company A held an English test for the selected candidates. Company B asked the candidates to translate a short Chinese passage into English. Those who provided satisfying answers could move on to receive an interview, during which the recruiter got to know how a candidate talked and behaved, and what he or she expected from the company. The promising ones would then receive a test of oral English, a task of writing an English essay, and a computer test to see their skills in processing documents in English.

All the managers saw interviews as very important in the recruitment process. Apart from the basic and baseline information listed in résumés, the managers needed to know the candidates in all dimensions in order to make hiring decisions. Some requirements or expectations were not indicated in the job notices. For example, “Our company hires people to teach,” said HR B, “so I need to know how the candidates look, talk, and behave. These can be found only through interviews” (Interview Transcript, p. 30). “I need to know how an applicant looks,” confessed HR D, “because we see good appearance as important in jobs involving communication with international clients” (Interview Transcript, p. 32).

As mentioned above, the HR managers scanned résumés for key information. Generally, they looked at whether the applicant had the required degree in a related major, the relevant professional experience in the field, and the needed skills for the job. They also looked for other details based on the needs of the positions and their personal perceptions and habits.

Recruiters needed to know the candidates’ personal information but for different purposes. “We have more female applicants than male ones due to the features of our jobs,” said HR A. “I always pay attention to the age and marital status of a candidate, because I need to consider when a female employee will get pregnant and have to leave” (Interview Transcript, p. 27). HR C also wanted this information. He said that some applicants did not tell their marital status, but he needed to figure it out so as to find candidates suitable to his company’s needs. HR B in Company B admitted that “I always look first at an applicant’s photo to gain an impression of the person’s appearance and temperament.” To him, “People have certain expectations in terms of appearance and behavior of teachers,” and these factors needed to be considered in the recruitment (Interview Transcript, p. 30).

The HR managers were asked to share their opinions about the self-evaluation section in résumés. All of them thought that what was claimed in this section was hard to believe because it was often

unverifiable. The claims were not supported by factual data. Many applicants would exaggerate or boast. “The descriptions will not have any influence on my decision,” said HR B (Interview Transcript, p. 30). He personally saw this part as unnecessary. HR C commented that “some applicants put something true, but many talk about things in general and useless” (Interview Transcript, p. 31). He estimated that this part would have very weak influence on his decision, perhaps 5-10%. HR A was the most positive, estimating an influence of 10-15%. She saw this part as revealing something not given in other components, for example, “if the applicant read the job notice carefully and understood the needs of the employer or the job,” “if the applicant writes well,” and even “what kind of person the applicant may be” (Interview Transcript, p. 26).

The managers did not care much about other parts when the key information was sufficient for them to make an initial decision. They would read them only when they needed to mine more out of the résumés. Most HR managers did not see the format or design of a résumé as important. More important was whether the résumé presented information clearly and satisfyingly. HR A mentioned that she received some delicately designed résumés and some that were printed on special and expensive paper, but these did not make any difference in her recruiting decision. “Such a résumé may have some effects when the target job is related to artistic design or creativity, or it may show that the applicant takes the job seriously,” HR A commented, “but it is also possible that the résumé does not reflect the said skills or attitude because it may be produced with the help of others” (Interview Transcript, p. 28).

5.3.2 The role of résumés as perceived by the HR managers

Basically, the HR managers agreed that the résumé was a necessary document in the recruitment process. But they varied in their opinions in some aspects. HR A in a state-owned company that hires through job websites believed that the résumé played a decisive role. For her, “If an applicant fails to show the skills and potentials in the résumé, he will not have another chance to

show them no matter how excellent he is” (Interview Transcript, p. 27). By contrast, HR D in another state-owned company saw résumé as only providing some basic information and was almost useless after the initial screening. HR C in a private small-scale company that relies heavily on résumés received from job websites held a similar opinion as HR A did, seeing résumé as decisive. In contrast, HR B in a private training organization receiving résumés through its own website thought that the document only started the process of recruitment. He also doubted the credibility of the résumé. “An applicant will provide factual information for sure,” he said, “but will inevitably exaggerate or polish their experiences or achievements more or less” (Interview Transcript, p. 30). To him, it would be risky for an employer to believe in whatever was told in a résumé.

All the HR managers said that their job postings did not require an English résumé and they did not pay much attention to the English résumés submitted. HR B explained their reason of not requiring an English résumé as its lack of credibility. All the managers denied the supposed function of English résumés as reflecting applicants’ language ability. They knew that the documents could be prepared in advance, with the help of other people, or even made by other people. Company B as a professional education organization even trains students how to write English résumés and provides services to help make English résumés. A résumé created this way definitely could not reflect the language ability of the applicant. For this reason, HR B held a very negative attitude towards the usefulness of and the need for an English résumé. All the HR officers required other proof for language proficiency, such as certificates or test results. They also had other ways to verify the candidate’s language ability. In addition, when both a Chinese and an English version were submitted, according to HR C, they were largely the same or similar in either content or format. “All the needed information can be obtained from the Chinese one,” argued HR B, “and the English one sometimes does not provide as much information because it is often a simplified translation from the Chinese original” (Interview Transcript, p. 29). HR A said

that they would “*sao yi xia* (take a brief glance at)” the English résumé and would have an impression that a candidate might have a fair English ability if the person submitted both versions, but this would not influence her decision. A candidate’s English proficiency would be verified through a paper test and an interview (Interview Transcript, p. 27).

5.3.3 Good/bad things regarding résumé writing as perceived by the reviewers

All the managers preferred to read details in the work experience section, but not a brief and dry list of years, places, and job titles. They thought the details showed the applicant’s knowledge and skills more effectively, and made the information more reliable. A manager mentioned his experience of receiving two résumés which listed similar extracurricular activities. He chose to believe the one with detailed descriptions because it would be hard to provide the details if the person had not participated in the activities.

HR C thought that a good looking résumé might result in a pleasant reading experience and, possibly, a good impression. To him, a résumé was like a person’s name card and revealed more than the factual information listed in it. He gave an example of how a résumé reflected a person’s attitude. An applicant found a table-format résumé template and filled it out without any adjustment. Some items were left blank and wasted space, and the size of the table was not adjusted to fit the amount of text. Such a résumé, he commented, might leave the reader an impression that the person was careless in producing the document as well as treating the job, or he or she did not have the ability to process the document competently. HR A also talked about how she judged the attitude of an applicant through the résumé. A résumé with misspellings or typos would leave her a negative impression on the candidate.

5.3.4 Opinions of the current status of résumé production and submission

The managers talked about a current phenomenon in recruitment. Job seekers submit résumés randomly without checking carefully whether their qualifications match the target positions or

not. As a result, HR officers receive a large number of résumés, among which certain portions are obviously not matching the requirements. HR A commented that many job seekers, particularly fresh graduates without much experience in job seeking, were eager to present themselves to employers but were not aware that they needed to analyze the needs of the employers. “This makes their résumés not highly relevant to the target jobs and causes them to be screened out” (Interview Transcript, p. 27). She pointed out that some applicants assumed “机会主义 (an opportunistic attitude),” “乱投简历 (submitting résumés to any jobs they saw without reading the job notices carefully)” (Interview Transcript, p. 26). The manager recalled how she and her classmates wrote résumés and applied for jobs in 2001. “There was no online job search site when I graduated. My classmates and I attended career fairs. We cherished each chance of application” (Interview Transcript, p. 28). According to her, job seekers at that time could reach only a limited numbers of employers, which forced them to cherish each chance. They had to make efforts to know more about the target companies, judging if they fit the companies and if the companies met their expectations. They had to take each application seriously, writing résumés carefully. “We didn’t have many skills in writing résumés, but we wrote our résumés sincerely and carefully,” said HR A (Interview Transcript, p. 28). The way people produced and submitted résumés at that time differed from today. Résumés were self-designed, printed, and sent to employers by mail, email, or fact-to-face. Job seekers often applied for only a limited number of positions, as they could not afford the time and energy to apply for more. According to HR A, this limitation made job seekers treat résumés seriously. In contrast, the technology today makes it very easy to submit a résumé, simply with a click of the mouse. “This gives rise to irresponsible, opportunistic behaviors,” commented HR A, “and it also increases application reviewers’ workload” (Interview Transcript, p. 28).

HR B also complained that he received résumés irrelevant to their open positions. He attributed the responsibility partially to the web-based practices of job application and recruitment today.

“The way job search sites operate should be part of the reason,” he argued (Interview Transcript, p. 30).

In summary, the surveys and interviews of different résumé practitioners here have generated rich information for a deepened understanding of how this professional genre is perceived and practiced in China currently. It reveals that discrepancies exist in the opinions of different practitioners, and problems are noticeable and waiting to be solved.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF RÉSUMÉ PRACTICES IN CHINA

This chapter discusses résumé practices in China based on the findings in this study. I start from claiming the résumé practice as social action, explaining the inception and evolution of the genre as responsive to its social contexts. I then delineate the influences of both traditional Chinese archival documents and Western résumé conventions, following which some features of résumés in China are discussed. Then, the résumé users' opinions about the role of a résumé in general are summarized. Their opinions about the need for and the role of an English résumé are presented together with a description of how Chinese job seekers produce English résumés. Since résumés are created to cater to the needs of recruiters and market the job seekers, it is always necessary to understand how HR people read and use this document in the recruiting process, and how they think about it and what they are concerned with. The discussion of reviewing practices of HR officers is then followed by a discussion over the influence of computer and web technology on job seeking and recruitment. After that, résumé education in China as well as professional communication education in China are discussed.

6.1 Résumés as a Microcosm of Complex, Unique Chinese Sociocultural Influence

The résumé genre in China emerged as a result of the social changes in the late 20th century. It appeared in direct response to the reform of college graduates' employment administration. In the last two decades of the 20th century, Chinese higher education institutions underwent a series of

substantial changes. The initial drive was the establishment of economic development as the new focus of national development strategy. This political direction resulted in dramatic changes in all aspects of the Chinese society. The central planning system gave way to market regulating. Enterprises changed from being unitarily state-owned to being of different ownerships, and foreign-invested and joint venture companies mushroomed. Both state-owned and non-state-owned enterprises had more autonomy in their business operation, including recruitment. The market forces were also introduced into the higher education sector. The goal of higher education institutions was no longer to cultivate quality workforce to state-owned enterprises as pre-planned, but to supply educated human resources to meet the needs of all types of enterprises that operate actively in the country. Individual institutions gained more autonomy in enrollment, finance, and job assignment. The government-controlled employment placement system was replaced by a two-way selection of graduates and employers. The transition from the unified job assignment system to an autonomous mutual choice system gave birth to the résumé genre in China.

The use of résumés became popular under combined social effects. The rapid economic growth in China resulted in a dramatic increase in the number and scale of domestic and foreign-invested companies. Governmental support as well as maturation of the market formed a conducive environment for these companies to develop. Central in the development were material and human resources, and the companies needed to hire people that fit their needs. The traditional recruiting means, such as contacting some regional institutions for recommended graduates or attending local job fairs to meet applicants, seemed unsatisfying. To reach more candidates and to hire more efficiently, companies adopted a time-saving recruitment strategy – soliciting résumés from job seekers. This change of recruitment mode was one of the major reasons why résumés became necessary and popular. Meanwhile, the Chinese government, in 1999, decided to accelerate the pace of higher education growth by expanding college enrollment to meet the

increased need for workforce in the market (Bai, 2006). As a result, more and more graduates entered the job market and competed for jobs from the beginning of the 21st century. At the same time, many people who already had jobs also joined in with a hope to reposition themselves by selecting new employers and being selected by employers. The fierce competition for jobs promoted the use of résumés, since the document helped job seekers show themselves to the employers before face-to-face interviews and enabled them to contact as many potential employers as they wished. Simply put, the needs of both sides, employers and job seekers, together pushed the wide utilization of résumés.

The résumé genre in China is dynamic, changing over time in response to the changes in the contexts where it is practiced. Being situated in the Chinese society, it has been shaped by this specific social context and inevitably bears some features unique to this context. The early résumés were influenced by the Chinese employment administration system at that time. They imitated personnel files or registration forms which often included very detailed personal data and special information such as family members, ethnicity, political affiliation, etc. Later on, some of such information became less required due to social changes such as the reform of the residential registration system and ethnic fusion. More importance was attached to elements that reflected whether a person was qualified for the targeted job, such as work experience, work ethics, and skills. The skills section in both the self-designed and web-based résumés examined in this study highlights computer skills and foreign language proficiency, reflecting the recognition of the importance of these skills in the job market in China after 2000 due to globalization and advancement of technology.

Technology advancement has overturned the traditional résumé practice. In the early 2000s, as described by some of the interviewees in this study, when the Internet was not yet as popular as it is today, job seekers wrote and designed résumés by themselves, printed them out to bring to job fairs or sent them to target companies through email. For one thing, this gave people more

freedom to personalize their application materials. The résumés at that time were more diversified, as shown by the self-designed résumés and the résumé book samples examined in this study. For another, it limited the number of positions that job seekers could locate and apply for, as job searching, analyzing employers, and emailing applications were time-consuming. This situation was soon changed by technological advancement. The use of computer and web technology in recruitment processes brought résumé practices into a new era. Today, most résumés are created online through a job search site based on a pre-designed template. Those created in the same website look very similar. They lose individuality, but are easier to scan. Such change caters to the recruiters' utilization of technical strategies in résumé screening. Meanwhile, when a résumé is posted on a job search site, it is visible to the employers that use the website to look for employees. The employers are also visible to the job seekers who register on the website. This online platform tremendously expands the reach of job opportunities as well as potential employees.

In a word, in the past couple of decades, résumés in China have experienced roughly three stages that are short, switching quickly, and without clear-cut boundaries. Résumés in each stage bear some special features, but oftentimes various forms of résumés coexist in a stage. It is hard to say that a stable pattern of résumé existed or exists in China. The genre keeps changing.

The wide use of résumés in English is also a response to the social context. The opening up and economic development of China accelerated the country's pace of globalization, which increased the need and weight of the English language in social life. Large numbers of foreign companies have entered the Chinese market and started to hire local people to work for them. Some of them may require applicants to submit résumés in English. At the same time, numerous domestic companies have expanded or plan to expand their business to overseas markets and need their employees to communicate with international clients. They need or prefer to hire people who can speak English. To cater to the needs and expectations of companies, Chinese job seekers learn to

create résumés in English and submit them to showcase their language skills. In other words, the appearance and utilization of English résumés are in response to the social needs within the context where the résumé genre is practiced.

To conclude, the findings about résumé practices in China in this study lend support to claims by Miller (1984) and Bazerman (1994) that genre is social action, not being a discourse form merely imitated but “a form constructed to suit specific social purposes and therefore subject to evolution as social context changes” (Amare & Manning, 2009, p. 43). The initiation and development of the résumé genre in China have been influenced by the political practice, industrial transformation, economic development, technological advancement, and the practitioners of the genre as well. The genre is a microcosm of the complex, unique Chinese sociocultural influence. The responsive changes in the genre over time, on the other hand, reflect the historical changes and social interactions in the Chinese society.

