

Students in the First-Year ESL Writing Program: Revisiting the Notion of “Traditional” ESL

Elena Lawrick

ABSTRACT

An exponentially growing body of international undergraduate students in U.S. writing programs calls for the development of writing pedagogies that build on students' composition literacy and their experiences in the authentic use of English. The implementation of this task requires an update of assumptions regarding international ESL students that is supported by data and takes into consideration the sociolinguistic realities of the global spread of English. This study investigated the characteristics of students enrolled in the ESL Writing Program at Purdue University. Through a questionnaire, the study documents student backgrounds, including their ESL characterization (international or U.S. resident); language backgrounds; academic literacy developed in native (L1) and U.S. educational contexts; instruction in L1 and English composition received in L1 educational contexts; as well as student motivation to register for an ESL composition course. Findings challenge the prevailing perception of international undergraduates as a homogeneous group of English language learners with limited experience in the authentic use of English and English composition. Implications for policies and practices of teaching composition are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

For writing program administrators (WPAs), the need to accommodate linguistically diverse undergraduate students has become a challenging reality. Indeed, in U.S. colleges and universities, the body of students for whom English is a second, third, or fourth language (ESL) is growing in both numbers and diversity. The “CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers” identifies linguistically diverse writers as “international

visa students, refugees, and permanent residents as well as naturalized and native-born citizens of the United States and Canada”. In the scholarship in second language writing (SLW), linguistically diverse writers are broadly categorized into international ESL or U.S. resident ESL¹. The distinction between two groups is largely based on student’s pre-college educational context and post-college residence. Specifically, international ESL students arrive in the United States on an F1 student visa to obtain a U.S. college degree and, supposedly, intend to return to their home countries after completing their studies (e.g., Ferris 4). In contrast, U.S. resident ESL students either immigrate at an early age to or are born in the United States, receive pre-college education in the U.S. K-12 setting, and stay in the country as U.S. residents and/or citizens after obtaining a college degree (Harklau, Siegal, and Losey 1).

Because the two groups of ESL students differ in academic literacy and English language proficiency, they demonstrate distinct needs in a first-year college composition (FYC) course. To highlight these differences, Friedrich put together a concise yet detailed account of their contrasting characteristics, comparing resident ESL, international ESL, and native English speaking basic writers (18-23). Friedrich points out that U.S. resident ESL undergraduates are typically proficient in spoken English and accustomed to the U.S. culture. They are also conscientious about avoiding the ESL label, which is commonly perceived as stigmatizing (Friedrich 22; Ortmeier-Hooper), and tend to identify themselves as native speakers of English. Nevertheless, U.S. resident ESL writers are challenged in a college composition course because they are commonly unaccustomed to the use of written English and formal register and they lack “study skills and writing strategies” as well (Friedrich 18-19).

Compared to resident ESL students, the challenges of international ESL undergraduate writers are largely shaped by their limited fluency in English and scant knowledge of U.S. cultural values, including academic culture. International ESL undergraduates spend more time on writing assignments and tend to focus the revision process more on their language use than on rhetorical organization and idea development (Silva, *Toward*; Reid). In collaborative activities conducted in mixed (ESL and native English speakers) groups, international ESL writers frequently assume passive roles and therefore are rarely responsible for writing (Leki, *Undergraduates*). Furthermore, their insufficient proficiency in English hampers their oral participation in peer response groups (Zhu). In addition to challenges of writing *per se*, international ESL undergraduates, whose literacy development began in L1 (native language) and C1 (native culture) contexts, have to adjust to the Western rhetorical framework and communication style. Nonetheless,

the most challenging adjustment that often remains unnoticed by writing instructors is the need to fit in culturally. To blend in a FYC class, some international undergraduates choose to suppress their cultural beliefs and consciously develop an alternative identity which is accepted in the U.S. academic discourse (Allaei and Connor; Leki, *Understanding* and *Undergraduates*; Nelson and Murphy; Tucker). Most importantly, as Leki compellingly argues in *Undergraduates*, ESL, particularly international, students have to work much harder than other students to establish and maintain socioacademic relationships with native English speaking peers and faculty which are instrumental to their academic survival (276). In contrast to these deficiency-related findings, international ESL undergraduates do demonstrate a higher level of academic literacy and awareness of their language use than their U.S. resident counterparts (Leki, Cumming, and Silva). As a result, they tend to respond to the teacher's corrective feedback in a more positive way (Goldstein; Leki, *Understanding*) and provide more detailed and constructive written comments during peer response activities (Zhu).

