C H A P T E R 6

Teaching Writing to ESL Students

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The composition instructor's reaction to having ESL students included in a class of native speakers can be a mixture of pleasure and apprehension. On the one hand, students using English as a second language can introduce a fresh perspective both in class discussions and in their written work. Competing with this positive response to the richness of cultural diversity, however, may be a feeling of trepidation at entering into the syntactical and lexical labyrinth of the ESL student's written world. There is no question about it: ESL writers struggle with a number of language problems that do not trouble native speakers and for which writing instructors may not have quick solutions. However, encouraging ESL writers to become outspoken members of the class and shaping the overall goals of the class to include ESL students' needs provides benefits for native and nonnative speakers alike.

This chapter is intended to help instructors find their way within that ESL labyrinth. It presents a profile of ESL students, an overview of how culture shapes their notions about learning and composing, a description of effective approaches to teaching writing to ESL students, and some guidelines for evaluating their writing. A cursory look at the most common grammatical errors found in ESL writing and a list of print and online resources for teaching ESL students are also included.

PROFILE OF ESL STUDENTS

The ESL label indicates that a student's first language is not English, but it says nothing about the student's country of origin or reasons for being at college, and very little about specific language problems. In fact, ESL students are a remarkably heterogeneous group, and thus it is often difficult to make any generalizations about them. One of the first and most important distinctions to make is between international and permanent resident students.

INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Generally speaking, international students (also referred to as foreign students) reside permanently in another country and obtain student (F-1) visas in order to study at a school in the United States. Their stay in the United States is usually funded by their families, their place of employment, their government, or their own savings. Their countries of origin vary; they come to the United States in waves, affected by global political and economic events.

Most likely these international students have had previous formal English language instruction either in their home countries or in the United States. Students trained in their home countries have probably had heavy doses of grammar, vocabulary, and reading, with some translation. Although they may be proficient readers and possess good theoretical knowledge of grammar, they may lack ease and confidence in speaking up in class. Their written work may be mechanically accurate but lack fluency and appropriate organization. International students who have learned English at a language institute in this country will have a higher degree of oral fluency and some basic notions about the conventions of academic writing in the United States.

PERMANENT RESIDENTS

Unlike international students, permanent residents usually do not plan to return to their home country. Their reasons for staying in the United States are varied and may include the need for political asylum, the desire for economic advancement, or family ties.

Most students admitted to the United States with refugee status have come for political, not economic, reasons. Refugee students have come from places such as Cambodia, Vietnam, Laos, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Latin America, Haiti, Ethiopia, and Somalia. Many came to the United States as children and went through the public school system here; others are adults who have decided to return to school to get a better job. Students who graduate from a high school in the United States and who are permanent residents are usually admitted to universities and colleges without submitting a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score, which is required of international students.

Not all permanent residents are refugees seeking political asylum. Many have come to the United States for family or employment reasons. Immigrants are given a resident alien card (a "green card"), which does not grant them citizenship but allows them to reside permanently in the United States and to work here legally. After a number of years, green card holders may apply for citizenship and become naturalized citizens. Immigrants are given permanent resident status for many reasons; for example, they may have married a U.S. citizen or may have been sponsored by a family member. Immigrant students usually acquire English informally, so their spoken English is quite fluent, but their written English requires more formal instruction to achieve the same fluency and accuracy.

GENERATION 1.5

One group of students whose written work exhibits traits of ESL writing has been termed "Generation 1.5." These students either arrived in the United States at a young age or were born here, but they speak another language at home. Although they are conversationally bilingual or multilingual, they may not be able to read or write in their home language. In addition, because they have learned English primarily through verbal interaction, they generally are fluent in conversational English but not in academic English (Roberge). They will not self-identify as ESL students because of this conversational fluency, but their writing may exhibit traits characteristic of ESL students, such as omitting -*s* from third-person singular verbs (because native speakers tend not to clearly articulate these word endings in spoken English).