6.2 Résumés in China Being Influenced by Chinese Archival Documents

When a new type of text appeared in response to an emerging need, people often have to look at related existing materials to get ideas about what to put in and how to organize and format the new text. The résumé genre in China is no exception. At its initial stage in the 1990s, there were hardly any established norms or instructions to follow, and people naturally explored and created the text by referring to related documents. Since the résumé was used in the recruiting process, serving to provide an applicant’s information to be used by the recruiter to make hiring decisions, it is important to know what information the recruiter needed to know. The answer might be found in some documents involved in the hiring process. One of the documents could be the job posting which told what the employer required of the applicant. Although the job advertisements in the early stage of résumé practices were often not as detailed as today, they gave some hints as to what applicants should include in their application materials. Another document that informed

people of the résumé content was the registration form that an employer asked applicants to fill out when they signed up or came for interviews. It often contained personal details and information specific to the open position. This form was among many archival documents that a Chinese person filled out numerous times throughout his or her life – when he or she entered any levels of school, participated in any activities, joined any organizations, got a job in a work unit, opened a bank account, and got married. These forms were used so frequently that people got used to them. They were familiar with the contents in the forms, and saw it as a standard procedure to fill out such a form whenever they registered for something. Naturally, when people needed a document to sign up for a job, they referred to the forms to see how to produce their application document, the résumé. The features of these referential documents inevitably transferred into the new text.

My examination of the résumés collected from the companies provides ample evidence of the influence of Chinese archival documents on the résumé practice. There are many similar components between the two, such as basic personal information, education, experience, and awards or punishments. These common elements give hints as to where people gained ideas about what to put in a résumé. In addition to these major content areas, some minor details also reveal how the archival documents influenced the creation of a résumé. For example, many of the self-designed Chinese résumés in the 2000s have the word “*geren* (personal)” in the document title. In those with an English version, the title is translated into “personal résumé,” where the word “personal” seems redundant. This is also the case in the résumé book published in 2002, which is examined in this study. Most of the samples in the book are titled “personal résumé.” The naming seems to have followed the regular way that Chinese personal archival documents are named. The titles of personnel records of individuals often start with the word “个人 (personal),” for example, 个人履历 (personal history), 个人信息 (personal information), and 个人档案 (personal dossier). This feature seems to have transferred into the résumés at this stage. Another example of the

influence is the inclusion of some personal details that do not have much to do with the target jobs. For instance, many of the 33 self-designed résumés and some of those created through job search sites contain details such as date of birth (instead of a rough age), weight, height, and marital status. It is not clear how these details are related to the jobs that the résumés were submitted for, such as financial manager, customs declaration, and teacher. Even the newspaper job notices before 2000 rarely required such information. The applicants included these details, as I speculate, just out of tradition or habit, as these are regular or even obligatory items in personal archival files.

An even more visible influence of archival documents on the résumé is on its format. More than half of the self-designed résumés submitted before 2010 were created in a table format, resembling the personnel information forms. Many of the samples in the 2002 résumé book are also in table formats. A rough examination of the self-designed résumés submitted to the companies after 2010 does not show a trend that people use less table format recently when they produce their résumés. Even the web-based résumés in the current time all take a table format. The sustained adoption of table formats in résumés demonstrates the influence of archival documents on the one hand, and on the other, it suggests the particular suitability of table formats for résumés in China.

In a word, résumés in China have been influenced by archival documents in both content and format. You (2005, cited in Li, 2011a) suggested in his conference presentation possible historical connections between résumés and some employment documents used in the past three decades in China. Such connections are confirmed in this study with solid data. The study also showcases, using the résumé genre, the application of diachronic and historical patterns to Chinese business discourses as claimed by Zhu and Li (2009). Furthermore, the study exemplifies how the résumé genre, as part of the job application genre system, functions in close relation to some particular genres in the system, such as job posting, personnel registration form, and employment contract.

6.3 Résumés in China Being Influenced by Western Résumé Conventions

The inception of résumé was a response to the transition of Chinese college graduate employment placement from unified job assignment to mutual choice, which started from the mid-1980s and completed in the mid-1990s. Notably, the education reform and economic development in China occurred simultaneously with globalization, which brought into the country Western influences. The dramatic rise in foreign trade, the drastically increased foreign-invested and joint-venture companies, and the expansion of domestic enterprises to be international worked together to promote the import of Western knowledge and culture and formed a productive environment for the imported conventions and strategies to interact and blend with the local practices. To cope with the demand of international communication in the era of globalization, the Chinese government promoted foreign language education from 1978, and English education was established as a formal discipline due to the prominent role of English in technology and international communication (Cheng & Wang, 2012). Since then, courses of English have been offered at all levels of schools, often as one of the major subjects. Through these classes, the language as well as the culture it embodies has been more or less integrated into the literacy development of Chinese students. In addition to this, large amounts of social media information and communicative activities in English expose Chinese people to the language and the related cultures. It is common that Chinese people read and write English discourses and immerse unconsciously in the imported communication conventions.

The English courses are even the major literacy or communication courses at the post-secondary level. Communication education at the college level, if any, is likely associated with a student's professional development, either academic-oriented or occupational-oriented. Many Chinese higher education institutions, such as the university set as the research site in this study, do not offer any classes regarding communication in the native language (Ding, 2010). Instead, English classes are obligatory, offered in a great variety ranging from basic language skills to advanced

skills or English for specific purposes. In this case, the only chance for college students to get some training in professional communication seems to be in English classes. The résumé as a professional communicative practice is sometimes covered as a topic in English classes. This causes the situation that many Chinese students learn the résumé genre by learning how to write an English version first. As revealed in the student surveys in this study, some second-year undergraduate students reported only training on English résumés in some English classes, but said nothing about training on Chinese résumés. Predictably, this prior experience with English résumés may transfer to the creation of a Chinese one. The self-designed Chinese résumés examined in this study provide some evidence. Some of them seem to have followed the Western style, being titled directly with the applicant's name but not a regular title of a personal archival document in China. Nearly half of them are not in a table format, but designed similar to English résumés. The college English teachers interviewed in this study also give some evidence. Most of them frown at a table format and prefer a non-table format. All of them agree that it is more reasonable to list the most recent experience first, which is different from that in Chinese archival documents where events are listed in a chronological order. Many of them, when creating their Chinese résumés, chose to follow a Western style template. One person even wrote the English résumé first and then translated it into Chinese. The preferences and practices of the teachers may be the result of their knowledge of and experience with the English language as well as English résumés.

Books on résumés also give hints of the influence of Western conventions. The earliest résumé book I could find in the Chinese library with a hard copy available was published in 1989. The book is thin, with very brief introduction of the résumé genre. Interestingly, it is translated from an English book written by an American author published in the US in 1983. More importantly, it introduces the US style of résumés, even though the entire book, including the samples, is in Chinese. The second earliest book I found was published in 2001, but it is again a translation

from a British book originally published in 1999. It is not clear how large an audience each of the books reached and how they influenced novice writers, résumé instructors, and other book writers or editors, but the fact that some early résumé books in China were translated from English books demonstrates the Western influence on the résumé genre in China since its early stage.

Books edited by Chinese authors also show Western influence. In the 2002 résumé book examined in this study, one-fourth of the Chinese résumé samples have the applicant's name as the document title, similar to that in the Western style résumés. The majority of the samples (84%) are not formatted as a table, and over 40% do not have a space designed for the candidate's photo (a typical and common feature in Chinese résumés). A few samples even do not have the regular personal details such as gender and age, but contain only name, address and contact information. These features may indicate that the book editors, as résumé educators, recommend or encourage incorporating Western conventions into Chinese résumés.

There was once a debate over whether an English résumé of a Chinese applicant should follow the Western style or the Chinese conventions. The question is now obsolete as authorities and practitioners have already given the answer. Today, résumés are widely created following pre-designed templates on job search sites. These templates, both in Chinese and in English, include contents that are uniquely needed in the job market in China. For example, both of them have a detailed personal information section; both of them have the place for a photo at the upper right-hand corner; and both of them have the unique components such as self-evaluation. They also take a table or segment format which is not a Western convention but particularly suitable in organizing and presenting China-specific items. At the same time, some Western features are adopted, for example, listing past experiences in a reverse chronological order and supporting a statement with factual details. The current form of résumés in China, in both languages, seems to be a product under a combined influence of local conventions and Western style. It fits the specific context of the Chinese society. Even foreign job seekers produce résumés in this way.

In brief, résumé practices in China involves two languages. Chinese résumés and English résumés started almost at the same time, and their developing processes have been interwoven. Instructions on English résumés are available as early and as much, if not earlier and more, as those on Chinese ones. The résumés in use and the samples in books show evidence of Western impact. The EFL education and social media information in English have a profound influence on people's perceptions and practices of English discourses. The findings in this study echo the call of Zhu and Li (2009) to pay attention to influences of both traditional Chinese culture and Western approaches on business discourses. The incorporation of both influences was reported by Li (2011b) in her study of English résumés produced by Chinese people. The present study contributes to enriching the understanding by identifying the combined influences on Chinese résumés, too.

6.4 Features Unique to Résumés in China

6.4.1 Detailed personal information being prominent

A prominent section of personal information appears in almost all the résumés produced by Chinese job seekers, no matter whether they are in Chinese or in English, and are self-designed or using the templates on job websites. The section is routinely located at the top of the first page, consisting of a long list of items. This is such an impressive feature that even foreign job seekers have noticed it and tried to include some of the items in their résumés.

Employers in China expect to see, or get used to, a whole bunch of details here. Some items would be deemed discriminatory in the West. For example, the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) (<http://www.eeoc.gov>) enforces federal laws prohibiting job discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age or candidates with disability (Li, 2011b). It is routine to exclude related information from résumés. In a results- and performance-oriented business culture, US companies often seek candidates who possess all the

required credentials and skills, and pay little attention to other aspects. Different from the US, China has a relationship- and context-oriented culture. When companies seek employees, they are not only looking for people who can technically accomplish the jobs, but also finding people who meet their expectations or the public expectations of people that work in certain professional areas, such as the job of teaching in Company B in this study. They may also look at particular details because of special reasons, such as marital status considered by Company A. HR officers, therefore, read the personal information in application materials to see whether the candidates are the right persons or not. Many personal details in résumés may exert impact on recruitment decision making. For this reason, it is normal and common in China to ask for and provide detailed personal information.

Recruiters sometimes need to consider particular details, such as marital status or height, when making hiring decisions. But applicants may not know what exactly the recruiters are looking for and thus include all that are possibly needed. In the current employment practices through job websites, job seekers often use one résumé to apply for multiple positions. A common practice is to provide everything that may be needed. The decision of what to include is made by referring to the related documents they have read or by following what other people do. Some items are listed out of tradition, such as date of birth and place of birth. Some are included in case they have value in applying for certain positions, like marital status and political affiliation. Some are put there as before but their functions may have changed, for example, 籍贯 (ancestral hometown).

The detailed personal information is a unique feature in résumés in China. It has existed ever since the inception of the résumé genre in this country. The items in the section and the priorities of the items are decided by the social context at the time when the document is used. The changes in the items across different evolutionary stages of the genre thus are caused by the social changes across different historical periods. The item discussed below, 户口 (household registration), gives an example of how some details in the section change in their roles in response to social changes.

6.4.2 Change in the role of 户口

As introduced in Chapter IV, 户口, the household registration system in China, is a historical result of the way the country classified its citizens and distributed resources several decades ago. It once played a critical role in deciding where people got employed and what types of identities they held in the workplace. Before the reform of residence system in the 1990s, positions in work units in cities could be filled only by urban residents of the very city where the organizations were located. Therefore, all the job postings at that time required information of household registration, namely, 户口. The personnel files and job recruitment materials, correspondingly, contained this information as one of the important details. After 1990, changes happened to the registration system in response to an increasing demand of labor flow. A nationwide job market gradually came into being and grew mature. By November 2002, the government announced to eliminate residence quotas in provincial capitals and cities (Li, 2011a). This symbolizes the obsolescence of the restriction that a college graduate had to go back and get employed where he or she was registered as a citizen.

Interestingly, this change in the 户口 system does not eradicate the item from résumés. Residency information, including current residence and ancestral hometown, appears consistently in the pre-designed résumé templates of the four job websites examined in this study. Li (2011a) also reports that “户口 matters” (p. 272). The HR managers (in companies located in Shanghai, a representative highly developed big city in China) she interviewed in her study ranked 户口/residency high on the list. She found that “Shanghai 户口 is still preferred today” (p. 273), but she did not explain why. The fact is that the role 户口 plays today may differ from that in the past.

The basic function of 户口 when it started in 1958 was to facilitate the government’s control of resource distribution and labor flow. People were divided into city residents and rural residents, and there was an imbalance between resources available to the two groups. Today, the gap

between city and rural residents has been shrinking, but new gaps appear because of the unbalanced development between different places. The differences between well-developed cities (such as Shanghai) and other places are striking. Larger and more developed cities seem to be more promising, as they often represent more job opportunities, better city facilities, and thus a greater chance of a better life. These benefits drive people to move into big cities and become residents there, so that they can enjoy better health care facilities, educational resources, public transportation, and entertainments. However, the capacity of a city is limited. Excessive numbers of dwellers may cause various problems, such as reduced living space but increased housing expenses, increased living costs but minimized urban benefits, heavy traffic, crowdedness, and pollution. To control such situations, city governments have taken some measures to restrict the population flowing in and maintain the benefits of local residents. Residential registration regains its vitality in this process. In-city residents and out-of-city residents differ remarkably in many aspects, including housing policies and costs, educational resources available to them, and social benefits and insurances. It is often very difficult for non-local job seekers, particularly those who just start their career paths, to tackle these problems in life in such a big city. Local companies often prefer to recruit only local residents to save time and trouble. This explains why the 户口 system still plays an important role today in China's job market.

6.4.3 Photo as a way to leave impression

An eye-catching element in the Chinese résumés is an identification photo that is always placed at the top right corner. Of the self-designed résumés examined in this study, most have a pre-designed space for such a photo. When a photo was not attached in the résumé, it would be provided separately or through other materials such as diplomas or certificates. In the current web-based résumé creation and submission, a photo is a default component in the résumé templates in all job search sites.

It is a routine in China to include a photo in documents that record (such as personnel files) or present (such as résumés) personal information. A photo reveals information that verbal descriptions cannot convey. People have certain expectations in regard to how people should look and behave in certain professions or positions. One's physical appearance, in such cases, plays a notable role. Even when a job does not have much to do with appearance, the employer also wants to get some idea of how the applicant looks. The direct and vivid information presented in the photo helps the employer sense whether the applicant "fits" the company or not. Recruiters are not only hiring people to do the jobs; they are also looking for colleagues to work with and for people that they are willing to accept into their communities. The effect of appearance in recruitment, although not openly acknowledged, seems to exist and be unavoidable.

From the perspective of job seekers, providing a photo may not hurt much. It can be an extra means to impressing and convincing the recruiters. Unlike in the US where there is a concern that revealing identity may lead to discrimination in the hiring process, Chinese applicants do not seem to feel uncomfortable to attach a photo to their application materials. They use photos in which they look professional to leave a good impression to the recruiters. A photo can be an effective persuasion strategy and can even make a difference when the information in résumé alone is not enough to distinguish the applicant.

6.4.4 Self-evaluation as a rhetorical strategy

Also prominent is a section named self-evaluation. It appears very frequently in self-designed résumés used in the 2000s. In current web-based résumés, it even becomes a mandatory component, appearing consistently in the résumé templates of all job search sites. It is also prioritized, being placed right after the personal information section but before all other sections. The content in this section is comparatively flexible, covering highlights of one's work ethics, morals, personality, skills, achievements, and even ambition or resolution. It often contains buzzwords like innovative, hardworking, responsible, fast learning, open-minded, and team spirit.

The skills mentioned here include job-related technical skills, and soft skills such as management, interpersonal, and communication, but most frequently included are computer skills and English ability. These two appear in almost all the web-created résumés examined in this study. The section is often written in paragraphs, different from the typical bulleted lists of factual data in other parts. These narrative descriptions, according to one of the teachers and one of the HR managers, convey messages that are not found in other components.