"The diversity of [ESL] writer profiles in college composition classes" (Friedrich 17) is further exacerbated by an ever-growing diversity *within* each ESL group. For example, today's U.S. resident ESL students demonstrate a great variety of pre-college academic literacies because of a widening spectrum of their social backgrounds and an increasing exposure to ESL-sensitive curriculum options which have been emerging in the K-12 setting ("NCTE Position"). Similarly, international ESL undergraduates come from 220 countries and from a variety of academic traditions ("Open Doors"). Most importantly, their diversity extends beyond mere national representation. Recently, the group of "traditional" (that is, those who study in the U.S. academic setting from the very beginning) international undergraduates has been further diversifying with a rapidly emerging phenomenon of the *international transfer student*. The latter is a by-product of global outreach programs that U.S. universities have been developing aggressively. In an effort to generate revenue lost to budget cuts, many U.S. institutions of higher learning extend their campuses overseas and / or create partnership programs with universities worldwide. In such programs, international students spend the first and second academic years in a home country university and then transfer to a partner U.S. university, where they complete their degree. Because of the ramifications of a long-term exposure to two distinct academic cultures, international transfer students differ from traditional international undergraduates who are exposed to the U.S. academic culture from the beginning of their studies. Although transfer students arrive in U.S. universities being more mature and academically prepared, they are more likely to undergo profound social and cultural adjustments in

order to survive and succeed in the educational context in which writing is perceived as the foundation of literacy (Leki, *Undergraduates* 238).

Regardless of the aforementioned diversity, all ESL students enter a FYC course to fulfill a ubiquitous first-year writing requirement, thus challenging WPAs and instructors with their differing characteristics and a wide range of needs.

In an attempt to recognize and accommodate the diverse needs of ESL writers in FYC courses, WPAs have been called to “develop institutional practices that are responsive to the unique needs of ESL writers” (Matsuda, “Situating” 100). The issues of concern include ethical placement options (such as credit bearing ESL track courses and directed self-placement), ESL-sensitive curricula and teaching practices, and teacher training in second language writing (Braine, “Starting” and “ESL Students”; “CCC Statement”; Matsuda, “Situating” and “The Myth”; Matsuda, Fruit and Lamm; Silva, “An Examination” and “On the Ethical”). Responding to this call, some U.S. colleges and universities establish ESL Writing Programs that function as an alternative to mainstream FYC programs. Although this curriculum innovation appears to be growing across the U.S. institutions of higher learning, a handful of studies have investigated the specifics of its implementation as well as the characteristics of students populating ESL Writing Programs (Braine; Williams). Most importantly, the available studies, conducted at the onset of the U.S. college ESL Writing Programs, are contextualized within the global sociolinguistic realities of the mid-1990s, which have significantly changed. Furthermore, in the aforementioned scholarship, only Braine’s “ESL Students,” focused explicitly on students *per se*, providing a profile of students enrolled in the ESL Writing Program. Specifically, the study found that all the students were international (93), which corroborates a recurring observation that resident ESL writers prefer mainstream composition courses (Roberge, Siegal, and Harklau; Ortmeier-Hooper). Despite the significance of its findings, the study did not investigate the students’ academic and/or composition backgrounds developed prior to their enrollment in the ESL Writing Program.

Therefore, to date, no comprehensive research has systematically examined the academic and composition backgrounds that international ESL undergraduate students acquire before entering U.S. college-level ESL Writing Programs. Largely because of limited awareness of their pre-U.S. backgrounds, international ESL undergraduates are often perceived by instructors as well-educated and hard-working but, as Leki argues in *Undergraduates*, “the unidimensional and inferior Other” (261). In a similar vein, Zamel observes that instructors’ insufficient knowledge of international students’ prior academic and writing experiences often results in