Obviously, ESL students have varying degrees of language ability in speaking, reading, and writing. You can also expect to see wide gaps in socioeconomic status among ESL students in the same class, even among those from the same country, and such differences may create friction. ESL students may also hold varying attitudes toward the United States, ranging from open anti-American hostility to a Pollyanna-like view of the United States as the epitome of freedom and opportunity. This range of attitudes can provide an interesting basis for in-class discussions by including a variety of perspectives and stimulating native speakers to rethink their cultural assumptions.

CROSS-CULTURAL ISSUES

Some ESL students will freely admit to being in a mild state of confusion much of the time during their academic experience. Clearly, a large portion of this confusion may be attributed to having to read and write at a very sophisticated level in a language that they have not yet mastered. There are also cultural factors less visible to the student and the instructor: the unwritten, but well-entrenched, conventions of the academy. These range from the acceptable forms of compiling a research paper to the appropriate ways of addressing an instructor. Because of their prior experience and training, native speakers may be somewhat familiar with these academic conventions, whereas ESL students may not even know that they exist. However, one advantage in having ESL writers as active participants in a class is that their questions can propel the class as a whole to discover the reasons for conventions that often seem puzzlingly arbitrary. For example, in some cases ESL students know the "rules" of grammar far better than the native speakers and can be called upon to share that expert knowledge.

IDEAS ABOUT LEARNING

ESL students may approach the learning situation from a schema formed largely by their experiences in their first culture. For example, many Latin cultures foster more cooperative learning, whereas Japan adheres to a hierarchical, teacher-dominated model. Although these cultural generalities

cannot be presumed to apply to individual students, they can be useful in sensitizing us to our own cultural assumptions. The situation in a college classroom may well shock ESL students—the informality of instructors who sit on the desk, or classmates who openly disagree with or interrupt their professors. Such students are not comfortable with the open discussion format in which American students feel free to express their opinions, regardless of whether their opinions align with those of the professor. Instructors may view their more quiet ESL students as resistant or unprepared, when in fact these students are showing respect by remaining silent.

In some cultures, professors are expected to mentor and guide students to a greater extent than they do in the United States. Thus, many ESL students may feel that their professors do not do enough for them. It is not unusual for an ESL student to bring in a piece of writing for another class and ask the composition instructor to correct it. Or some students may attempt to negotiate grades because they "need" that grade for a scholarship or admission to a school, and they may be visibly disappointed when an instructor refuses to change a grade. A teacher in the United States may interpret such behavior as impertinent, whereas the student may view it as a chance for the instructor to use his or her power to further the student's career. And while ESL students may find the informality of the classroom surprising, many find constant testing, penalties for absences, and general surveillance on the part of the instructor to be offensive to their sense of maturity. Many ESL students have attended foreign universities that do not monitor student behavior so closely.

Cross-cultural discussions in which students trace how basic assumptions result in varying styles of learning behavior may be useful for both ESL students and native English speakers. Many ESL students benefit from such discussions because they wish to conform to the conventions of their school in order to enjoy academic success. Similarly, such explorations can help native English speakers develop sensitivity to these cross-cultural issues.

CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC

Cross-cultural analyses of ESL student writing can also be fruitful. Cultures express ideas using different organizational patterns and types of support, and the written and unwritten rules governing what is considered appropriate writing in the culture are transmitted to children in school. It is not surprising, therefore, that ESL students use these first-language writing strategies when they compose in English. The result may be a grammatically correct piece of writing with an idiosyncratic development.