The increased prominence of this section demonstrates the need and importance of such narrative elements in the highly formulaic fact-listing genre of résumé. The need for this section, according to Li (2011a), is because it performs the function of a cover letter that is largely missing in today's online résumé submission. This argument is supported by the findings in the present study. In the current web-based résumé creation, submission, and selection, it is common that an applicant sends his résumé to a large number of employers without accompanying it with a cover letter. In some cases, an applicant uses the email to which the résumé is attached as the transmittal. But this may not be an effective action. Application reviewers often download the résumés from all applicants and the emails will be detached. However, a cover letter has some special values in application. It establishes a personal connection with the audience, elaborates on the dry lists of facts in the résumé, and makes an emotional appeal. It is a precious chance of persuasion and self-promotion. To make up for this missed chance, Chinese job seekers include a section of personal description, which performs to a certain extent the function of a cover letter. In this sense, the self-evaluation section in résumés in China is a strategic attempt for an additional chance to persuade and a strategic adaptation to the current web-based recruiting practices.

6.4.5 Changes in the persuasive tactics

The résumé is a typical genre of self-promotion and persuasion. The document intensively embodies how the writer tries to achieve his or her purpose of persuading the audience. By comparing résumé samples at different stages, I have noticed some changes in the text, which reflect changes in the persuasive strategies adopted by Chinese résumé makers.

One change is from simply presenting data to addressing the relevance of data. This can be exemplified by the textual change in the education section. In the early stage when résumés resembled personnel archival files, people presented their educational background by listing in a chronological order all of their schooling experiences, from elementary school to the last degree or where coursework was completed. By contrast, in the later stages, only the highest level of education and/or training experiences related to the target job are included. When coursework is described, applicants often mention only relevant ones rather than providing a list of all courses taken. This textual change shows that the résumé makers in the later stages pay more attention to the relevance of their materials to their purpose of writing the documents. The effectiveness of this strategy is verified by the interviews of the HR managers. All the managers say that they only pay attention to relevant information due to the limited time available for each application. They will not care about other details in the résumé.

Another change is from making statements alone to supporting statements with details. This is typically seen in the work experience section. In the self-designed résumés used in the 2000s, some applicants provided only the names of work units where they had once worked, but did not provide any details as to what they had performed or achieved. Some applicants described the responsibilities or tasks, but the descriptions were not very detailed. By contrast, the web-based résumés after 2010 all contained detailed descriptions of past jobs. Applicants paid attention to tasks they fulfilled, skills they developed, projects they were involved in, and the impact they had. This change is highly recommended and welcomed by résumé instructors and HR managers. For one thing, recruiters need to judge from the details whether the applicant can do the job or

not. For another, details make the statements substantiated and reliable. When two applicants claim the same experience, the one providing details will be trusted.

One more change is from direct persuasion by showing confidence and ambition to indirect persuasion by presenting relevant facts. This change appears in some non-formulaic components. In the self-designed résumés popular in the 2000s, there were a greater variety of such components, such as a note in the letter format at the beginning, a section of personal description somewhere within the résumé, or a motto, slogan, or special design at the end. In résumés created through job search sites, there is only one option available: the self-evaluation section.

Comparison of the self-designed résumés and the web-created ones, which are basically résumés in two different historical stages, shows that some applicants in the earlier stage attempted to persuade the audience by showing their confidence and ambition directly, while applicants in the later stage are more cautious or subtle in maintaining the balance between modesty and confidence as well as between confidence and arrogance.

Li (2011a) reported a change in the style and tone of persuasion in Chinese résumé makers from 2005 to 2010. She gave some sample sentences in the résumés before 2005 that set a challenging tone, such as “If you give me a chance, I will reward you many many times” and “Missing me today will be your lifelong regret” (p. 272). She believed that such expressions would easily leave a negative impression on recruiters who tended to see the relationship between HR and applicant as unequal with HR being more powerful and superior. According to her observation, as more college graduates joined the army of job hunters later and as HRs got more demanding, the graduates changed their persuasive strategies from being more boastful to being down-to-earth. The claimed change is partially supported by the findings in the present study. Some boastful expressions are found, but not in the real résumés submitted to the companies. They appear in the samples in the résumé book published in 2002. In other words, the book editors as résumé instructors at that time recommended to persuade the audience by showing confidence, which

actually might leave an impression of being overconfident or boastful. Such books usually target novice job seekers, such as those newly-graduated. The résumés collected from the companies do not contain boastful expressions, possibly because they are from experienced applicants who have a better understanding of the workplace and have gained the skill from their application experience.

6.4.6 Document design being sparsely addressed

Document design is widely considered an important aspect in producing professional documents. However, my examination of résumés in different evolutionary stages and my interviews of HR officers suggest that document design has not played a prominent role in résumés in China, and its potential function is diminishing today in web-based résumé creation and submission.

Before the dominance of web-based creation of résumés, job seekers enjoyed more freedom in designing their application materials. The design, such as format, font, color, cover page, and even handwriting could be a chance to reveal a person's creativity, ability, and personality.

Supposedly, document design should have played prominent roles in résumés in earlier stages. However, the fact was not as expected. Handwritten résumés were not used widely and did not exist for a long time, giving way to electronic résumés very quickly. When people created their résumés by themselves using a computer, they were encouraged to make the documents look professional; decorative colors, fancy fonts, and flashy decorations were often discouraged. The most prominent aspect of design, therefore, was whether to make the document in a table format or not. The real résumés collected from the Chinese companies and the samples in the résumé book examined in this study are in both formats. The coexistence of different formats suggests, on the one hand, that both table- and non-table formats were officially accepted and widely used; on the other hand, it may suggest that the format actually did not matter and little attention was paid to this aspect.

The inclusion and design of a cover page is also a one-time phenomenon. A cover page was reported to be popular in 2003 to 2006, when competition in job markets got particularly intense as a result of the expansion of college enrollments. Many college graduates tried hard to make their application materials comprehensive and impressive. They included whatever potentially useful, such as cover letters or narrative descriptions, résumés, photos, recommendation letters, transcripts, diplomas, and certificates, among others. These materials were put together and formed portfolio-like pamphlets rather than a single page of document. A cover page was thus needed to represent the theme of the materials. The design of a cover page was seen as a chance to impress the recruiter. The résumé book examined in this study even dedicated one chapter to how to design a cover page. However, this phenomenon existed for only a couple of years and then disappeared quickly. None of the self-designed résumés examined in this study, which were submitted to the companies after 2004, has a cover page.

The design of résumés seems not having played a notable role in résumés in China. This is also proved from the perspective of readers. It seems that a résumé performs its function as long as the recruiter gets the information needed. Li (2011a) found in her interview of an HR officer that the person was mostly looking for job-related contents and did not pay attention to the design of résumés. My interviews of the HR managers reveal a similar attitude. These application reviewers do not care much about the design. It does not make much difference whether the applicant designs the résumé himself or follows a template found online, whether the résumé resembles a form or is created as plain text, and whether the application materials have an artistic, eye-catching cover. One manager thinks that a well-designed document may lead to a pleasant reading experience, and a poorly designed one may reveal problems such as poor ability in processing documents on computer or a careless attitude toward the job. However, he also admits that the design, if it is not substantially poor or problematic, will not affect his hiring decisions.

Simply put, recruiters focus on the contents they need. They will be satisfied if the needed information is located.

My examination of the self-designed résumés used between 2004 to 2010 reveals that these job seekers did not pay much attention to the design of their résumés. Not a single résumé stands out as exceptionally attractive or unique in its design. None of them has a cover page. It seems that the applicants did not make additional efforts on the design of their résumés, even though it was taught and recommended in résumé books. The web-based résumés after 2010 were all created in the pre-designed formats on the job websites. Fonts, colors, logos, and patterns, if any, were all pre-decided. Applicants could do nothing regarding document design. The highly standardized documentation minimizes the function of document design in personalizing the application, but attach more importance to other aspects such as what information to present, what keywords to include, and what components to prioritize.

In brief, document design functioned in some short periods in the history of résumés in China. Today, it is no longer an aspect to consider because résumés are mostly made by following pre-designed online templates. This aspect becomes a concern of professional designers of résumé templates but not of job seekers as users of the templates.

6.5 Chinese Résumés Being Necessary but Playing Different Roles in Recruitment

The majority of the companies in China use Chinese as the primary working language, especially in HR management. Even international corporations, if they operate in China, adapt to the local environment and use the local language, as their employees and clients are mostly local Chinese people and businesses. This is the reason that the present study focuses on such companies. As indicated by my interviews of the HR managers, Chinese companies, regardless of their ownerships, sizes, and locations, require a Chinese résumé and use the document in their recruiting processes. This need for a Chinese résumé is also acknowledged by job seekers and

résumé instructors. It is seen as a necessary, even irreplaceable document in job seeking and hiring. As claimed by one of the teachers, although personal connection (关系) has some effect in employment, as it does in many other aspects of Chinese social life, the mainstream recruitment practice is still open selection from candidate applicants.

The consensus of different résumé practitioners on the necessity of the résumé confirms that the document is still crucial in job hunting and recruitment today. It is not obsolete. It is widely and vigorously used. The consensus also proves the necessity of producing a good résumé, and, furthermore, the need for training novice job seekers to create effective résumés. This is also true in many other countries.

However, the specific role of the résumé in recruitment differs according to the context where it is used. The HR managers' responses in this study uncover that the role of a résumé (a Chinese one in this case) varies in their recruiting processes. The major source of the variations is the different recruitment practices in these companies. Both Company A and Company D are state-owned, but they hire very differently. Company A is independent and has full control of its recruitment. It hires people through job websites, getting applications and screening résumés all by itself. The résumés play a key role in the HR manager's job as she reads them in the initial screening, the later rounds of selection, and the interviews. As a result, she sees résumés as decisive in recruitment. In contrast, Company D as a branch company relies on its parent company to hire people. HR D actually does not go through the résumé screening stage and works primarily in the interview stage. Although the résumé is still involved in the interview, it is not that important. The private companies also hire in different ways. Company C receives large numbers of applications from job search sites and needs to select from the received résumés a small number of candidates for interviews. The résumés thus decide who will be in or out. By contrast, Company B recruits from its own website and receives a lot fewer applications. The

manager can offer interview chances to a larger portion of candidates and does not have to make decision based solely on résumés. In this case, the résumé is not as decisive as in Company C.

College students and teachers, as outsiders of recruiting processes, may not know clearly how and why the role of a résumé differs. However, they have sensed the complexity based on their experience, knowledge, or imagination. In their survey and interview responses, they define a résumé as either decisive or facilitating a decision. They see the necessity of the document but also its inability to profile an applicant truly and fully. Their mixed feelings will probably influence how they write and teach the document.

A few students have noticed the use of résumés in interviews, thinking that information in résumés will affect what questions interviewers ask. This is an interesting point because these students see the interrelationships between different materials and steps in the recruiting process. According to these students, a résumé works not only in the initial screening, but in other subsequent steps as well. An applicant needs to be very careful and purposeful when deciding what to put in a résumé since the information may feed into the following steps. Meanwhile, an applicant needs to be responsible to what he or she says here, as it will be verified later.

Of the 335 college students who responded to the surveys, only five clearly described the persuasive function of the résumé genre. This sparse mention may indicate a lack of awareness of audience analysis among novice job seekers in their résumé production. Most such job seekers write a résumé for the reason that the document is a must in the recruiting process. They list all their past activities and achievements in the résumé, submit it to apply for multiple positions, and wait to be selected from a pile of résumés produced in a similar way. This seems to be the standard procedure, but it gives a sense of aimlessness, carelessness, opportunism, and passiveness. The job seekers know that their purpose of writing and submitting a résumé is to get a job, but few of them think further to see that the résumé achieves this purpose by persuading the

employer that the job seeker is a good fit. To persuade effectively, a job seeker needs to know exactly what position/employer he or she is targeting, what the position requires, what the target employer needs, and what he or she can bring to the employer. With these ideas clear, the job seeker writes the résumé more purposefully, picking relevant information and addressing the needs of the specific audience. As Guffey (2012) points out, a persuasive résumé “does more than merely list your qualification. It packages your assets into a convincing advertisement that sells you for a specific job” (p. 412). The absence or presence of the writer’s awareness of audience analysis can make a great difference in the résumé. The lack of such awareness in Chinese college students, as found in this study, may be common in novice job seekers in other regions as well. This calls for efforts from professional communication educators and career development counselors to train these novices and prepare them for job seeking.

6.6 English Résumés Being not yet Prominent but Promising

The existence of English résumés in China is a noticeable phenomenon. English résumés appeared in China only shortly after the inception of Chinese résumés, and they have grown in prominence with the progress of globalization. Roughly, Chinese people produce English résumés for two major reasons: to apply for a job in an organization where English is the working language, or to apply for a job in an organization where some level of English proficiency is required. In the former situation, an English résumé is required and used as the major application material. In the latter, it is preferred but not required, and is the supplementary material in the recruiting process. Aside from Chinese people, an increasing number of foreign job seekers have entered China in recent years, seeking employment by using résumés in English.

6.6.1 Varied opinions about the need for English résumés

Many people believe that the need for an English résumé is decided by what type of company and/or position the applicant targets, for example, an international company versus a local company, and a position needing the language versus one that does not need the language. However, the situation is more complicated than thought. Not all the domestic companies that have international clients or have jobs involving English require applicants to submit English résumés. By contrast, some companies that do not currently need the language require English résumés due to a possibility that they may someday develop international business. As Li (2011) claimed, “many Chinese enterprises see the importance of the English language in the post WTO economic environment and require candidates to provide a Chinese résumé and an English résumé” (p. 264). Although the four companies examined in this study have not explicitly asked for an English résumé in their job postings, they have required English language ability for many of their open positions and have received English résumés from applicants. However, in spite of the wide existence of English résumés, people differ in their opinions as to whether this document is needed or not when people apply for jobs at Chinese companies.

The college students and the teachers hold a positive attitude toward the potential usefulness of an English résumé. This is understandable because the accession to the WTO resulted in another great momentum of English education in China (Cheng & Wang, 2012). The country is in need for more professionals with a good command of English in every field, and almost every job description asks for some level of English proficiency. Universities and colleges as places of cultivating future professionals respond to the call, and special weight has been given to the development of students’ knowledge and ability of the language. Teachers of English see the importance of the language and would like to encourage students to show their potentials to their prospective employers. As future job seekers, college students who have received intensive training in English thus view an English résumé as very likely needed. This need is recognized even more among graduate students. In many professional areas, a higher degree often means a

greater chance to find a job which more likely involves using English at work. In China, people with higher degrees have longer experience of formal English education. They are supposed to have certain English proficiency and are expected to handle jobs that need to use the language. An English résumé may be required or preferred for such jobs, or may help an applicant establish a full and positive image to the recruiter.

Many experienced job seekers, as found in the interviews, produced an English résumé, although they had not thought carefully if it was, indeed, necessary. Their experiences are quite representative of what many Chinese job seekers do today. An English résumé is oftentimes not produced based on an explicitly perceived need by analyzing a target job or employer, but for the possibility that it may be needed or useful, or by doing what other people do. In China, people who have learned English in their formal education may feel natural to have an English résumé. Whenever an English résumé is created, the applicant would use it in all cases no matter whether it is required or not since it will not hurt to submit one. The current online creation and submission of résumés also push people to use a single version of résumé, in either English or Chinese, or both, to apply for all the target positions. In short, Chinese job seekers create or submit an English résumé because it is potentially useful or because they have one, but not because it is exactly required by an employer. The current web-based job seeking has facilitated, or even promoted, this résumé practice without a clear understanding of the audience's needs.