conflicting expectations between teachers and students. Even the SLW literature appears to construct international ESL undergraduates as a homogeneous group of traditional (i.e., first-time college student) foreigners who had “little opportunity to write extended texts in English” in L1 educational settings (Ferris 89). This perception inadvertently assumes that for international undergraduates, the “proper” development of writing and academic literacy begins in a U.S. university writing class, which is their *first exposure* to the explicit teaching of rhetorical and/or composing strategies. Meanwhile, although the concept of *tabula rasa* or a blank slate has served us well once, it has been recently called into question by the worldwide internationalization of higher education. Driven by the increasing number of international partnerships among schools in different countries, the importance of explicit instruction in writing in English is more prevalent now than ever. In fact, the dominance of English as an international language of science and academia (Flowerdew 14) and a global trend to restructure national higher education systems based on the U.S. model (Lee) cause a worldwide increase in offering instruction in English composition. These global realities call for in-depth insight into the composition literacies that international students attain prior to their enrollment in U.S. FYC courses.

This project provides such insight as it reports on a one-semester exploratory study of students populating the ESL Writing Program which was conducted at Purdue University. Through a systematic examination of students’ characteristics, pre-FYC academic and writing experiences, and motivations to register for the ESL FYC course, the study contributes to the development of research-informed institutional policies and practices, which are more responsive to the needs of linguistically diverse students. In particular, the study addressed the following research questions:

1. What kinds of ESL students—international or U.S. resident—comprise the population of the Program?
2. What are the students’ linguistic profiles with respect to their native languages (L1) and multilingualism?
3. What is the students’ experience with academic discourse prior to a FYC course?
4. What is the students’ prior exposure to formal instruction in L1 composition and English composition received in an L1 educational setting?
5. What motivated the students to register for the ESL FYC track?

INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

Purdue University, where this research was conducted (henceforth the University), is the fourth largest U.S. public higher education institution in international student enrollment (“Open Doors”). Figure 1 illustrates the undergraduate enrollment trends—both domestic and international—over the past six academic years. From 2006 to 2011, total undergraduate enrollment has been fluctuating in the neighborhood of 31,000 students. Domestic undergraduate enrollment (lighter grey bar) has been declining slightly since fall 2009. On the contrary, international undergraduate enrollment (darker grey bar) has been increasing steadily since 2006. Specifically, over the period of 2006-2011, the enrollment increased by 2,684 students, peaking at 15% (4,544) of the total undergraduates matriculated in fall 2011. Among incoming international students, a new phenomenon, international transfer students, has been growing recently. The University’s statistical reports first documented this new category of students in fall 2010 (“Fall 2010”; “Fall 2011”). The number of internationally transferred undergraduates grew from 238 in 2010 to 260 in 2011, with China and Malaysia accounting for the majority of transferred students (178 and 36, respectively).

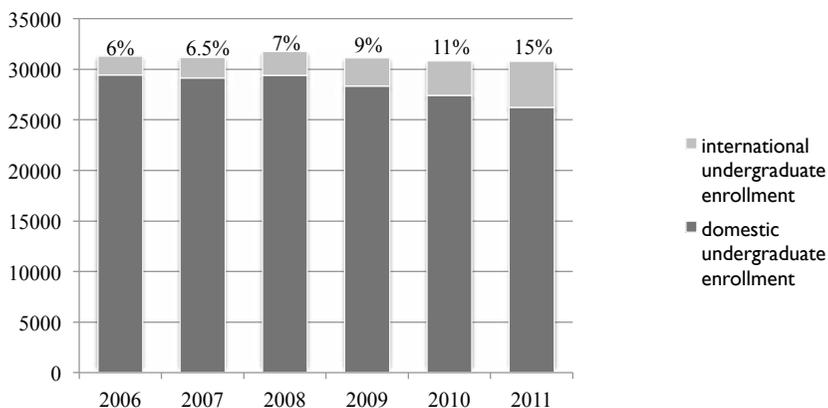


Figure 1. Increase in International Undergraduate Enrollment in the Period of 2006-2011

Overall, matriculated international undergraduates come from 89 countries, with the largest groups from China, India, South Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Taiwan (“Fall 2011”). Table 1 illustrates the enrollment trends among the six largest national groups for three academic years, from 2009 to 2011. Notice that, while the numbers of admitted students

from India, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Taiwan remain relatively stable, the enrollment of Chinese students has more than tripled, followed by a steady annual increase in the enrollment of students from South Korea.