Instructors need to apply the principles of contrastive rhetoric cautiously. Although it is not necessary to undertake an extensive study of the rhetorical conventions of all languages, it is important to recognize how a culture shapes its members' expectations of good writing. An instructional approach that places too much emphasis on contrastive rhetoric, on the other hand, is reductionistic. Such an approach would fail to account for a

specific writer's process, potentially misinterpreting a writer's lack of experience as interference from first-language writing strategies. (For a detailed discussion of contrastive rhetoric, consult Ilona Leki's *Understanding ESL Writers: A Guide for Teachers.*)

LEVELS OF SUPPORT AND SPECIFICITY

One important feature of ESL writing that varies among cultures is the level of support and specificity required for assertions. It is not always obvious to ESL writers that facts and statistics are considered to be the strongest method of support in English and that when a student makes an assertion, it must be supported with specific examples or quantifiable measures. Other cultures may rely on the hierarchical, rather than the scientific, model of proof. It is not unusual, for example, to have ESL students use quotes from religious books or statements made by a political leader as evidence for their assertions. Students will need practice in identifying and supplying the kinds of support expected in academic writing in English.

Another central issue in cross-cultural analyses of texts is the level of explicitness expected in academic writing. English is a "writer-responsible" language: the onus is on the writer to present ideas clearly and succinctly. If the reader has difficulty with a text, the blame usually rests with the writer and not the reader. We expect to have the main points stated directly and clearly in a piece of writing; this may help to explain some of our frustration at reading a piece of writing by an ESL student who does not share the same expectation. In fact, ESL writers may consider such direct statements of main points to be childish or insulting.

This distinction is especially pertinent to native writers of Japanese and Chinese, which are "reader-responsible" languages. Japanese and Chinese readers do not expect the writer to link information and draw conclusions; they expect to do that as readers (Cowie). A Japanese student explained this when asked why she used transitions so sparingly and never seemed to tie up her examples with a general statement: she said that doing so would be insulting to Japanese readers, who are expected to be informed and sensitive enough to be able to make those inferences on their own.

ATTITUDES TOWARD PLAGIARISM

American students who commit plagiarism usually have a sense that it is an academic offense. ESL students, however, may come from countries where plagiarism, although not completely ethical, is more easily overlooked or accepted. Research and writing in the United States is prized for its originality, but this is not the case in all cultures. Some ESL students may have been taught to incorporate great writing from their culture into their own work out of respect for those scholars (McDonnell). For some students, plagiarism may also be a way of coping with their uncertainty about their own lexical abilities (Currie). Other students may be too modest to believe that they can paraphrase the writing of a respected author.

Of course, many ESL students copy for the same reasons American students do—because it's easier, faster, and sure to be more fluent. Whether or not your students are guilty, they need to be warned that plagiarism is unacceptable in a college in the United States. Be sure to discuss the issue of plagiarism early in the semester and invite students to share their understanding of the differences among quoting, paraphrasing, and plagiarizing. Students will benefit from explicit classroom discussion of different cultural attitudes toward what constitutes plagiarism, instruction in how to distinguish between borrowing of words and borrowing of ideas, and plenty of practice with paraphrasing, summarizing, and citing sources. Chapter 44 can be particularly useful here in showing students examples of unacceptable writing with plagiarized sections.

TOPIC SELECTION

Topics that seem to be extremely pertinent to the lives of your native English speakers may be inappropriate or difficult for ESL writers. An essay on breaking away from family or living on one's own, for example, may have no meaning for those ESL students who expect to live with their families until they get married. In fact, you may find that your ESL students are more comfortable writing about impersonal subjects than those designed to facilitate self-discovery. Other topics such as living together before marriage, gay rights, and evolution may offend certain groups of students because of their religious beliefs. We once assigned what seemed to be an innocuous topic—"superstitions in my culture"—only to find out that the Islamic religion does not tolerate superstitions. At the same time, some topics will be more appealing to ESL students, who are often better informed about and more interested in topics dealing with global issues than are American students.

ISSUES IN WORKING WITH ESL WRITING

The above discussion of cross-cultural differences in organization, style, and topic selection underscores the need to provide ESL students with guidelines and models of academic writing so that they can function smoothly and successfully in the college culture. Yet there is a danger—as there is in any acculturation process—of placing too great a value on the expected and accepted form of the writing and too little value on the writer's discovery of voice.