The résumé instructors are divided in their opinions about the need for an English résumé. Most of the college teachers, although assuming a positive attitude, are not quite sure if the document is indeed needed. This is also reflected in their own experience of creating an English résumé. The reason of this uncertainty is perhaps their lack of experience with the recruiting practices. By contrast, the Career Guidance Center staff know more about company recruitment and consider the issue more from the perspective of recruiters. They pay more attention to Chinese résumés

since the majority of students get employed in domestic companies anyway, and they see an English résumé as not necessary if the target company does not require it. To them, an applicant can choose to provide one if he or she believes it would help in some way, but the reviewer who often has a large amount of application materials to read may not have time to spend on it. This viewpoint is confirmed by the HR managers' responses. The résumé reviewers care more about how to finish their job successfully and efficiently. They can get needed information from a Chinese résumé and are not motivated to read an English one. However, they do not feel troubled if an applicant submits the document. It seems as if they would rather have an English résumé at hand in case they would need to look at it sometime. In brief, to include an English version or not is largely a personal choice, and whether it works or not depends on the reading context of the résumé reviewer.

The opinions of different résumé practitioners seem to demonstrate a dichotomy between classroom and workplace. Students and teachers do not have workplace experience and look at the future possibility in general; in contrast, recruiters focus on their jobs at hand. At the same time, students as younger generations and teachers as educators of younger generations are more positive toward the prospect of international and intercultural communication in an increasingly globalized world. Recruiters, while they are dealing with their daily work, sense the trend and prepare for it consciously or subconsciously.

6.6.2 Unestablished but growing role of English Résumés

No consensus is reached on the role of an English résumé. Most job seekers do not have a clear idea. Some students mentioned in their responses that the document might serve to show their English ability. However, this is only their guess. Even experienced job seekers have no idea if their English résumés have had any effects in their applications, since they are not insiders of HR management and recruitment. Most of the college teachers assume that an English résumé plays a

supplementary role when a person applies for a job in a Chinese company, and it serves to present the applicant's mastery of the foreign language. In their opinions, it will be beneficial, or at least not hurt, if an applicant includes an English résumé.

An English résumé is supplementary, if it indeed plays any role, when a person applies for a job in a Chinese company. This can be shown by how the document is created, submitted, and reviewed. My examinations of the résumés from the Chinese companies and my surveys and interviews of job seekers reveal that most Chinese people create English résumés by translating from their Chinese résumés. Among the self-designed resumes received by the companies between 2001 and 2010, the English ones are largely translated from their Chinese counterparts, resembling the Chinese ones in format and content. This practice is even more evident in résumés created on online job search sites today. The template for English résumés on a job search site is exactly the same as that for Chinese ones; the only difference is language. An English résumé is always placed after the Chinese résumé, suggesting a secondary position of the English version. When job seekers submit applications, they send either their Chinese résumés or résumés in both languages. None of the companies in this study had received any application from a Chinese applicant with only an English résumé. When application reviewers read résumés, as reported by the four HR managers in this study, they focus on Chinese résumés to get their jobs done and do not care much about English ones. All these behaviors of résumé production, submission, and review suggest that an English résumé plays a supplementary or secondary role, if any, in the recruiting processes in Chinese companies.

Many job seekers and teachers think, or imagine, that English résumés may reflect applicants' English language ability, but this assumed function is denied by the HR managers. The document is short and highly formalized, offering limited opportunities to show the writer's language skills, not to mention that it can be produced by imitating existing models, with other people's help, or even by other people. All the HR managers rely on test results, certificates, interviews, and

activities related to the language in recruiting processes to evaluate candidates' language ability. However, as mentioned by one of the HR managers, the English résumé may leave an impression that the applicant might have a good English ability because he or she chooses to submit this unsolicited document. The decision of including an English résumé delivers a message that the person is confident about his or her language ability. This subtle effect is not widely noticed, but it represents a possibility that an English résumé indeed exerts some influence, perhaps unconsciously, on résumé reviewers.

By examining résumés in different evolutionary stages, I have noticed considerable growth in the English résumés produced by Chinese applicants. The English versions of the self-designed résumés between 2001 and 2010 are mostly simplified translation from their Chinese originals. Many of them do not contain as much information and do not express as accurately. It seems that they were not supposed to perform the normal function of a résumé. The simplification and inaccuracy, to a certain extent, reflect the limited English proficiency of those applicants at that time. By contrast, the English résumés created through job websites after 2010 look more professional and more detailed. For one thing, with the progress of English education in the country over another decade, younger generations have better mastery of the language and are more capable of producing the document in English. For another, the job search sites provide various services to help applicants create effective application documents. An English résumé created this way is often exactly the same as its Chinese version except the language. It contains almost the same information and can be used independently if needed. This change across the two stages, or the two decades, demonstrates an increased potential of English résumés to perform the normal function in the Chinese job market.

6.7 Résumé Reviewing Practices Being Inconsistent and Unpredictable

It is argued that job seekers need to address employers' preferences (Liu, 2012; Schullery, Ickes, & Schullery, 2009) and manage impression in résumés from the perspective of potential biases in decision makers (Kaplan & Fisher, 2009). It will be ideal that HR officers review résumés in a consistent manner, so job seekers and résumé instructors can predict what the officers look for and what they prefer to read in the document. The job seekers and instructors can then create or teach the documents accordingly. However, the fact is that it is hard to predict how an individual recruiter views the document and how exactly he or she reads and uses it in the recruiting process. The four HR managers in this study differ remarkably in their attitudes toward résumés and their ways to read résumés.

The inconsistent, individualized recruiting behaviors have been explored in previous studies. Popken (1993) found that personnel officers shared similarities in their inferential reading on some résumé content areas, but they did not share consistent reading that might result in a formula for how to write a résumé. This seems still true today. Although the HR managers in this study are similar in reading résumés to look for some key information as baseline requirements of candidates, they may interpret the provided information differently and look for other different details based on their specific needs. Of course, job seekers and career counselors may have no idea about these special needs and individualized interpretations.

Wang, Bruning, and Peng (2007) reported differences existing in the levels of recruitment autonomy among state-owned, privately-owned, and foreign-invested enterprises in China. The present study further uncovers the differences existing within the same type of enterprises. Both Company A and Company D are state-owned, but the former as an independent company enjoys full recruitment autonomy, while the latter as a branch company has very little autonomy. This difference in recruitment autonomy results in remarkable differences in the attitude and behavior of the HR officers.

Furthermore, Zhao and Peng (2008) compared the HR management model of these three types of organizations and reported some differences. Li (2011b) learned from her interviews of HR managers that state companies prefer candidates with information about party affiliation while private companies do not care much because many of them do not have a presence of the Communist Party within the company. She also suggested to explore differences between résumés used in companies with different ownerships. The present study reveals that the recruitment practices in different companies differ in terms of company ownership, size, line of business, and open positions. Adding to this is the fact that HR managers' personal experiences, perceptions, preferences, biases, and habits also make a difference. However, these differences do not seem to affect the production of résumés substantially. In the web-based résumé creation and submission today, most job seekers use one résumé for all target jobs, no matter whether the jobs are in state-owned, privately-owned, or foreign-invested companies. Some conscientious or careful job seekers will adjust their résumés before submission, but they may have no clue as to how their résumés will be read and used.

The inconsistent and unpredictable attitudes and behaviors of application reviewers post challenges to résumé writers and instructors. Job seekers need to figure out how to make their application materials impressive and effective, and application reviewers need to distinguish from the materials the useful and true information. Many issues may exist in this process, which deserves attention from professionals and educators. The following section discusses some issues that I have observed in this study.

6.8 Some Issues Existing in Résumé Practices

Many HR managers are skeptical about what to believe and how much to believe in résumés. They do not trust what an applicant says in the self-evaluation section because it is often unverifiable. They do not see an English résumé as reflecting an applicant's language ability,

because they doubt if the document is produced by the applicant him- or herself. They also complain about the irrelevant résumés they have received. The HR officers' skeptical attitudes may indicate the existence of some issues in the résumé writing and submission.

One of the issues is résumé fraud. Since its inception, the résumé has been defined and used as a tool to marketing oneself. "Though résumé styles vary, most people in the United States would agree that the résumé is a tool used to 'sell yourself' to your potential employers" (Young, 2006, p. 243). To achieve the goal of self-marketing, résumé writers are encouraged and taught to manipulate their documents to influence the target audience. As the résumé genre has evolved, strategies of résumé "padding" have likewise evolved, at each stage violating one of the four maxims of philosopher H. P. Grice's "Cooperative Principle": quality (direct factual misrepresentation), manner (formatting tricks), quantity and/or relevance (deceptive keywording techniques) (Amare & Manning, 2009). In China, the résumé padding is termed "*zhushui* (filling something, such as meat, with water to make it heavier)," meaning to present in the résumé unnecessary information, exaggeration, or even misleading information (Wang, 2005).

Direct misrepresentation is definitely discouraged, but other types of violations, though subtle, are problematic as well. These violations tend to detract audience from a résumé's weak content, lead the employers to think a résumé has what they want to know but it actually does not, or overly emphasize one's strengths. According to Amare and Manning (2009), the employment of these deception strategies may be due to the résumé writers' definition of "lie" or "fraud" as focused too narrowly on only factually inaccurate statements. Wexler (2006) also points out that the résumé writers may think that they only embellish the truth but do not misrepresent it, or that padding a résumé is a harmless white lie and therefore not the same thing as lying. However, résumé deception at any level – no matter how small or "white lie" it seems to be – is harmful.

The skeptical attitude of the Chinese HR managers as revealed in this study reflects the existence of résumé deception in China. To deal with it, Chinese companies often give tests or set assignments for candidates to finish in order to find out whether the candidates meet the requirements or have the skills as said in their résumés. Test results and task performances are seen as more reliable than the descriptions in résumés. Some recruiters, as reported in an unauthored article mentioned in Chapter II, even prefer to have an evaluation report from an authoritative organization rather than a résumé from the applicant. The situation is already serious. Actions should be taken before it gets worse. The problem of résumé fraud exists not only in China. As advocated by researchers in both China and the West, integrity education needs to be enhanced (Conn, 2008; Ren & Liu, 2011; Wang, 2005) and instructors should encourage students to create more ethically sound résumés (Amare & Manning, 2009; McQueeney, 2006).

Another issue is the conflict between the expected practice of applying for a position based on careful examination of one's qualifications and the job's requirements, and the actual practice of trying many jobs with an opportunistic attitude as noticed by the HR managers in this study. Ideally, a job seeker needs to analyze an open position carefully, make sure that his or her qualifications match the requirements of the job, and apply with a résumé tailored to the specific needs of the target employer. Unfortunately, this is not frequently happening in today's job-seeking practices in China. The fierce competition in the job market forces job seekers to "cast wide nets," submitting applications to a large number of open positions to increase the chances of hearing from the employers. As a result, they do not check carefully if the jobs are indeed what they want or ones that want them, and do not adjust and adapt their résumés to cater to specific employers. Most of them use the same résumé for all positions. This partially explains why Wang (2015) argued that Chinese résumé practitioners "know the importance of audience analysis, but execution is poor" (p. 11). The current mode of online job seeking makes it convenient and fast to

search for job information, prepare application materials, and submit applications, but it also increases the intensity of competition and gives rise to irresponsible, opportunistic behaviors.

One more issue is the involvement of personal information such as gender, age, marital status, and appearance, in the decision-making of hiring. Many of such details are not supposed to appear in résumés in the West for the purpose of avoiding job discrimination. Employers may, in fact, consider these factors when making decisions, but they would never admit it openly. In China, it seems to be a convention that companies expect detailed personal information from applicants, and applicants voluntarily provide the information in their résumés. The HR managers in this study, as informants of the recruiting practices in Chinese companies, admit that they do consider some specific personal details when they evaluate candidates. They also believe that certain occupations have special expectations regarding appearance, behavior, gender, among others. The differences revealed here give some clue as to how people in different cultures view and use personal information in recruitment. This awareness may shed light on a better understanding of cross-cultural and international professional communication.

In short, HR officers' attitudes, concerns, and practices uncover some problems and challenges existing in résumé practices today. The problems are not unique to Chinese résumé practitioners; they are universal, faced by people in many regions in the world. This calls for attention and actions from professionals and professional communication educators.

6.9 Multifaceted Influence of Technology on Résumé Practices

Computer technology and the Internet have brought great changes to job seeking and recruitment activities. As represented by the companies in this study, Chinese companies switched to use online job search sites as the platform for recruitment from around 10 years ago. Employers publicize their open positions and requirements on these websites. Job seekers search for those

they are interested in and submit application through the websites. Meanwhile, companies locate promising candidates based on their résumés posted on the websites.

The job search sites help realize a real nationwide job market and streamline the application and recruitment processes. Job seekers benefit significantly from easy access to information of employers and jobs. It is very convenient to search for open positions according to location, industry, job title, salary, and other items. With only several mouse clicks, a person can finish the process of locating jobs and submitting application. The process is easy and fast, does not cost much, and does not have a limit as to how many jobs one can apply for. In addition, job seekers create their résumés using well-designed templates provided on the websites. They even get writing suggestions based on the statistics of all other users registered on a site. A résumé produced in this way looks very professional and has what people in the field think necessary. On the other side, recruiters also benefit greatly from technology as it brings efficiency and conformity. By posting hiring information on job websites, employers receive large amounts of responses, which enable them to select from greater numbers of candidates. The résumés created through job websites are highly standardized, so application reviewers know clearly where to find the needed information. The electronic version of résumés also makes it easy to use search engines to scan for relevant keywords. In a word, technology facilitates the recruiting process, allowing HR officers to work more efficiently.

However, everything has two sides. At the same time when people enjoy the convenience afforded by technology, they have to face the reality that it gives rise to unexpected situations as well. Job seekers are facing fierce competition, as there are always a lot more candidates competing for a single position. The convenience in searching for job information, preparing application materials, and submitting application does not necessarily reduce the time spent on seeking employment or make it easier. A job seeker often needs to try a large number of open positions to increase the chances of hearing from the employers. Likewise, recruiters are facing

problems as well. They have a wider range of candidates to choose from, but this increases their workload strikingly. For example, Company C in this study received over 300 résumés for five positions in two years. It is not hard to imagine the situations in other companies. The HR managers also complain that they have received irrelevant application materials, which, they believe, are out of irresponsible and opportunistic behaviors of job seekers.

Seemingly, technology helps mitigate the pain of application reviewers. Today, many companies use search engines to scan résumés for relevant keywords. This computer-facilitated screening, to a certain extent, reduces the manpower involved in résumé screening. In response to this change of application reviewing practices, job seekers adopt keyword-enhancing techniques to attract the attention of the search engines. The online résumés examined in this study, compared with the self-designed, obviously contain more professional or technical details. All of them have very detailed work experience section, in which the past duties, professional procedures, projects, skills, and achievements are described vividly and technical terms appear here and there. Some of the résumés include course names in the education section, which gives another chance for relevant keywords to appear. The self-evaluation section also addresses professional experiences, technical ability, and work ethics more than other aspects such as personality and hobbies. This strategic adaptation is a natural response to the evolvement of the résumé genre. However, it raises concerns of the effectiveness of keywords searching as well as some ethical issues. For example, Amare and Manning (2009) discussed the ethical implications of adjusting résumé keywords for the sole purpose of increasing searchbot hits, which violates the principles of quantity and/or relevance, as described previously. The authors concluded their article by suggesting several techniques to business communication instructors that may encourage students to write more ethically sound résumés.