Table 1. The Origin of the Largest Groups of International Undergraduates.

Country of origin	Fall 2009	Fall 2010	Fall 2011
China	675	1230	2,250
India	594	552	557
South Korea	461	464	525
Malaysia	194	229	224
Indonesia	126	121	119
Taiwan	90	94	100

Along with international undergraduates, the University admits resident ESL students. They have U.S. permanent resident or citizenship status and are graduates of U.S. high schools. It is noteworthy that resident ESL students are virtually invisible in the University's statistical reports. Neither are they required to provide a proof of English language proficiency to obtain admission to the University.

In contrast, in order to be admitted, their international counterparts are required to submit one of the following proofs of English language proficiency: the score of 79 or higher on the Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (88 for the School of Engineering); the score of 480 or higher on the Critical Reading Section of Scholastic Aptitude Test; the score of 6.5 or higher on International English Language Testing System; the score of 20 or higher on the English Section of American College Testing, or General Certificate of Secondary Education with at least Grade B for English language ("Application"). The University offers no courses in developmental English; nor does it have an Intensive English Language Institute. Possibly, this lack of pre-college ESL courses is based on the assumption that the rigorous admission requirements warrant an adequate proficiency in English for Academic Purposes.

To accommodate the needs of international (and, presumably, U.S. resident) ESL writers, the University offers two tracks of one semester FYC course: mainstream and ESL. In an effort to effectively maintain the global engagement agenda, the University positions ESL FYC courses as an *equal* alternative to mainstream FYC courses. ESL FYC courses are integrated into the University's support system for international students and appear not to carry a negative "remedial" perception. Both FYC tracks

bear the credit of four hours and a student transcript shows both tracks as ENGL 106. The placement protocol for a FYC course is best described as directed self-placement. Having consulted with an academic advisor, students self-register via an online system, where an ESL track is identified with a hyphenated letter I (i.e., ENGL 106-I). There is neither placement nor exit examination for ESL students, just as for their native English speaking counterparts. Rather, a successful completion of an FYC course is a graduation requirement for all undergraduates, both native English and ESL speaking. While there is a certain expectation that a FYC course will be taken during the first year of study, it is commonplace among students to delay it until the second or even third year of studies.

Two FYC tracks are implemented via two writing programs: the Introductory Composition Program (open to both native and non-native English speaking students) and the ESL Writing Program (supposedly, for international students). Because the distinction between the programs is not clear cut, some international ESL students take a mainstream writing course and, similarly, some U.S. resident ESL students take an ESL writing course. The writing programs share the goals, but the ESL curriculum places more emphasis on individual instruction and language focus as well as has a smaller section capacity of 15 instead of 20 students. To catch up with a steady increase in international undergraduate enrollment, the ESL Writing Program has been recently expanding, from 10 sections to 13 in 2009-2010 and then to 19 sections in 2011-2012. Until 2011-2012, ESL composition instructors were the second or higher year doctoral students from the Second Language Studies/ESL Graduate Program. In 2011, the University provided funding for hiring additional three full-time lecturers.

METHODS

The data reported in this paper come from two sources: a questionnaire and Purdue's Office of the Registrar. A nine-item, paper-based questionnaire was distributed among the students enrolled in thirteen⁴ sections of the ESL FYC course offered in spring 2010 (see Appendix). The students spent around 20 minutes completing the questionnaire. The items intended to elicit information about the students' (1) L1s and multilingualism, (2) academic experience, (3) instruction in writing (in L1 and English) received prior to the University admission, and (4) motivations to register for an ESL FYC course. A total N of 161 of 195 students enrolled in the Program completed the questionnaire, producing the response rate of 82.5%. The questionnaire excluded the item inquiring about student's visa status due to the concern that students might be reluctant to participate in the study because

of this particular question. Instead, the data on the students' immigration status were obtained from the Office of the Registrar.

RESULTS

ESL Characterization: International or Resident?