PROCESS VERSUS PRODUCT APPROACH TO WRITING

This dilemma between emphasizing the product over the process of writing is not a new one, but it takes on a slightly different slant when applied to teaching writing to ESL students. An approach that emphasizes the conventions of academic discourse provides ESL students with models of discipline-specific writing that they can emulate, along with guidelines for operating within that discipline. It has been our experience that ESL students welcome this type of instruction. Since they lack the cultural and linguistic schema of

native speakers, they benefit from explicit instruction in how to complete academic tasks. Essay-test prompts are an excellent example of this: native speakers have a better notion than ESL students of what is meant by "discuss," for example. By the same token, when ESL students feel free to raise questions about the wording of assignments, the whole class often benefits from the discussion. Assignments that allow students to practice writing essay exams, critical reviews, laboratory reports, or case reports will also help to equip students with the necessary tools for their academic careers.

If students rely more on the imposed model of aca demic communication than on their own voice and expression, the result may be mimicry rather than inspiration. This is especially true for ESL students who enter the writing process haltingly. An approach that emphasizes the process of brainstorming, sharing ideas, and collaborating on a topic nurtures ESL students' wavering self-confidence as writers in a second language. By engaging students in the discovery of ideas, this approach also distracts them from ruminating over potential surface errors.

Since a process approach to writing does not outline a single "accepted" product, it encourages students to identify their own personal style first before reconciling it with the models of writing endorsed by the academic community. Yet we would be remiss if we failed to provide our ESL students with those models. Clearly, a combination of the two approaches, without overreliance on product or neglect of process, will serve your ESL students best. As with any student it is important to focus on the strengths of an ESL writer's work and to suggest one or two issues for revision rather than to view the paper as a profusion of errors.

ATTITUDES TOWARD ERRORS

Although research indicates that ESL students need more work with actual composing than with language development (Zamel, "Composing"), it may be difficult to explain this to them. They may believe that good writing means producing grammatically correct sentences. They see errors as obstacles to good writing, and, unlike many native speakers, they do not perceive them as symbols of personal failure. They expect to make mistakes since they are learning a second language, and they expect those errors to be corrected. Leki's survey on student perceptions of teacher feedback supports what any ESL teacher might have predicted: students believe that error correction is important. Out of 100 ESL college students surveyed, 91 percent believed that it was very important to have as few errors as possible in their writing, and 93 percent stated that it was important to have teachers correct the errors.

It was once thought that errors in a second language were the result of interference from the first language. For example, if writers had problems with word order in English, it was because they were applying first-language rules of word order to the second language. Now, however, it is largely believed that most ESL errors are the result of an "interlanguage," a system for

communicating in the second language that the student has developed based on what he or she knows about the second language.

Theoretically, this interlanguage is constantly changing as the learner mentally reorganizes what is known about the language. This is an important point and a major distinction between native English and ESL writers. During the course of a semester, your ESL students will probably make a great deal of progress in English because their language-acquisition process is still activated. Their improvement will result not only from your class but also from exposure to other sources of language input. The more that students write, the more likely they are to improve their writing. According to Cowie, the act of writing and revising itself is key to improving student writing at both surface and global levels.

Viewing ESL errors as temporary edifices supporting an ESL writer's ideas lends credence to the argument against correcting every single error in an ESL composition. These errors will disappear as students gain more control over the second language. Errors that seem to be careless mistakes to the reader may not be that at all. They may be the student's individual system for organizing English structure, which will change as the student acquires more language. Nor is it uncommon for advanced ESL students to regress temporarily in their language accuracy as they struggle with new forms and constructions.