However, résumé writers are not the only side to blame. One of the HR managers, when talking about the situation that many job seekers include irrelevant information and exaggerate in their

résumés, points out that the operation and management of job search sites could be partially responsible. When people use a job search site, they often create their résumés the moment they register on the website. At this time, they may not have any specific positions or employers in mind. Of course, applicants can update the document later, but many people find that it will be very time-consuming when there is a large number of potential employers to address. As a result, they choose to develop a very comprehensive résumé and use it for multiple, if not all, applications. In addition, the job websites provide such services as helping locate promising positions for job seekers and locating qualified candidates for employers under their authorization. In both cases, the websites forward applicants' résumés to employers. Consequently, having a résumé at hand for all opportunities is a common practice of job seekers today. Since the résumé is used for all possible positions but not tailored to a specific one, the applicant tries to address all possible situations and cover all information potentially useful. This may be why they violate the principles of quantity and/or relevance.

In a word, technology has played a significant role in job seeking and recruitment today. It brings convenience and efficiency, but gives rise to problems as well. Further research needs to be conducted to understand the situation, arouse people's awareness of the existing problems, and figure out solutions.

6.10 Résumé Education in China Being Insufficient and Expected

The surveys and interviews of college students, experienced job seekers, and résumé instructors in this study reveal that résumé education in China is insufficient, novice job seekers expect solid training, and the values of teaching résumé writing need to be reconsidered.

Two major languages are involved in résumés and the field of professional communication as well, Chinese as the native language and English as the lingua franca in international communication. It is revealed in this study that training of résumés in either language is

insufficient in the country. As researchers have pointed out, the teaching of professional communication in Chinese has long been neglected (Ding, 2010). A specialized communication course in Chinese is available only to students of such majors as business and journalism. Hardly any universities offer a general Chinese writing course, including the university as the research site in this study. As a result, Chinese résumés are not taught as a written genre in formal courses at the post-secondary level. The chances of receiving instructions would be in training programs or activities held by college employment guidance offices or social organizations that provide career development services. However, both the experienced and the novice writers in this study reported that the instructions they had received were insufficient and unsatisfying.

The teaching of résumés in English is a different story. Writing résumés in English involves first of all learning to use this foreign language. English education has long been an important component in the curriculum at different levels of schooling in China. Writing is one of the four basic skills that learners need to master. There are various courses on English at the college level. Some of them, such as Business English and Practical English Writing, may cover résumés as a topic to teach. However, the instructions oftentimes are interwoven with linguistic education due to the perception long rooted in teachers of English that their job is primarily to teach the language. As revealed in the survey and interview responses in this study, the teaching of résumés in English classes often addresses the surface level concerns of linguistic features and formats and does not explore the lexico-grammatical and rhetorical realization in terms of the communicative purposes embodied in this genre. What makes the situation even worse is that not all universities offer English courses related to professional communication or practical writing, and not all such courses cover the résumé as a regular topic to discuss in class.

In line with the report of insufficient résumé instructions, a unified opinion about the necessity of résumé training at college is shared by novice and experienced job seekers as well as résumé instructors. Since résumé is agreed to be an important document in recruitment and how well it is

developed matters a lot, surely it should be taught at college where students get trained and prepare to move into the workplace. The current résumé training available does not seem to be satisfying. The experience of the company employee, who wrote her résumé after participating in training on campus and then improved the document fundamentally with the help of a friend with workplace experience, indicates that résumé instructions on general issues such as common components and formats may not be sufficient. Novice writers need more detailed and specific information in terms of what to include, which part to stress, how to present the information, and particularly how to tailor the résumé to the employer's needs. Books and online materials are helpful, but more helpful are suggestions from people with relevant professional experience.

The values of teaching résumés in class deserves more attention and need to be reconsidered. As argued by the Career Guidance Center staff in the university, résumé training is not only to help students produce the written documents, but to guide students to reflect on their past experiences and map their future. This echoes what some researchers talked about résumé writing in previous studies, such as applying appraisal theory in the writing (Meng, 2006), developing a self-inventory of skills, knowledge, and abilities before writing (Becze, 2008; Niu, 2012), using it as an opportunity for engaging in self-reflective practices to develop students' self-awareness (Wang & Yorks, 2012), and encouraging students' reflective and reflexive capacities through the writing (Randazzo, 2012). In addition, résumés are seen as providing opportunities for integrating the teaching of ethics as well as writing skills (Conn, 2008). This study identifies some ethical problems existing in résumé practices, which prove the necessity of bringing these issues in class to raise students' awareness, as what McQueeney (2006) does in his business communications course. Furthermore, some fundamental and transferrable writing skills can be incorporated in the teaching of résumés. As argued by one of the teachers in this study, the résumé genre is particularly useful in training students how to analyze audience, purpose, and context of use and in developing students' ability of critical thinking. Unfortunately, not all the teachers share the

same understanding; some of them show very little awareness of these skills or have not discussed them in their teaching. It seems that teacher training needs to be addressed first in order to improve the current status of résumé education.

In brief, the résumé education in China has been insufficient. There is a consensus on the need for résumé training at college to better prepare students for the workplace. Instructions on résumés in both languages are expected. The training should go beyond the level of general organization, textual features, and format; instructors should pay more attention to the communicative purpose, rhetorical situation, and ethical issues regarding the genre.

6.11 Understanding Professional Communication in China via Résumé Practices

As discussed in Chapter II, the development of résumé as a professional genre in China has been influenced by the development of the field of professional communication in this country. The findings in this study of résumé practices, in turn, partially uncover the status of professional communication in this Asian country as a hotspot of international and intercultural professional communication. In brief, the field of professional communication is developing, but it has not yet received extensive attention. There is an increasing awareness of the need for communicative skills in professional activities, but related educational programs are still insufficient.

The importance of communication ability and writing skills in the workplace, including every professional sector, has been widely discussed in the West. According to Reave (2004), “Recent surveys by educators to identify workplace requirements of engineers strongly emphasize the importance of communication skills” (p. 453). A study by the Department of Engineering Technology at Western Illinois University (2009) surveyed manufacturing CEOs, engineers, human resource administrators, and managers to determine their valuation of the skills that graduating manufacturing engineers must possess for entry-level positions. Of twenty-nine non-

technical skills listed, technical writing ranked ninth in importance, beating competencies such as algebra, physics, finance, economics, and statistics (Payne, 2009). This importance is also recognized recently in China. In a survey of over 90 technical writing professionals across more than ten provinces, the researcher identifies a great need for technical writers in the country (Li, 2015). Another survey of technical communication practitioners from both industry and educational institutions discusses huge progress that China has made in technical communication since 2000 (Wang, 2015). However, both studies point out that educational programs on professional communication are insufficient.

In earlier studies about Chinese business discourses, researchers argued that business communication had never become a mainstream interest in Chinese discourse studies (Li, 1990; Zhu, 1999). This situation has not improved much in the past couple of decades. As Huiling Ding (2010) reported in her study of technical communication instruction in China, Chinese writing training has long been neglected in post-secondary setting. Universities either cancel or never offer such courses. The data in the present study also prove this. The university in this study has only an elective course named College Chinese, in which students are guided to appreciate classical Chinese prose and taste the beauty of the language. Nothing in that class is related to the training of writing in Chinese for practical purposes, and not many students are interested in and choose to take the course. In addition to this, a particularly interesting phenomenon, not alone in this university but among all Chinese universities, is that graduate students need to publish research articles in academic journals as a mandatory requirement for graduation, but there are no writing courses available to offer help and students are supposed to learn how to write the articles all by themselves.

The above-described situation may reflect some deep-rooted perceptions among Chinese people. For one thing, professional writing is still seen as from professionals to professionals, having

nothing to do with common people. Teachers and students at school are outsiders and do not feel a strong need for related training. Or, perhaps educational institutions do know that novice professionals need such training, but they do not see it as their duty. For another, people are deemed to be able to handle the writing tasks in their jobs because they are native speakers of the language and they have received writing training throughout the elementary and secondary schoolings.

But is it true that a person who can speak a language can surely create a professional document without being trained? Does a person who can write a narrative essay necessarily know how to write a technical report? In many universities in other regions, students are offered compulsory courses on writing. Take US universities as an example. Freshmen take first-year composition courses to be trained in writing for academic purposes. Junior and senior students in some disciplines are required to take a technical writing class to develop professional communication skills. International graduate students admitted in US universities often need to enroll in a research writing course. All these courses are offered due to a recognition of the need for writing training. However, such courses are rarely found in Chinese universities. Writing training in Chinese is shockingly missing in higher education in China.

In great contrast, English education has been emphasized strongly in the country and many types of English courses are offered at university level. As a result, if Chinese college students obtain any writing training, they most likely receive it in English classes. However, this also forms a unique feature of the education of international professional communication in China – it is treated as part of EFL education, and the teaching of communication skills is entangled with linguistic education. The use of English as the language in international professional communication makes it natural that the field emerges from English departments. But faculty in these departments may see professional communicative activities as done by scientists and

engineers for insiders, and do not have a place in English departments (Ding & Jablonski, 2001). Teachers who are assigned to teach courses such as Business English and Technical Writing may still see their duties as teaching the language. Many of them lack experience in the related professional fields and do not feel confident or comfortable to explore beyond linguistic education (Wang, 2006).

The interweaving of language education and communication education is inherent in international professional communication in China. Formalized communication training always derives from English departments. In the past ten years, researchers and educators have made great efforts in figuring out training programs that fit the Chinese educational contexts. Duan & Gu (2005) explored the possibility of a technical communication class taught with the collaboration of technical instructors and English instructors, but they encountered the difficulties of lacking teaching staff and increased workload of teachers. Huiling Ding (2010) recommended English Related to Individual Disciplines (ERID) as a localized and alternative type of technical communication program. Yu (2011) argued that the ESP education in China is a promising home for integrating technical communication and the integration can enhance the current ESP education. The university examined in this study, as described previously, has made changes in its English programs since 2005. A number of courses related to professional communication are offered, such as Business English, Journalistic English, Medical English, Academic English, Practical Writing, among others. No matter how the courses are actually taught, the establishment of these formal courses indicates progress in the education of professional communication in Chinese universities.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarizes the findings in this study and discusses the pedagogical and methodological implications. It also talks about some limitations of the present study, which may be tackled in future research.

7.1 Summary of the Study

The present study examined résumé practices in China in a diachronic, multi-faceted, and multi-methodological manner. By analyzing the historical contexts and the collected textual data, it identifies three major evolutionary stages of the résumé genre: the stage from 1985 to 2000 when résumés just appeared but were not widely used, the successive stage from 2000 to 2010 when résumés were largely self-designed and submitted directly to HR staff in person or via email, and the current stage starting from around 2010 when résumés are intensively created on job search sites and submitted through the website in use. The time range for each stage is a rough estimate and there is no clear-cut dividing line between two stages, because the country is big, different regions do not develop synchronously and equally, and different résumé practices often coexist at the same stage.

The résumés in each stage have unique features, which reflect the influences of the historical, political, and cultural contexts where the genre was or is practiced. The textual features of

résumés, as well as the recruitment behaviors of companies and the means of people to apply for jobs, have changed over time. Résumés in the initial stage resembled personnel files, which had very detailed personal information including items such as 籍贯 (ancestral hometown) or 户口 (household registration), family background (parents, spouse, children, brothers and sisters, and even other relatives), and political affiliation, but it had only brief descriptions of one's education, work experience, and skills. This is because the recruitment at that time was still affected by the central planning in China's economic system and a person's resident classification played a key role in employment. Largely, a person was hired based on who he or she was but not what he or she could do.

In the successive stage, the impact of central planning diminished, and companies and individuals had more freedom in recruitment and employment. The résumés were designed by job seekers themselves and took diverse forms. In general, the personal information section contained fewer items but the education and work experience sections were a lot more detailed. These changes marked a shift in the focus from "who you are" to "what you can do." Most applicants mentioned computer and foreign language skills in résumés, reflecting that these skills were seen as important in China after 2000 due to globalization and technological advancement. Most applicants also included a self-evaluation section. This is because the increased competition in the job market pushed job seekers to promote and sell themselves hard, so they not only provided details of their past experiences and achievements, but also described their personality, work ethic, and other abilities to persuade employers that they were a good fit. Meanwhile, a remarkable portion of job seekers created an English version of their résumés to apply for jobs at foreign-invested companies or to prove their English ability.

In the current stage, résumés are largely created through online job search sites, following the templates provided there. This makes résumés highly formalized or standardized, bearing the same design features and containing the same items required by job websites. The fixed formats

and rhetorical patterns at this stage, to a certain extent, symbolize the maturation and stabilization of the résumé genre in China. A notable change in the text, as well as in the persuasive strategy, is that job seekers adapt to the current recruitment methods, filling their résumés with keywords that recruiters are searching for in their computer-facilitated screening. In a word, the résumé genre in China has changed over time, and its features at each stage and the changes over stages can be accounted for by the political, economic, and technological forces in the Chinese society in different historical periods.

Résumé practices in China involve two major languages, Chinese and English. Influences from both local traditions and imported conventions of workplace discourses are revealed in both the Chinese résumés and the English résumés. The dual influences partially reflect a characteristic of today's world, cultural blending, as a result of globalization. The imported culture interacts with the local culture, and the two influence each other reciprocally. As a hot spot of international business activities, China is of special value for the study of international professional communication.

The résumé practitioners in China, including job seekers, résumé instructors, and application reviewers, have commonalities and differences in their perceptions of résumés. They all acknowledge the importance of résumés in job seeking and hiring, confirming that résumés are still widely used by employers to screen job candidates despite the recent debate on whether social networking will make résumé obsolete. This recognition indicates the necessity of producing a good résumé, and further, the need for training novice job seekers to create effective résumés. However, the current résumé education in China is insufficient. Instructors and students widely agree on the necessity of résumé training at college. The attitudes, behaviors, and concerns of résumé reviewers identified in this study may inform job seekers about how to create effective résumés and inspire teachers to think about what to teach and how to tackle the problems existing in résumé production and job application today.

As for the English résumé, the practitioners have different opinions. College students as young generations and teachers as educators hold a positive attitude toward the need for an English résumé. HR managers in Chinese companies currently do not have a strong need to read English résumés, but they accept them as part of the application materials. The varied opinions and practices of different people show that the English résumé is making its way in the Chinese job market. Even though it has not yet played a prominent role in the hiring practices of domestic companies, there is a potential that Chinese companies are growing to operate and behave in an international manner. Educators, students, and recruiters see the potential and are preparing for it consciously and/or subconsciously.

To sum up, through this comprehensive examination, I have obtained a sense of the trajectory of résumé practices in this country and also an understanding of the influencing factors of such practices; I have learned how people think about and perform the genre, and see the trend of its development as well as problems to address. The understanding informs me about future teaching of the résumé genre either in China or out of China (taking the US for example).

7.2 Pedagogical Implications

7.2.1 Implications to résumé teaching and communication education in China

This study has identified some misconceptions and confusions existing among Chinese résumé practitioners. These misunderstandings may inform the teaching of the résumé genre, as well as professional communication as a whole, to Chinese college students as future job seekers and professionals.

This first misunderstanding revealed in this study is to see the creation of a résumé as simply to address this written genre at the textual level. Some college English teachers interviewed in this study do not see a résumé as hard to write. They think one can create the document successfully by following a template or imitating an existing sample. However, this opinion is in conflict with

the fact that the *résumé* is an important component in college career development activities. If the document is easy to create, why do career services bother to spend time training students how to do it? The teachers may consider *résumé* creation mainly from an angle of language use or essay writing. It is true that a *résumé* is short, not complex, highly formalized, and even standardized recently. However, the interviews of the Career Guidance Center staff reveal that *résumé* creation is far more than just producing a written text. It involves self-reflection, self-appraisal, self-promotion, audience analysis, effective persuasion, and career planning. Writing a *résumé* may be easy at the textual level, but it is not easy at the level beneath the text. With this understanding, teachers need to reconsider the value of the *résumé* topic in the classroom and think about what to teach regarding this genre. Such understanding also informs the teaching of writing other texts or documents. Instructors can look at what to explore beneath and beyond the text itself and address these considerations in their teaching.