The recent influx of resident ESL students attending U.S. colleges and universities has provoked the claim that resident ESL students are replacing international students in ESL FYC courses across the country (Ferris; Roberge, Siegal, and Harklau). The student demographics found in this study, however, do not support this argument. On the contrary, international students made the majority of student population in the researched ESL Writing Program. Specifically, of total 195 enrolled students, 91% (177) were internationals, whereas 9% (thirteen) were resident ESL. Among the latter, nine students were U.S. citizens, and four were U.S. permanent residents. In other words, the results indicate that only a small share of students learned English as well as writing in English in the U.S. K-12 educational setting, whereas the majority learned English and received pre-higher education in non-U.S. settings.

L1s and Multilingualism

Knowing ESL students' native (L1) and other languages is instrumental in an effective writing instructor's practice, largely because it helps distinguish between L1 transfer effect (that is, traces of L1 rhetorical and linguistic features in a text written in English) and a writer's insufficient grammatical and rhetorical knowledge, thus helping adjust the instructor's feedback accordingly. Two questionnaire items investigated this aspect. The yielded data are discussed below.

The students self-identified as speakers of eighteen languages. Table 2 illustrates the distribution of L1s and proficiency in other (than L1 and English) languages. Note that, along with four individual L1s, Table 2 shows three collective L1 groups: Chinese, Indian, and Miscellaneous. The Chinese L1s group included Mandarin and Cantonese (two dominating languages in China) as well as regional and/ or hometowns dialects. While this categorization may be considered politically and linguistically inaccurate, it reflects the fact that the students identified themselves as speakers of Chinese, instead of naming a specific language. At the author's request to clarify which particular Chinese language they speak, some added their language/dialect in parentheses. In contrast, speakers of languages presented in Table 1 as Indian L1s, identified their L1s as Hindi, Telugu, Bengali, Gujarati, and Kannada. These individual languages were grouped

in one category to reflect students' national representation. In this group, Hindi speakers dominated, followed by a small group of Telugu speakers and individual speakers of Bengali, Gujarati, and Kannada. Finally, L1s which were represented by few students (1-2 individuals) were grouped as Miscellaneous. The Miscellaneous L1 group included Thai, Japanese, Spanish, Kazakh, Russian, Farsi, French, and Croatian.

Six distinct L1 groups stood out against a diverse backdrop of eighteen native languages: Chinese, Malay, Korean, Indian languages, Bahasa Indonesia, and Arabic. Among these large L1 groups, Chinese students significantly dominated, which is in line with the statistics on a recent 57% increase in students from the People's Republic of China admitted in U.S. universities (Ide). The second largest group was Malay, followed by Korean, Indian, Bahasa Indonesia, and Arabic. As Table 2 illustrates, a certain number of students in each L1 group were multilingual, which is indicative of their capacity to acquire language learning-related knowledge and skills.

Table 2. L1s and Multilingualism

L1	% of total students	% of students in an L1 group proficient in languages other than L1 and English	Other languages reported in an L1 group
Chinese languages (incl. Mandarin, Cantonese, Taiwanese, dialects)	46	8	Malay, Japanese, Swedish
Malay	14	13	Chinese, Arabic
Korean	11	18	Spanish, Japanese
Indian languages, incl. Bengali Kannada Telugu Gujarati Hindi	10.5	- - 100 100 67	- - Hindi Hindi Gujarati, Kurukh, Sadri, French, Kannada, Bengali, Spanish

Lawrick / Students in the First-Year ESL Writing Program

L1	% of total students	% of students in an L1 group proficient in languages other than L1 and English	Other languages reported in an L1 group
Bahasa Indonesia	5	13	Chinese
Arabic	4	14	French
Miscellaneous languages	9.5		
Thai		-	
Japanese		-	
Spanish		-	
Kazakh		100	Russian, Turkish
Russian		100	Kazakh, Turkish
Farsi		-	
French		-	
Croatian		-	

Students' Experience in Academic Discourse

The SLW scholarship has documented that L1 academic literacy of international ESL students, compared to native English speaking and U.S. resident ESL students, often functions as a transferrable compensation mechanism for their lower English language proficiency (e.g., Harklau, Losey, and Siegal). To address this angle, three questionnaire items investigated the students' exposure to academic discourse both in their home countries and in the U.S.