You may have some students in your class who have been in the United States for quite some time and who, for some reason, may have reached a plateau; second-language researchers say that these students' errors are "fossilized." It is not clear why fossilization occurs, but it is clear that working with fossilized errors can be difficult. Distinguishing between errors that occur as the result of fossilization and those that occur because of interlanguage is important; unlike interlanguage errors, which diminish spontaneously with increased exposure to the language, fossilized errors require more explicit and direct treatment.

TECHNIQUES FOR RESPONDING TO ESL WRITING

As an experienced composition instructor, you have probably developed a variety of techniques and strategies for providing effective feedback to your students. ("Working with Student Writing" on pp. 30–50 of this manual provides guidelines for responding to student work.) Below are suggested techniques and strategies that may be especially helpful in providing feedback to your ESL students.

Sometimes students are confused about what to do with feedback. Research (Conrad and Goldstein) suggests that students have difficulty revising when asked to develop their points by being more explicit, explaining, or analyzing. Providing students with training in how to respond to feedback will enable them to produce better revisions (Conrad and Goldstein; Currie). Moreover, if you use peer feedback in your class, you may find that students from cultures where the teacher is considered the source of knowledge

and truth do not take into account their peers' feedback when revising. In this case, it is important to train students in how to give effective peer feedback as well as how to receive it (Cowie; Nelson and Carson).

In general, it is best to provide feedback on grammar, punctuation, and spelling in earlier drafts so that students can incorporate those corrections into subsequent drafts. Students are not as likely to benefit from feedback that is offered on a final draft; they will often look at the grade, read the comments quickly, and file the paper away. However, you can encourage attention to final drafts by asking for localized revisions of a particular pattern of error or of a paragraph. Students can also be encouraged to make note of their common patterns of error and to keep revised examples as a resource for the next paper.

There is no one method for drawing students' attention to sentence-level errors, but generally it is best to locate the error for the student and have the student correct the error on a subsequent draft. Leki's survey found that students like to be given a clue regarding the nature of the error. A numbering system for the most basic errors (for example, verb tense, number agreement, word order, spelling, punctuation, and word form) works well because students seem to respond better to numbers than to abbreviations or words (for example, *sp, awk*), and they become familiar with the errors they tend to make often. The correction code in the handbook is easy to use; it includes a number-and-letter system that directs students to the appropriate section in the handbook that deals with the error. (See pp. 34–35 of this manual for a more detailed description of the correction code.) It is most useful to identify one or two significant patterns of error (subject-verb problems and misused articles, for example) rather than correct every example of error.

Some errors—often those pertaining to sentence boundaries, clause structure, and choice of words—cannot be identified by circling and numbering. When the meaning of a sentence is unclear, avoid the temptation to rewrite it for the student. You may find your interpretation is quite different from what the student intended. It's best to ask the student to rewrite the passage.

A concern that continues to surface when dealing with ESL writing is knowing what and how much to correct. As noted earlier, students make many errors; some of them may be careless mistakes, but more likely the sentences were carefully constructed using the students' still-developing knowledge of English structure and vocabulary. Correcting ESL work seems to be more an art than a science because the instructor needs to gauge the particular student's threshold for error correction and identify the errors that the student will benefit from knowing about.

We have also found that students are very receptive to and benefit a great deal from immediate, oral feedback, especially when they solicit it. Students often ask for help with grammar and vocabulary during in-class writing, and they almost always incorporate those revisions into their writing.

Some teachers and students find it helpful to keep track of repeated errors. Using a numbering system such as the one mentioned above can facil-

itate this process. (See p. 62 in the handbook for a model that can be used to track errors.) In any case, it is very important to recommend or require that students consult the handbook. Not only will it help clarify a confusing grammatical point, but also it will teach students to edit their work independently, an extremely important skill for the ESL student.

EVALUATION

The question of evaluation is a thorny one in composition classes comprising both native and nonnative speakers. Some of the questions that come up are: How do I compare the two? Will I need to lower my standards? Should I expect error-free writing from my ESL students? Should I give a grade to each draft? How many revisions should I allow before assigning a grade?