Two college teachers interviewed in this study openly argue that there is no need to teach how to write Chinese *résumés* and only English *résumés* need to be taught because students may have problems with the language. Most universities in China do not offer classes on writing in Chinese. Graduate students are required or expected to publish in either domestic or international journals, but only classes on research writing in English are offered in some universities. The above described viewpoints and practices reflect a widely existing misconception among Chinese educators – a person can write a document well as long as he or she is a native speaker of the language used in the document, in this case, Chinese. Perhaps there is another understanding, which is misleading as well, that the Chinese education at the primary and secondary levels is sufficient to enable a student to face any writing challenges in the language. However, this is not true. Many college students do have difficulties in their everyday writing, not to mention writing highly sophisticated professional documents. Realization of these misconceptions and the

deficiency of writing education in Chinese may push educators to address the problems and, further, promote the development of writing education in China.

Another misconception among some English teachers and communication educators in China is to see language education as equal to communication education. One of the teachers interviewed in this study insists that teaching English résumé writing is only to teach how to translate, manipulate, or polish the language. Few of the teachers have addressed, in their teaching, other aspects of communication, such as rhetorical and ethical considerations. The Business English class in the university, as described by the students, is treated as a chance to learn the language used in some business contexts with a focus on the textual and linguistic features of the language activities involved. However, a mastery of a certain amount of vocabulary, grammar rules, and the basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the language does not guarantee the capability of talking or writing about specific topics in specific communicative contexts to address specific audiences. Communication skills are different from linguistic skills. Pure linguistic education does not provide students with the tool kit for a smooth communication. Realization of the confusion between language education and communication education may have some important pedagogical implications. For one thing, communication education is still underdeveloped in China and calls for more attention and efforts. For another, language education at the college level should go beyond linguistic education and pay more attention to students' practical needs of communication in their future professional practices.

When examining the courses related to résumés in the university, I noticed that there are few disciplinary-specific English courses at either the undergraduate or the graduate level. All the English classes are for students from various disciplines. This is a common phenomenon in many universities in China. However, college students as future professionals need to communicate in their specific disciplines or professional fields. Basic language learning for a general purpose does not serve for this need satisfactorily. Students may need to learn the language for specific

purposes (ESP), and ESP programs are suggested by researchers as a promising home for integrating education of professional communication. However, the current ESP education in China is not yet fully developed. The findings in this study and the discussion here, hopefully, contribute to a call for construction of ESP programs and disciplinary-specific English courses to cultivate professional communicative skills in college students.

Construction of ESP or disciplinary-specific English programs is not a new idea. It has already been advocated by some researchers. However, pioneers have to face challenges. The first challenge could be the confusion among teachers. The traditional positioning of English teachers in China is to teach the language. Some teachers may feel lost about what to teach other than the language. A second challenge is the qualifications of English teachers to teach disciplinary-specific communication. Most of them are not familiar with contents related to specific subjects, and are therefore not confident to teach. A proposed solution to this problem is collaboration between language teachers and subject teachers, but it is hard to realize due to the lack of human resources and the increased workload of current teachers. Another possible solution is that language teachers step out of their comfortable zone, developing knowledge beyond vocabulary and grammar teaching and knowledge in the field that their students are specializing in. This means a reform of the current English education in Chinese higher education institutions. English programs need expansion; they should be more related to students' practical needs in their future careers. Teachers can choose specific professional fields out of personal interest or based on the needs of their universities. Of course, this change requires investments of both institutions and teachers, for example, teacher training. But I believe that it is a step to take sooner or later.

7.2.2 Applying the findings in the US professional communication classes

The findings in this study can be applied in the professional communication courses in US universities, particularly in raising students' awareness of addressing international audiences in

their future professional communicative activities. The US is a typical place where people from different cultures come and work together. It is common to meet non-US faces on campuses, in workplaces, and on streets. Not only big transnational corporations hire foreign job seekers and deal with international clients, but also domestic companies face more and more applicants from other cultures and attempt to expand their business to other countries. International communication is gaining prominence day by day in the US. In college courses that prepare students for workplace communication, such as Technical Writing, international and cross-cultural communication has become a stable component in the textbooks.

American people are already used to working with international classmates, professors, colleagues, and clients, but they may not have fully realized the potential of working out of the US. However, this possibility is increasing. With the progression of globalization, people will find that there are more and even better employment opportunities in other countries. For those who are interested in seeking jobs outside the US, understanding a different culture and writing a résumé that works effectively in the target culture will be important. To achieve this, people have to develop the awareness of audience analysis and understand how to analyze international audience. The résumé in the Chinese job market can be a good example to serve for the purpose of exposing students to the global workplace.

Here I suggest some possible class activities in the typical job application assignments in Technical Writing or Business Writing classes. The assignments can be designed as to apply for an international job or internship. First of all, the instructor introduces the global workplace, using China (or another country) as an example. Students are guided to use job search engines to locate open positions in the country, such as expatjobschina.com and jobstreet.com.sg. Then, examples of résumés used in the country (often available on job search sites) are introduced, such as those included in this study (from slideshare.net and matchdragon.com). These examples may showcase to American students how people in other countries and cultures develop résumés. The

instructor can lead students to compare the examples with the typical US-style résumés to discover differences. If there are students from China or other countries in the class, they can be invited to talk about unique features in their résumés and justify why certain items are crucial from a cultural perspective. American students are also encouraged to critique features that they do not think appropriate. Through these activities, international students understand why certain items do not apply in a US-style résumé and how to conform to a US-style writing convention, and domestic students gain knowledge of the non-US résumé features as well as their cultural context and cultural motives. Both groups of students improve their cross-cultural understanding.

The features of résumés in China as identified in this study can inform the teaching of writing a résumé that works for Chinese employers. First of all, a job seeker needs to provide sufficient personal information to facilitate the employers' decision making. Of course, job seekers are encouraged to understand why certain details are needed. For example, information of gender is always needed because most Chinese people are not familiar with foreign names and it is difficult for them to tell the gender of a candidate based on his or her name. Employers also want to know the age and citizenship of a candidate. A professional-looking identification photo is a long tradition as employers are curious about the looks of their prospective colleagues. Items such as hobbies and interests are optional, but they may show that the candidate is willing to join the target professional community and make friends with future colleagues.

A detailed description of past experience is important. This section in the current Chinese résumé has fully embraced the US style, in which a candidate provides all the specifics and uses action verbs. One thing that an American job seeker can do is to include experiences as a part-timer or a seasonal worker in places such as Walmart, Pizza-hut, and Starbucks. These experiences are often not included when people apply for technical positions in the US. But including them in the résumé for a job in China may have a different effect. To Chinese people, these international chain retailers and restaurants represent the American culture, and they are everywhere in China.

Mentioning experiences with them may make Chinese readers develop a sense of familiarity and make them feel the candidate as more amiable. In addition, Chinese readers may consider that experiences with these huge international businesses and the transferable skills developed there are valuable. Inclusion of such experience, therefore, adds weight to the résumé.

I would recommend students to include a self-evaluation section in their résumés for jobs in China. This section is prominent in Chinese résumés. It makes a narrative argument of the strengths, potentials, and appropriateness of the candidate for a target position. American job seekers can use this section strategically to demonstrate their interest in working and living in China. They can talk about their open-mindedness, their eagerness to learn about a new culture, and their willingness to blend into the new environment. Details such as travelling in China, learning Chinese language, making Chinese friends, and even eating Chinese food would help show how serious and excited the candidate is about working in China. This section, as it combines the function of a cover letter, may be introduced into the US-style résumés because a cover letter is losing its place in job application today due to the change in the mode of recruitment. It could be an effective strategy to include such a component to make emotional appeals.

7.3 Methodological Implications

This study is guided by a social constructivist worldview and is qualitative in nature. Instead of picking a single design of qualitative inquiry, I adopted multidimensional research strategies with qualitative thinking as a starting point. Prominent in my methods is grounded theory. Grounded theory differs from other research methods which test or verify existent theories in that it focuses on the process of data collection and data analysis and develops a theory or theoretical understanding that is grounded in the data involved. The method allows collection and generation of multiple types of data, such as interviews, observation, focus group, journals, and texts. It is

characterized by multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information. More importantly, grounded theory is valuable when researching topics in fields where not much prior guidance is available since it does not require preconceived hypotheses. This is the reason why I adopted it in my analysis of résumé practices in China, an underexplored topic. The method has been used by a few scholars to uncover the uncharted field of international professional communication. These studies, together with the present study, show that grounded theory can be a valuable empirical research tool for exploring areas that have not yet been extensively examined.

7.4 Limitations and Future Research

The present study has some limitations, which may inspire future research on this underexplored but promising area. One limitation is that I did not include an international corporation or a foreign-invested company which implements the Western HR management. I simply could not find one due to the time limitation and geographical restriction when I collected data in the country. Future research could examine résumés submitted to this type of company and look into how the HR officers review résumés written by Chinese applicants. It will be interesting to see whether applicants adapt and adjust to the specific recruiting practices or not, and whether the HR managers view and read résumés differently from those in local companies.

Another limitation is that only a limited number of experienced job seekers were included. They might not be representative enough and thus did not fully explore how these people developed their understanding and skills of résumé writing. In the future, case studies could be conducted to examine in depth different résumé versions of applicants and what causes them to make changes in their documents. Such studies may provide rich information for résumé education.

Another limitation is in the classification of résumé practitioners. A person's past experience may influence his or her understanding and behavior fundamentally. For example, job seekers, résumé

instructors, and résumé reviewers with experiences of studying or working overseas may have different opinions about how to write a résumé. In this study, I just put résumé practitioners into broad groups without further classification. Future research could make more specific classifications and look into the differences between people with different experiences.

One more limitation is that I did not look into résumés for different jobs or professional fields. As Ross and Young (2005) uncovered in their study, different occupations and disciplines require different approaches on how résumé content information is presented. Future research can be done to compare different or even related jobs and fields, or to compare the same jobs or fields in different countries.

The present project is a multi-faceted and multi-methodological study on one of the workplace genres, the résumé, in one Asian country. Future studies can be conducted in the same spirit on other professional genres in other countries or regions. Examples of such studies include examination and comparison of academic homepages of professionals, homepages of similar organizations, technical instructions of similar products or tasks, in two different countries, in either the same or different languages. Here I call for more attention and research engagement in the area of international professional communication. With more research done, professionals may be able to develop a better understanding of communicative practices and traditions in other cultures, and the understanding will in turn improve the vigor and smoothness of international and cross-cultural professional communication in this increasingly globalized world.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Example of Initial Coding

简历

姓名: 王敏子	性别: 女
政治面貌: 中共党员	学历: 英语统招本科 <u>专业八级</u>
籍贯: 陕西省宝鸡市	身高: 160cm
出生年月: 1982年12月	健康状况: 良好
联系方式: 15902966842	E-mail: celia_wang1202@yahoo.com.cn
<p>从业经历: 两年大专院校任教, 两年培训学校教学及管理</p> <p>优势: <i>professional English ability work ethic personality</i> 专业基础扎实, 英语口语流利, 中英笔译顺畅; 工作负责, 责任心强; 性格热情大方, 善于与人沟通, 乐于团队合作。</p> <p>从业经历: <i>inter-person team spirit</i> (1) 2005年9月至2007年2月: 任河北外国语学院英语系、国际商务系助教。 <small>河北外国语学院、烟台大学外国语学院、总目或河北省、地方政府的 保定学院等院校 http://www.hbcu.edu.cn/</small> 个人负责: 教授大学一年级英语精读, 英语视听说, 商务英语, 大学二年级翻译, 商务情景英语, 商务英语谈判, 大学二年级商务情景英语。 取得成绩: <u>工作期间认真负责, 准备充分, 课堂气氛活跃, 深受学生欢迎</u> 2006年 秦皇岛外国语学院优秀教案奖 2006年 秦皇岛外国语学院优秀共产党员 (2) 2007年1月至2009年: 任金宝贝全球早教西安中心指导师, 教学主管。</p> <p>个人负责: 英文教学, 中外师资管理, 教学管理, 员工招聘及培训, 中心活动策划, 参与中心管理。 取得成绩: <u>工作期间认真负责, 准备充分, 课堂气氛活跃, 深受学生家长欢迎</u>。 2007年4月 金宝贝中国培训优秀学员 2007年12月 参与策划主持在西安索菲特酒店进行的金宝贝第一届奥斯卡颁奖礼活动 2007年12月 参与策划并主持在郑州中州皇冠酒店的金宝贝水晶舞会颁奖礼活动 2008年12月 参与策划并主持在香格里拉高新酒店举行的金宝贝新年祈福活动</p>	
<p>学历背景: 2001年9月至2005年7月 就读于西安外国语学院(现西安外国语大学)英文学院统招本科英语语言文化专业 大学期间所修课程: 主修: 英语精读, 英语泛读, 英语听力, 英语视听说, 英语口语, 英语写作, 中英文互译, 中英文口译, 英语语言学, 英美文学, 美国诗歌, 英国历史, 英国国家社会与文化等 选修: 国际市场营销, 欧洲文学史, 教育学, 谈判技巧, 旅游地理等</p>	

Handwritten annotations:

- name
- political affi.
- Jiguan
- date of birth
- ~~contact info.~~
- professional exp (summary)
- ↳ details:
 - Year
 - company
 - job title
- responsibilities
- achievements (projects)
- Education
 - institution
 - Years at school
 - courses [major / elective]

Annotations on the right side:

- English proficiency
- gender
- the highest level of ed.
- height
- health
- contact info. { phone / email
- Self-evaluation
- introduction to the company
- a comment on the job as job achievement
- not all the listed courses are relevant to the position

Appendix B

Interview Questions for College English Instructors

1. Did you write résumés when applied for your job? If no, why? If yes, did you write your résumés in Chinese, English, or both?
 - Did you use any résumé templates when you wrote your résumé in either language?
 - If you used some templates, how and why did you choose them?
 - If you did not use templates but created the résumés from scratch, what did you consider when drafting the résumés?
 - Was your résumé in English a pure translated version of the Chinese one? If yes, why? If not, how did you write it?
 - Did you consult or ask anybody for help? If yes, what suggestions did they give you? Did you follow the suggestions?
 - Overall, what do you think of the résumé writing process? Is it difficult? Why? Tell me more about the writing process.
 - Do you think you did a good job in writing your résumés?
 - Would you make any changes if you were to write your résumés again?
2. Did you ever learn how to write résumés (in either language) anywhere formally? If yes, what kind of instruction or training did you receive? What do you think of the instruction? Is it helpful? Is it effective? Why or why not?
3. What are some features of effective résumés?
4. What are some features of ineffective résumés?
5. What is the role of résumé (in both languages) in job application?
6. Do you think it is necessary to teach college students to write résumés? Why or why not?
7. Are there any forms of instruction/training on résumé writing in your university? If yes, what are they?
8. Do you have any experience in teaching résumé writing? If yes, please describe it.
9. Do you have any other comments on résumé practices?