Regarding an L1 academic experience, 52% of students had studied in an L1 university, from two to eight semesters, before admission to Purdue University. It is noteworthy that all Malaysian students transferred to Purdue University after studying for two or more semesters in an L1 university.

Regarding the U.S.-based academic experience, 14% of students had studied in a U.S. high school from two to ten semesters. The majority in this group were Chinese and Korean students attending U.S. high schools. Although the questionnaire did not look into the nature of their high school experience, several students anecdotally informed me after completing the questionnaire that they had attended a U.S. high school through an international exchange program or as dependents of international visiting scholars at U.S. universities. Most importantly, Purdue University was the first ever exposure to the discourse of U.S. higher education for 98% of

students. Specifically, with the exception of three students who had previously attended another U.S. college, Purdue was the first and only U.S. academic community for the majority of students participating in the study. Furthermore, the questionnaire examined how long the students had been studying at the University when they took an ESL writing course. The results were as follows: 77% freshmen, 18% sophomores, 4% juniors, and 1% seniors. In the freshman group, 87% took an ESL writing course during their second (spring) semester, and 13% took the course immediately upon their admission.

Previous Exposure to Formal Instruction in Composition

As discussed earlier, it is commonly assumed that the first encounter of international ESL undergraduates with the explicit teaching of composition and rhetoric occurs in a U.S. FYC classroom. The questionnaire tested this assumption through the examination of students' exposure to formal instruction in L1 composition⁵ and English composition in L1 educational contexts. The results are discussed below.

Prior Instruction in L1 Composition. This study suggests that receiving instruction in L1 writing is commonplace, at least in the represented national contexts. In fact, 71% of the students indicated that they had learned L1 composition in an L1 educational setting (henceforth formal instruction). The length of received formal instruction varied significantly, ranging from one to twenty-eight semesters. Table 3 shows the breakdown of data for L1 groups. Note that the breakdown by individual L1 was not possible in the Chinese group, where the majority of students identified themselves as speakers of the Chinese language.

The national groups that yielded the highest percentages of formal instruction in L1 composition included: Thai, Bengali, Kannada, French, and Russian (100%); Chinese (82%), Malay (78%), Hindi (75%); Bahasa Indonesia (63%), Korean (53%), Arabic (57%), Kazakh (50%), and Spanish (50%). The longest duration of received instruction in L1 composition (22-28 semesters) was found in Chinese, Malay, Hindi, Arabic, and Kazakh groups. It is noteworthy that the duration of instruction varied within each L1 group.

In contrast, Japanese, Farsi, and Gujarati students reported that they had received no formal instruction in L1 composition. Similarly, 80% of Telugu students indicated that they had not been schooled in L1 composition. One possible explanation is that Gujarati and Telugu students studied composition in Hindi, which is a dominant dialect in India.

Table 3. Received Formal Instruction in L1 Composition

L1	% of students who received formal instruction in L1 composition	n of semesters of received instruction in L1 composition ⁶
Chinese	82	1-28
Malay	78	4-22
Korean	53	1-18
Indian:	75	2-26
Hindi	100	no data
Bengali	100	20
Kannada	20	4
Telugu	-	-
Gujarati	-	-
Bahasa Indonesia	63	2-8
Arabic	57	8-24
Miscellaneous languages		
Thai	100	5
Japanese	0	-
Farsi	0	-
Spanish	50	12
French	100	10
Kazakh	50	22
Russian	100	3
Croatian	no data	no data

Prior Instruction in English Composition. The majority of students in the Program (88%) had received explicit instruction in English composition in an L1 educational setting. Most importantly, in each national group, the number of students who had received such instruction significantly exceeded the number of students who had not. The numbers follow: Malay and Indonesian (100%), Indian (90%), Chinese (88%), Arabic (86%); and Thai, Spanish, Russian, Kazakh, and Croatian (82%), and Korean (71%).

The questionnaire also looked into a spectrum of settings in which instruction in English composition occurred. The students who responded that they had been taught writing in English were asked to check a box (or boxes) indicating a relevant instructional setting and also write a note regarding the duration of instruction received in each setting. This questionnaire item included three options: a school writing course (number of semesters), individual tutoring (number of months), and a preparation pro-

gram for college admission examination (number of months and the exam's title). Figure 2 below shows the patterns of L1 educational settings within which the students had been taught English composition.