Keep a few points in mind when deciding how to evaluate ESL writers. First, the ESL student is writing in a second (or third or fourth) language. It is next to impossible to achieve native fluency and accuracy in a second language, especially when the learner began acquisition as an adult. Thus, we need to consider whether it is realistic to expect ESL students to produce error-free writing.

Research (Santos) has indicated that college professors in disciplines other than English tend to be more forgiving of ESL speakers' errors than of native speakers' errors, which they regard as careless. In addition, although ESL students may not always produce fluent English, their prior training and knowledge in their field of study may far exceed that of their native-speaker classmates. Professors may be delighted to have their input, both in writing and in class discussions, because of the value of their comments and diverse points of view for the class. In such cases, the standards of these professors and their discipline may be less stringent than those maintained in the composition class.

When assigning grades to ESL students, consider a few guidelines that may make the situation more equitable for ESL writers. If at all possible, allow students the opportunity to write multiple drafts that are not graded. This will permit ESL writers the opportunity to refine a piece of writing to their satisfaction. A split grade for the content (for example, organization, development, exemplification) and form (for example, the grammar, spelling, and punctuation) sometimes proves beneficial, especially when ESL students have many good ideas but still struggle with expression. Such a grading system helps students focus on the specific areas in which their writing needs improvement (Song and Caruso). Other solutions include assigning a satisfactory/unsatisfactory grade for work done during the semester and requiring a portfolio of the student's best work at the end of the class. (See pp. 45–46 of this manual for a discussion of portfolios.) The final grade is based on the final portfolio and not on the individual assignments.

A final, very important consideration is the time it takes for ESL students to complete written work. It may seem obvious that ESL writers need

more time to complete their assignments, but even after many years of teaching ESL students, we are still surprised at the amount of time they actually do need. All writers need help getting started, but ESL writers seem more frightened of that first sentence than native speakers do. As Ann Raimes has said, "The first sentence restricts them before they have begun to develop their ideas" (261). This need for more time also has implications for in-class and timed writing assignments. Research (Polio, Fleck, and Leder) has shown that ESL students can self-correct their papers when given extra time, even without feedback from the teacher. If at all possible, allow students a flexible schedule of deadlines.

SENTENCE-LEVEL ERRORS IN ESL WRITING

English composition instructors know a great deal about grammar and punctuation, but many who have not worked extensively with ESL students are puzzled by the errors such students make. Below are a few areas of grammar that are especially troublesome to many ESL students. All these trouble spots are discussed and illustrated in *The Little, Brown Handbook.* For more detailed explanations, consult Marianne Celce-Murcia and Diane Larsen-Freeman's *Grammar Book,* 2nd ed., a specialized ESL reference grammar for the instructor; Jocelyn Steer and Karen Carlisi's *Advanced Grammar Book,* 2nd ed., an ESL grammar textbook with an accompanying workbook by Jocelyn Steer and Dawn Schmid; or *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language,* 3rd ed., edited by Marianne Celce-Murcia.

VERB TENSES

ESL students have difficulty with verb tenses and forms of helping verbs. Some tenses in English are straightforward and usually have a direct translation in most languages. These include the past tense, the future tense, and in some cases the present tense. However, other tenses (for example, present progressive and the present perfect) do not have equivalent forms in some languages. (See handbook section 14g.)

HELPING VERBS

Students often have difficulty choosing the appropriate form of the helping verb in a sentence. You may encounter sentences like *He should has been gone* rather than *He should have gone.* (See handbook section 14d.)

VERB ENDINGS

ESL students often leave off the *-ed* endings on verbs used in the passive (*It was return*) and in the past perfect tense (*I had return it*). One explanation may be that they do not hear the *-ed* ending in spoken English. (See handbook sections 14c and 14d.) They also often forget to add the *-s* or *-es* ending on present-tense verbs in the third-person singular (*He go; it don't work*) but can correct this error immediately when it is pointed out. It is a good idea to have your

ESL students check their papers for subject-verb agreement before handing them in to you. (See handbook section 15a.)