Chinese version

1. 你申请工作时写过简历吗？如果没有，为什么？如果有，你是用中文、英文，还是用两种语言写的？
 - 你写简历有没有使用简历模版？
 - 如果使用了模版，你是如何选择模版的，选择的标准是什么？
 - 如果没有使用模版，那么在写作中你都考虑了哪些因素？
 - 你的英文简历是直接由中文简历翻译的吗？如果是，为何？如果不是，你是如何写的？
 - 你在写简历的过程中有无咨询其他人或请别人帮忙？如果有，他们都给了何种建议或帮助？你接受这些建议了吗？
 - 总体而言，你觉得简历写作难吗？请讲讲你在写作过程中遇到的情况。
 - 你觉得你的简历写得如何？
 - 如果再写一次简历，你会做何改动？
2. 你曾经接受过任何形式的简历书写培训吗？如果有，请描述。这些培训有效吗？
3. 你认为写得好的简历有哪些特点？
4. 你认为写得不好的简历有哪些特点？
5. 你认简历（包括两种语言）在申请工作过程中作用如何？
6. 你认为有必要给大学生教授如何写简历吗？
7. 你们学校向学生提供任何形式的简历写作课程或培训吗？如果有，请描述。
8. 你教过简历写作吗？如果有，请描述。
9. 关于简历你还有其他看法或问题吗？

Appendix C

Interview Questions for College Career Guidance Center Staff

1. Could you please introduce your center?
 - What type of organization is it?
 - What services do you provide to students?
 - What types of activities do you offer regarding résumé training? Could you describe them? (Who are the trainers? Who can participate? How frequent is the activity? How many students participated in the past activities? How is the effect?)
 - Are there any other courses or training programs on résumé writing in your university? If yes, please describe.
 - Do you have any future plans regarding résumé training?
2. What is the role of résumé (in both languages) in job application?
3. How are résumés read by HR officers? What do they look for? What are their preferences?
4. Do you inform students about this in your training?
5. What are some features of effective résumés?
6. What are some features of ineffective résumés?
7. Do you think that it is necessary to provide résumé training at college? Why or why not?
8. Do you have any other comments on résumé practices?

Chinese version

1. 请介绍一下你们中心的情况
 - 中心是一个什么样的组织?
 - 主要的工作内容是什么?
 - 你们开展的活动中有哪些与简历培训相关? 是什么样的活动? (细节包括: 培训人员, 招生及授课形式, 频率, 学生参与情况, 效果等)
 - 学校有任何其它简历写作课程或培训吗? 如果有, 请描述。
 - 中心有没有关于未来加强简历写作培训的计划?
2. 你认为简历(包括两种语言)在申请工作过程中作用如何?
3. 据你了解, 公司招聘人员是如何阅读和使用简历的? 他们注重什么? 有何偏好?
4. 你们在培训中会告诉学生这些吗?
5. 你认为写得好的简历有哪些特点?
6. 你认为写得不好的简历有哪些特点?
7. 你认为在大学提供简历培训有无必要? 为什么?
8. 关于简历你还有其他看法或问题吗?

Appendix D

Interview Questions for HR Managers

1. What line of business is your company engaged in?
2. When did it begin requiring résumés in either Chinese or English?
3. Why does it require English résumés? Does it require English résumés from all applicants?
4. Can you give me a description of what you are looking for in the prospective job applicants to your company?
5. Is English used in your company? If no, why do you require applicants to submit English résumés? If yes, why, and how is it used in the company?
6. What is the role of résumé in the recruitment process?
7. Working in the HR department, you should have read résumés written by your job applicants. What do you think of them? Are the well-written? Are they effective? Please talk about anything you have noticed in your reading.
8. Specifically, what are some features of effective résumés?
9. What are some features of ineffective résumés?
10. Anything else that you can tell me about résumé writing that I have not asked?
11. Are there any changes that you have noticed in résumé writing (Chinese and English) over the years?
12. Tell me a little bit about yourself. How long have you been working in this company?
13. When did you begin working in the HR Department?
14. Did you work in other companies before? If yes, what jobs did you have? Did you ever write résumés when applying for a job? Was it in Chinese or English?
15. Anything else about yourself that you think is related to résumé writing?

Chinese version

1. 你们公司是做什么的?
2. 你们公司什么时候开始要求应聘者提交简历?
3. 你们公司为何要求应聘者提交英文简历? 所有应聘者都要求英文简历吗?
4. 你们公司希望招聘怎样的员工?
5. 请介绍英语在你们公司使用的情况。
6. 简历在招聘过程中作用如何?
7. 作为人事部门工作人员, 你应该已经阅读了许多应聘者的简历。你觉得这些简历写得如何? 请进行总体以及细节的评价。
8. 你认为写得好的简历有哪些特点?
9. 你认为写得不好的简历有哪些特点?
10. 你对简历写作还有什么其它的认识或想法?
11. 你有没有注意到中文以及英文简历书写的任何变化或趋势?
12. 你在本公司工作多久了?
13. 你什么时候开始在人事部门工作?
14. 你以前在其它公司工作过吗? 做什么工作? 你找工作时写过简历吗? 中文还是英文? 可以讲讲你与简历有关的其他经历吗?

Appendix E

Survey Questions for College Students

Answer the following questions. You can use either English or Chinese when needed.

1. Did you receive any instructions or training in writing résumés in either Chinese or English?
 No. Yes. If yes, please describe the instructions or training you received.
-

2. Rate the possibility that you will need to write résumés in Chinese in the future.
 Definitely Probably Possibly Maybe Not really

3. Rate the possibility that you will need to write résumés in English in the future.
 Definitely Probably Possibly Maybe Not really

4. How will you write your résumé in Chinese? Check all that apply.
- Use a template found online.
 - Follow a model found in a textbook.
 - Find a résumé of somebody you know and change the content.
 - Consult a senior student who has written résumés before.
 - Consult a teacher.
 - Others (please specify).
-

5. How will you write your résumé in English? Check all that apply.
- Use a template found online.
 - Follow a model found in a textbook.
 - Find a résumé of somebody you know and change the content.
 - Consult a senior student who has written résumés before.
 - Consult a teacher.
 - Translate your Chinese résumé into English and change nothing.
 - Translate your Chinese résumé into English and change the format.

Others (please specify).

6. How important do you think résumé is in job application?

Very important

Important

Kind of important

Not very important

Not important

Please explain the reasons for your response[s] here:

7. What role does a Chinese résumé play in job application? Please explain.

8. What role does an English résumé play in job application? Please explain.

9. How necessary do you think résumé writing should be taught to college students?

Very necessary

Necessary

Kind of necessary

Not very necessary

Not necessary

Please explain the reasons for your response[s] here:

10. Please fill the blanks with your personal information.

Gender: _____ Major: _____

Target job: _____

简历写作问卷调查

请回答下列问题。你可选择使用英文或中文。

1. 你曾经参加过任何中文或英文简历写作的课程或培训吗？

不是 是。如果是，请描述该课程或培训。

2. 请估计你将来需要书写中文简历的可能性。

肯定 比较肯定 有可能 也许 不会

3. 请估计你将来需要书写英文简历的可能性。

肯定 比较肯定 有可能 也许 不会

4. 你将如何书写中文简历？请勾选所有符合情况的选项。

使用网上找到的模版

模仿课本上的范文

找一篇你认识的人的简历，改写其中内容

请教一个以前写过简历的高年级学生

咨询老师

其他（请在下面说明）

5. 你将如何书写中文简历？请勾选所有符合情况的选项。

使用网上找到的模版

模仿课本上的范文

找一篇你认识的人的简历，改写其中内容

请教一个以前写过简历的高年级学生

咨询老师

将你的中文简历翻译成英文，不作任何改变

将你的中文简历翻译成英文，改变版式

其他（请在下面说明）

6. 你认为简历在工作申请中有多重要？

非常重要

重要

一般重要

不太重要

不重要

请解释你的观点

7. 你认为中文简历在工作申请中起什么样的作用？请说明

8. 你认为英文简历在工作申请中起什么样的作用？请说明

9. 你认为有无必要给大学生教授简历写作？

非常必要

必要

一般必要

不太必要

不必要

请解释你的观点

10. 请提供下列个人信息

性别： _____ 专业： _____

目标职业： _____

Appendix F

Example of Interview Transcript with Labels and Notes

Name of interviewee	Interviewer's turn; then interviewee's turn	Interview transcript	Notes while transcribing	Notes while coding later
	采访人	你申请工作时有没有写过简历?		
	被访人	写过。本科毕业时是统一分配，不用写。研究生毕业于1999年，那时写了。当时我的工作主要是教师、翻译、导游、外企等。写了中文以及英文简历。		different years of graduation
	采访人	两种简历，哪种起得作用更大?		
	被访人	我觉得可能主要取决于招聘单位人事人员。看这个人更注重英文还是中文简历。		connection/comparison with opinions of other uses
	采访人	当时有无参考过模板?		
	被访人	参考过。当时拿到的模板，现在回想起来，应该是由中文简历延伸出来的，并非原版英文的，里面包含了许多英文简历中通常没有的个人信息，如出生日期、籍贯等。我先写了中文，然后再翻译成英文，语言上按照英语的表达方式进行调整。没有考虑其它方面问题，如时间，还是按照中文的习惯，按顺序排列。		representing people at that time
	采访人	挑选模板的原则		
	被访人	最常用的，最通用的，没有什么个性。不像现在有些人设计上采用多种手段，如多种颜色。		commonly or widely used templates
	采访人	顺序好还是逆序好?		
	被访人	逆序好，从最近向前推，因为最近的是最被在乎的。		
	采访人	教育经历：小学中学经历有无意义		
	被访人	中西文化差异。中国人可能会看一个人的出身(家庭背景)、历史等，而西文可能不看。中文简历可能融合了一点人事履历表的功能，将一个人的出生至今的全部经历都放上去，接受组织审查。这一点可能和西方不同。		personal info should be included in E.R.
	采访人	中国人写的用于中国的英文简历要不要加个人信息?		
	被访人	(根据中国文化)可以加上		
	采访人	写简历难吗?		
	被访人	不难。咱们英语专业的，语言没问题，完全没有难度。其他非英语专业的学生可能会有困难，不得不找其他人帮忙。		see R. writing as solely of language use
	采访人	以前写的简历有何需改进之处?		
	被访人	遵循西方简历的习惯，将时间逆序排列，主要是为了符合西方的模式。个人信息也可以包括。当然，更注重(读者的需求)灵活一些，可根据情况进行调整。中文简历也可以向西方简历那样逆序排列，因为那样很合理。我觉得这个都无所谓，哪种合理就用哪种。		Instructor's perception changed.
	采访人	你曾经接受过任何形式的简历书写培训吗?		
	被访人	没有。主要是自己看这方面的书籍，当时主要是看书，网络还不太多。		relied on books; web was not widely used
	采访人	但是你作为英语老师，肯定接触过简历。那么你认为写得好的简历有哪些特点呢?不好的呢?		
	被访人	内容方面： 1. 一定要实事求是，不要夸大其辞。现在有些人把简历做得花里胡哨，这个特别不好。我觉得简历应该扎扎实实，对方主要是看内容而不是修饰，是什么就是什么。		exaggeration X flashy X should be based on facts. ✓

target job
C+E produced

template
E.R. template
How to produce the E.R.
template criteria
writing basics
ordering info
education

personal info

current understand

instructions/framing received

"good" or "bad"

awareness of audience

* English template derived from CVs

unique function

difficulty in language; need help from other people

different years of graduation

connection/comparison with opinions of other uses

representing people at that time

commonly or widely used templates

cultural difference

personal info should be included in E.R.

see R. writing as solely of language use

Instructor's perception changed.

relied on books; web was not widely used

exaggeration X

flashy X

should be based on facts. ✓

Appendix G

National College Graduate Employment Agreement

Serial number

编号:

National College Graduate Employment Agreement

全国普通高等学校毕业生就业协议书

Graduate Work Unit Institutions

毕业生 _____

用人单位 _____

学校名称 _____

Form created by National Ministry of Education

国家教委高校学生司制表

To implement national plan of employment, the three parties sign the following agreement:

The student should follow the national policy or regulation and report arrival to the designated work unit within the time scheduled.

The work unite should accept the graduate student as pre-planned.

The institution should arrange the employment process, report to the National Ministry of Education for approval, and do the paperwork.

为维护国家就业计划的严肃性，明确毕业生、用人单位、学校三方在毕业生就业工作中的权利和义务，经协商，毕业生、用人单位、学校三方签订如下协议：

一、毕业生应按国家规定就业，向用人单位如实介绍自己的情况，了解单位的使用意图，表明自己的就业意见，在规定的时间内到用人单位报到，若遇到特殊情况不能按时报到，需征得用人单位同意。

二、用人单位要如实介绍本单位的情况，明确对毕业生的要求及使用意图，做好各项接收工作。凡取得毕业资格的毕业生，用人单位不得以学习成绩为由提出违约，未取得毕业资格的结业生，本协议无效。

三、学校要如实向用人单位介绍毕业生的情况，做好推荐工作，用人单位同意录用后，经学校审核列入建议就业计划，报国家教委批准，学校负责办理派遣手续。

四、学校应在学生毕业前安排体检，不合格者不派遣，本协议自行取消，由学校通知用人单位。如用人单位对毕业生身体条件有特殊要求，原则上应在签订协议前进行体检，否则，以学校体检为准。毕业生报到后体检不合格者，应在报到后一个月内与学校协商同意后，可将其退回学校。超过一个月由用人单位按在职人员的有关规定处理。

五、毕业生、用人单位、学校三方如有其他约定，应在备注栏明确，并视为本协议的一部分。

六、本协议经各方签字、盖章后生效。三方都应严格履行本协议，若有一方提出变更协议，须征得另两方同意，并由违约方向另两方交纳违约金。

七、本协议一式三份，毕业生、用人单位、学校各执一份，复印无效。

Appendix H

Notification for Graduate Employment Registration

XXX Province Technical Secondary School Graduate Unified Job Assignment Registration Notification Office Copy

According to XXXX graduate assignment plan, we now send XXX to your place for employment.

Address for checking in

How personal files are transferred

Valid period for the notification (1981)

Notes

Serial

XXX Province Personnel Bureau (stamp)

Fees, scholarships, financial aids, etc.

省中专学校毕业生统一分配工作
报 到 证 存 根

字第 116 号

按照 制订的 中专
学校毕业生分配计划” 理分配毕业生
等 2 名到你处分配工作。
请接洽。

人事局 (盖章)

报到地址	渭南		
档案材料	油转		
报到证	自19	年	8月5日起
有效期限	至19	年	8月15日止
已发费用	调遣费	5	元
	月份助学金		元
备注			

National College Graduate Employment Registration Notification

Major

Degree

Time at school

5 全国普通高等学校毕业生就业派遣报到证		专 业	修 业 年 限	卷
		培 养 方 式	学 历	大 专
		报 到 地 址		
		档 案 材 料	随 转	
		报 到 期 限	自 1997 年 2 月 日	至 1997 年 3 月 日
		已 发 费 用	调 遣 费	元
			该 生 副 食 补 贴 发 至	月 份
		备 注:		

按照国家制定的1996年高等学校毕业生调配计划，现派遣
校(院)毕业生 (男女)
到你处报到。

高等学院毕业生调配部印章
分 局 章

According to 1996 college graduate distribution plan, we now send XXX to your place for employment.