VERBS WITH GERUNDS OR INFINITIVES

One particularly difficult area for ESL students to master is the use of a gerund or an infinitive after a verb. Some English verbs may be followed by a gerund (*He recommended going*). Others may be followed by an infinitive (*I want to go*). Some may be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive with no change in meaning (*I continued eating; I continued to eat*). Finally, some verbs may be followed by either form, but with a change in meaning (*I stopped smoking yesterday; I stopped to smoke*). (See handbook section 14e.)

COUNT AND NONCOUNT NOUNS

The distinction between count and noncount nouns in English is especially troublesome for ESL students because correct choice of article or quantifier and agreement with the verb depend on these distinctions. When ESL students first learn about count and noncount nouns, they are told that count nouns (*book/books; girl/girls*) are easily divided and counted, whereas noncount nouns are not. This rule is fine for the clear-cut examples such as *water, cheese,* or *love.* However, when students learn that *money* is a noncount noun, the rule seems to fall apart: Who hasn't counted money easily and successfully? (See handbook section 16h.)

ARTICLES

Choosing an appropriate article is extremely trying for ESL students, especially students whose native language does not have articles (e.g., Japanese, Chinese). It is equally trying for ESL teachers to explain why a definite article is used instead of an indefinite one. Once again, students learn rules to guide them in their choices. (See handbook section 16h.)

VERBS WITH PARTICLES

Students often complain about prepositions in English. These combinations of verbs and so-called particles (some of them adverbs) are particularly confusing: what may seem to be a simple construction of two (or three) words has a specific meaning that cannot be discerned from the individual meanings of the specific verb and preposition. There are literally hundreds of these idiomatic constructions. (See handbook section 14f.)

CONCLUSION

Initially, you may feel overwhelmed by the number of errors your ESL students make, and you may even wish that you did not have to spend so much time correcting them. In such cases, it is important to remember that these students are still learning the language as well as writing skills. Don't feel com-

pelled to correct every single mistake. Help students instead to develop and organize their ideas. And keep in mind that it may take your ESL students a long time before they write without making a large number of errors.

As you can see, ESL students—regardless of the cultural or socioeconomic group they may be from—confront a number of obstacles in their daily college lives. Most of these students spend an enormous amount of energy simply listening to lectures and trying to understand both the language and the cultural content of what the instructor is saying. Anyone who has lived in a foreign country and listened to a foreign language continuously knows how exhausting negotiating simple tasks in the foreign culture can be. As their instructor, you have a chance to assist your students in this process of acculturation to the academic community and to give them the encouragement they need to succeed in their academic endeavors.

RESOURCES FOR TEACHING ESL STUDENTS

PRINT RESOURCES

Braine, George. "ESL Students in First-Year Writing Courses: ESL Versus Mainstream Classes." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 5.2 (1996): 91–107. Print. Includes examples of rubrics for evaluating compositions.

Celce-Murcia, Marianne, and Diane Larsen-Freeman. *The Grammar Book.* 2nd ed. Boston: Heinle and Heinle, 1999. Print. An excellent reference book on ESL grammar for instructors.

Connor, Ulla. *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultural Aspects of Second-Language Writing.* New York: Cambridge UP, 1996. Print.

Conrad, Susan M., and Lynn M. Goldstein. "ESL Student Revision after Teacher-Written Comments: Text, Contexts, and Individuals." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 8.2 (1999): 147–79. Print.

Cowie, Neil. "Students of Process Writing Need Appropriate and Timely Feedback on Their Work, and in Addition, Training in Dealing With That Feedback." *Saitama University Review* 31.1 (1995): 181–94. *ERIC.* Web. 17 Nov. 2008. Includes a summary of the research and practical suggestions for giving effective feedback on student papers.

Currie, Pat. "Staying Out of Trouble: Apparent Plagiarism and Academic Survival." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 7.1 (1998): 1–18. Print.

Hyland, Ken, and Fiona Hyland, eds. *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Contexts and Issues*. New York: Cambridge UP, 2006. Print. A collection of articles by distinguished researchers in second-language writing.

Leki, Ilona. "The Preferences of ESL Students for Error Correction in College Level Writing Classes." *Foreign Language Annals* 24.3 (1991): 203–14. Print.

---. *Understanding ESL Writers: A Guide for Teachers.* Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook/Greenwood-Heinemann, 1992. Print. An often-cited text.

Matsuda, Paul. "Composition Studies and ESL Writing: A Disciplinary Division of Labor." *College Composition and Communication* 50.4 (1999): 699–721. Print. A history of the development of ESL instruction as a profession separate from composition instruction; includes a helpful listing of titles of several second-language and composition-study journals.

Mlynarczyk, Rebecca Williams. *Conversations of the Mind: The Uses of Journal Writing for Second-Language Learners.* Mahwah: Erlbaum, 1998. Print.

Nelson, Gayle L., and Joan G. Carson. "ESL Students' Perceptions of Effectiveness in Peer Response Groups." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 7.2 (1998): 113–31. Print.

Polio, Charlene, Catherine Fleck, and Nevin Leder. "If Only I Had More Time: ESL Learners' Changes in Linguistic Accuracy on Essay Revisions." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 7.1 (1998): 43–68. Print.

Raimes, Ann. "Anguish as a Second Language? Remedies for Composition Teachers." *Composing in a Second Language.* Ed. Sandra McKay. Rowley: Newbury, 1984. 81–96. Print.

---. "Out of the Woods: Emerging Traditions in the Teaching of Writing." *TESOL Quarterly* 25.3 (1991): 407–30. Print.

Reid, Joy M., ed. *Writing Myths: Applying Second Language Research to Classroom Teaching*. Ann Arbor: U of Michigan P, 2008. Print. Practicing teachers address myths and research regarding writing and ESL students.

Roberge, Mark. "Generation 1.5 Immigrant Students: What Special Experiences, Characteristics and Educational Needs Do They Bring to Our English Classes?" *The CATESOL Journal* 14.1 (2003): 107–30. Print.

Santos, Tony. "Professors' Reactions to the Academic Writing of Nonnative-Speaking Students." *TESOL Quarterly* 22.1 (1988): 69–90. Print.

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ONLINE RESOURCES

Dave's ESL Cafe

   eslcafe.com

   A collection of ESL resources for students and teachers. Includes chat rooms and discussion forums, mailing lists, and an ESL quiz center with questions on current news, grammar, idioms and slang, reading comprehension, writing, and world culture. Includes phrasal verbs arranged in a complete list, sorted by meanings and examples, and by random phrasal verbs from the collection. Contains a FAQ section.

The Internet TESL Journal Links

   iteslj.org/links/

   Access to articles, lessons, techniques, writing topics and exercises, and links to related sites. Updated regularly to eliminate dead links.

McDonnell, Kathryn E. "Academic Plagiarism Rules and ESL Learning—Mutually Exclusive Concepts?" *AU TESOL Working Papers 2*. American University Department of Language and Foreign Studies. 18 Jan. 2007. Web. 16 Oct. 2008.

   american.edu/tesol/wpmcdonnell.pdf.

   A comprehensive review of the literature regarding plagiarism and ESL students, with results of a survey of composition professors about handling plagiarism by ESL students.

The Purdue Online Writing Lab

   owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/esl/eslstudent.html

   A directory of Web sites about ESL resources for students, compiled by the Purdue University Writing Lab. Includes links to information about online courses, grammar, vocabulary, quizzes, listservs, and games.