College graduate distribution office (stamp)

Valid period for the notification (1997)

Appendix I

Introduction Letter from the Local Employment Office (1994)

50

西安市劳动中心市场职业介绍信存根

(94)市劳介字 号

_____ :

劳动服务公司 (劳动服务站) 同志

(性别: 男 年龄: 19岁), 经审查合格, 现介绍为
单位 计划内合同制工人。合同期限为 2 年。请按规定
订《合同制工人劳动合同书》、办理社会保险等手续。

劳动部门 (盖章)
一九九四年八月廿三日

签发人 (签字) 经办人 (签字)

Appendix J

Registration Form for Urban Unemployed People (1983)

编号:0013

市

城镇待业人员登记卡

姓名: [redacted] 性别: 女

登记时间: 一九八三年四月二十日

登记单位: (盖章)  

[redacted] 市劳动服务公司制

姓名	[redacted]	性别	女	出生年月	1963.1.11.	
文化程度	高中	家庭出身	工人	本人成份	学生	
民族	汉	何时入党团	1982.	婚	否	
健康状况	一般	籍贯	陕西省西安市(县)			
家庭住址	[redacted]					
毕业学校	[redacted]	毕业时间	1980年.3.			
本人简历	1970年~80年子弟小学. 中学上学 80年3月~至今待业.					
家庭主要成员职业和经济收入情况	父: [redacted] 干部 工资7元 母: [redacted] 工人 工资60.10元 妹: [redacted] 弟: [redacted]					
受过何种奖励与处分	在校评为学富锦先进个人. 等					
受过何种专门训练有何专长	[redacted]					

姓名	现名	[Redacted]	性别	女	民族	汉	[Redacted]
	原名	[Redacted]	出生年月	1941.5.12	家庭出身	职员	
	曾用名		籍贯	陕西	本人成份	学生	
身体健康状况		一般					
文化程度	学历	1949-1955 小学 1955-1958 年初中毕业 1958年-1960年高中肄业					
	现有文化程度						
社会成长经历 一部分人	现在家庭的经济状况	爱人 [Redacted] 63.50元 本人工资 50.90元					
这个学校如 明肄业的情况	现在家庭主要成员的姓名, 职业和政治态度	爱人 [Redacted] . 干部. 中共党员					
每个人的具 体结论的 有没有需要 是经过审查, 加以说明。	何时何地参加工作	1960年7月进本厂工作					
	是不是共产党员, 何时何地何人介绍, 转正年月						
	是不是共产主义青年团团员, 何时何地何人介绍						

起止年月	地区和部门	职务	证明人姓名

个人认为历史上需要说明的问题

根据中共组织部关于填写家庭出身有关文件精神
我工作前依靠日薪工费生活(小字校),故应填写为职员。

填表人签名盖章



1979年8月1日

审查机关盖章

19 年 月 日

Appendix L

Labor Contract from a University Signed in 1987

招收编号: 01168

(全民) 所有制企业

合同工劳动合同书

招用单位(甲方) 被招用人员(乙方) 乙方所在劳动服务公司

名称 姓名 名称 北京信通印刷服务公司

性别 女

年龄 26

市劳动局印制



被 招 用 人 员 简 况

姓名	[Redacted]	性别	女	出生年月日	1962.1.11	[Redacted]	
家庭出身	干部	本人成份	学生	政治面貌	团员	民族	汉
文化程度	高中	婚否	—	健康状况	健康	有何特长	
家庭住址	陕西省 西安市 区(县) 西安信号厂家属区 街(巷) 2-3-402 号						
籍贯	陕西省 西安市 区(县) 镇 街 号						
个人简历	1969年—1980年4月在西安信号厂子弟学校上学 1980年—1982年结业。 1984.1.23进入本校。						
家庭主要成员	[Redacted] 西安信号厂武装部, 中共党员。 [Redacted] 林, 科研所。 [Redacted] 无, 西安工业大学工院大 [Redacted] 男, 山西大同机厂技校。						
主要社会关系	外祖母 [Redacted] 中共党员, 退休。						
何时何原因受过什么奖励或处分	在校期间, 曾被评为学生积极分子。 结业阶段, 被评为先进个人。 在就业训练中心被评为三好学生。						
现实表现 (由组织负责填写)	该同志心诚, 积极拥护党的路线、方针、政策, 认真学习马列主义、毛泽东思想, 积极参加工作, 任劳任怨, 认真负责, 为人诚恳, 团结同志, 遵守纪律, 服从分配, 表现良好。						

具备下列条件之一者劳动合同自行解除：

- (1) 被企业除名、开除的；
- (2) 被劳动教养、判刑的。

具备下列条件之一者企业可以解除劳动合同：

- (1) 劳动合同制工人在试用期内，经发现不符合录用条件的；
- (2) 劳动合同制工人患病或非因工负伤，医疗期满后不能从事原工作的；
- (3) 按照《国务院关于国营企业辞退违纪职工暂行规定》，属于应予辞退的；
- (4) 企业宣告破产，或者濒临破产处于法定整顿期间的。

具备下列条件之一者，劳动合同制工人可以解除劳动合同：

- (1) 经国家有关部门确认，劳动安全、卫生条件恶劣，严重危害工人身体健康的；
- (2) 企业不能按照劳动合同规定支付劳动报酬的；
- (3) 经企业同意，自费考入中等专业以上学校学习的；
- (4) 企业不履行劳动合同，或者违反国家政策、法规，侵害工人合法权益的。

八、甲乙双方在执行劳动合同期间发生争议，由企业主管部门、劳动部门调解处理，调解无效者，提请人民法院审理。

九、本合同一式三份，甲乙双方各一份，乙方所在劳动服务公司一份。

119 市劳登字 号
 本合同从签定之日起生效

甲方(盖章)
 年 月 日

乙方(盖章)
 1986年12月26日

乙方所在劳动服务公司(盖章)
 1986年12月26日

劳动部门审批意见：

劳动部门审批意见
 一九八七年元月十七日

一九八七年元月十七日

- 备注：1. 填写本表必须忠诚老实。
 2. 本表一律用钢笔填写，字迹要清楚、整齐。
 3. 凭此“合同书”办理工资支付、补助粮食。

Appendix M

Résumés Created on job search Sites

From ChinaHR.com



应聘职位：外贸合同跟单员

盛丽娟

简历编号：

更新日期：2012年1月1日

基本情况 女 | 28岁 | 广东省-广州 | 9年以上工作经验 | 供职过1家单位 | 英语[良好]
 职业近况 外贸业务员 域宝国际有限公司 [互联网 电子商务]
 教育概况 中技 [中专/技校/职高]
 薪水情况 期望薪水：面议

基本资料

手机：
电子邮箱：
现居住城市：广东省-广州
通讯地址：天河棠东
求职状态：如果有更好的机会，我愿意考虑
出生日期：1984年11月27日 户口所在地：湖南省-衡阳
政治面貌：团员 国籍：中国
婚姻状况：已婚 民族：汉族
毕业时间：2003.6

个人照片

职业技能与特长

熟悉外贸B2B B2C平台的操作

求职意向

工作性质：全职 | 兼职 | 临时
期望行业：互联网 电子商务 | 贸易 进出口
期望职业：外贸经理 主管 专员 助理 | 业务跟单
目标城市：广州 | 北美洲 | 南美洲 | 大洋洲 | 欧洲
期望薪水：面议
到岗时间：1周以内

工作经验

2007.10-2011.12 [4年2个月]	域宝国际有限公司	外贸业务员
所属行业:	互联网·电子商务	
工作地点:	广州市天河区	
工作性质:	全职	
职位类别:	外贸经理·主管·专员·助理	
职位级别:	中级职位(两年以上工作经验)	
职责和业绩:	公司主要做品牌服装,鞋子,包包。在公司期间负责外贸B2B, B2C平台,跟踪及发展新客户,自己订单跟踪至订单完成。期间有做过B2B平台TRADEKEY, ECVV EC21跟踪过一段时间, B2C平台有EBAY, DH, TRADETANG, BETAL, LINKCHINA, CINA, TOOTOOMARK等,非常熟悉各外贸平台的后台操作,对跟进老客户发展新客户有自己的一定见解和技巧,有一定的客户资源。	

教育背景

2000.9-2003.6	衡南高等职业高中[衡阳]	高中及以下[无]
专业:	英语[中国语言文学类]	

语言及方言

英语	良好[听:一般 说:一般 读:良好 写:良好]
-----------	-------------------------

家庭成员

胡大勇	
与联系人关系:	配偶
手机:	<input type="text"/>

其它信息

兴趣爱好:	性格外向, 活跃性强, 喜欢户外活动, 越野, 爬山, 露营。。。。
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附件

[简历_doc](#)

lijuan sheng

Resume No.:
Update Date: 2012-1-1

 Summary	Female Age: 28 Guangdong·Guangzhou Over 9 Year(s) work experience 1 former employers English[Good]
 Latest Work	merchandise Zone Treasure International Limited[Internet/e-Commerce]
 Highest Education	Technical School
 Salary(before tax)	Desired Salary: Negotiable

Basic Info

Mobile Phone:  

Email: 

Current Residence: Guangdong-Guangzhou

Career Status: Only the good opportunity then i consider

Date of Birth: 1984-11-27 Hukou: Hunan-Hengyang

Political Status: League member Marital Status: Married

Ethnic: Han Graduation Date: 2003.6

Target Job

Desired Type of Employment: Full-time | Part-time | Temporary

Desired Job Industry: Internet/e-Commerce | Trading/Import and Export

Desired Job Category: Foreign Trade Manager/Supervisor/Specialist/Assistant | Merchandiser

Desired City: Guangzhou | North America | South America | Oceania | Europe

Desired Salary: Negotiable

I can start from: Within 1 Week

Work Experience

2007.10-2011.12 **Zone Treasure International Limited** **merchandiser**
[4Year(s)2Month(s)]

Industry: Internet/e-Commerce

Location: guangzhou

Job Type: Full-time

Job Category: Foreign Trade Manager/Supervisor/Specialist/Assistant

Career Level: Mid Career(2+ years experience)

Responsibilities and Achievements: Company supply kinds of brand name garment, shoes and bags. During the company responsible for foreign trade B2B, B2C platform, tracking and developing new customers, track their orders to the order fulfillment. Done during the B2B platform TRADEKEY, ECVV EC21 tracking over time, B2C platform with EBAY, DH, TRADETANG, BETAL, LINKCHINA, CINA, TOOTOMARK so very familiar with the foreign trade platform, behind the scenes, on the follow up the development of new customers and old customers must have their own ideas and skills, have a certain customer resources

Education

2000.9-2003.6 **hengnan high school[hengyan]** **Senior High School[Empty]**

Major Category: english[Chinese Language & Literature]

Upload File

[简历.doc](#)

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ICP经营许可证编号 京ICP证000065号 京ICP备09040772号 本站通用网址：中华英才网

应聘职位： 外贸合同跟单员（广州）
应聘公司： 广州市深华生物技术有限公司
投递时间： 2011-10-04



简历关键字： 外贸 业务 服装 跟单 销售 出口 进口

陈肯能

三年以上工作经验 | 男 | 24岁(1987年8月30日) | 未婚 | 180cm

居住地： 广州-海珠区

户口： 广东省

电话： [redacted] 34 (手机)

E-mail： [redacted]@ve.cn



[redacted] 903)

最近工作 [2年2个月]

公司： 广州欧鑫贸易有限公司
行业： 贸易/进出口
职位： 服装/纺织/皮革跟单

最高学历

学历： 大专
专业： 国际经济与贸易
学校： 广州大学

目前年薪： 4-5万人民币

自我评价

- 1、综合素质高，大学期间勤奋好学，有较强的再学习能力和动手能力，做事主动性强。
- 2、善于思考，刻苦钻研，喜欢挑战。
- 3、适应能力强，心胸豁达，有很强的团队协作精神和与人沟通能力。

求职意向

到岗时间： 即时
工作性质： 全职
希望行业： 贸易/进出口
目标地点： 广州
期望月薪： 面议/月
目标职能： 国内贸易人员，贸易/进出口专员/助理，业务跟单，其他，贸易/进出口经理/主管

工作经验

2009 /8--至今： 广州欧鑫贸易有限公司（少于50人） [2年2个月]

所属行业： 贸易/进出口

总经理助理兼进口跟单 服装/纺织/皮革跟单

- 1.与外国厂商邮件、电话洽谈，并向外国厂商下订单，了解各种产品的优缺点，销售情况和库存。
- 2.跟进交货日期以及安排相关运输方面的事宜（合理安排香港货柜）
- 3.关注汇率，协助总经理安排货款，并与财务核对货款方面数据。
- 4.到货后，跟进货物的实际数量和质量。
- 5.遇到质量，数量，交货时间有误等问题时，及时与外国厂商进行协商解决。
- 6.陪同总经理参加皮革展览会，与外国厂商沟通，并翻译。
- 7.处理一些总经理交办的其他日常事务。

教育经历

2006 /9--2009 /7

广州大学

国际经济与贸易

大专

主修课程：国际贸易、国际金融、中国对外贸易、国际贸易实务、国际商法、应用文写作、基础会计学、财务会计、市场营销学、计算机应用基础、公共理论课 辅修课程：经济学原理、国际商法

毕业设计：<<08年中国笔记本电脑市场分析报告>>

Career Objective

I can start: immediately

Type of Employment: Full-time

Desired Industry: Trading/Import & Export

Desired Location: Guangzhou

Desired Salary: Negotiable/Month

Desired Position: Domestic Trade Specialist , Trading/Imports&Exports Specialist/Assistant , Merchandiser , Others , Trading/Imports&Exports Manager/Supervisor

Work Experience

2009 /9--2011 /8:Guangzhou OUXIN trading Co..(<50 people) [1 year and 11month]

Industry: Trading/Import & Export

documentary handler **documentary handler**
deparment

I hold a concurrent merchandiser and general manager assistant in the Guangzhou OUXIN trading Co.. My scope of work includes place an order independently with the foreign manufacturers and follow up the order seriously till the shipment arrive in Guangzhou warehouse, helping the general manager deal with the general accounting and communicate with the foreign manufacturers. Because of my excellent job performance I get lots of praises from the company leadership in the two years.

Education

2006 /7--2009 /9 Guangzhou University International Economics and Trade Bachelor

During the university I learn major knowledge actively and master international trade knowledge. In addition, I am also familiar with the popular international trade rules and Chinese foreign trade policy. Fluent both in written and spoken English, and pass the CET4 TEST in 2008. During the three years of university life I always serve as the class cadre and get lots of benefits.

Certifications

2010 /2	Driver's License	pass
2009 /5	CET4	552
2008 /9	Certificate of Accounting Professional	pass

Language Skills

English(Very Good)	Listening&Speaking(Good) , Reading&Writing(Very Good)
Cantonese(Excellent)	Listening&Speaking(Excellent) , Reading&Writing(Excellent)
Chinese Mandarin(Excellent)	Listening&Speaking(Excellent) , Reading&Writing(Excellent)

Appendix N

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval for This Study

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Tuesday, June 09, 2015
IRB Application No AS1544
Proposal Title: Resume practices in China: Understanding the evolution of the genre

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 6/8/2018

Principal Investigator(s):

Qi Chen	An Cheng
202 ES	205 Morrill
Stillwater, OK 74078	Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of the research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnett Watkins 219 Scott Hall (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnett.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,


Hugh Crethar, Chair
Institutional Review Board

VITA

QI CHEN

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: RÉSUMÉS IN CHINA: EVOLUTION, PERCEPTIONS, PRACTICES, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

Major Field: Professional Writing

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in English at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2018.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Arts in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics at the Fourth Military Medical University, Xi'an, China in June, 2004.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Arts in English for Science and Technology at Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, China in June, 1996.

Experience:

Work as a graduate research assistant in the Department of English, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma from January 2018 to now.

Taught Technical Writing in Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma from January, 2014 to December, 2017.

Stood as a visiting scholar in University of Colorado Boulder from February, 2012 to July, 2012.

Taught College English in Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, China from October, 2004 to August, 2013.

Professional Memberships:

Member of China English for Academic Purposes Association (CEAPA)