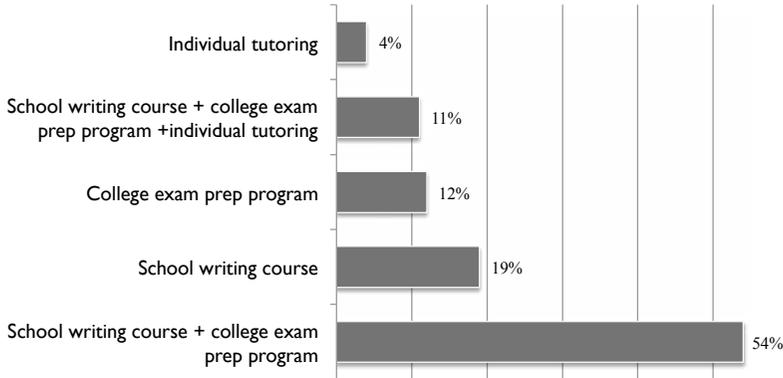


Figure 2. The Patterns of L1 Educational Settings in Which the Students Received Instruction in English Composition.

The data point out that the two most frequently indicated settings of learning English composition are K-12 and a college entrance examination preparation program, mentioned either in combination or individually. Specifically, the reported duration of school-based composition instruction varied from one to thirty-six⁷ semesters, with four, eight, and twelve semesters being mentioned most frequently. The reported instruction received in the setting of a college admission examination preparation program varied from two weeks to twenty-four months, except one student who studied English essay writing for sixty months. In this setting, the students were taught English composition to prepare for the following college admission examinations:

- the U.S. testing system: Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOELF), Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), American College Testing (ACT), Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), Graduate Record Examination (GRE);
- the U.K. and Australian testing systems: International English Language Testing System (IELTS), First Certificate in English (FCE), Certificate in Advanced English (CAE);
- the South Korean national testing system: Test of English Proficiency (TEPS) developed by Seoul National University, South Korea.

Among these examinations, TOEFL and SAT were reported in all national groups. In addition, IELTS was indicated in Malay and Arabic groups, FCE and CAS in the Indonesian group, and TEPS in the Korean group.

Furthermore, studying English composition with an individual tutor was found in all national groups except Hindi. The duration of tutoring varied from one and a half to twenty-four months.

Population Profiles

The following profiles for each national group are intended to provide a more in-depth understanding of English composition backgrounds that may be useful to WPAs and instructors working with specific national groups.

Chinese

Among the Chinese, 88% received formal instruction in English composition in L1 educational settings, whereas 12% did not. Table 4.1 shows a spectrum of instructional settings in which instruction in English composition occurred and a length of received instruction in each setting. As shown, the dominant setting (for 62% of Chinese students) was the combination of a school writing course(s) and a college examination preparatory program. The Chinese students most frequently indicated preparing for a writing component of TOEFL and SAT, with other examinations including ACT, IELTS, and GRE.

Table 4.1. English Composition Instruction Received by Chinese Students in L1 Settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing course + college exam preparatory program	62	1-28 semesters + 0.5 -12 months, respectively
School writing course	16	1-12 semesters (12 semesters were reported most frequently)
School writing course + college exam preparatory program + individual tutoring	13	2-18 semesters + 1-60 months + 1.5- 4 months, respectively
College exam preparatory program	9	2-6 months

Malay

All of the Malay students (100%) studied English composition in L1 educational settings (see Table 4.2). The dominant setting (for 87% of Malay students), even more pronounced than in Chinese group, was the combination of a school writing course(s) and a college examination preparatory program. The Malay students most frequently indicated preparing for a writing component of TOEFL and SAT, followed by IELTS and then by taking a college-level advanced writing course.

Table 4.2. English Composition Instruction Received by Malay Students in L1 Settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing course + college exam preparatory program	87	1-28 semesters + 0.5-12 months, respectively
School writing course + college exam preparatory program + individual tutoring	9	4-16 semesters + 2-6 months + 12 months, respectively
School writing course	4	4 semesters

Korean

Of the Korean students, 71% studied English composition in L1 educational settings, whereas 29% did not (see Table 4.3). Similar to the aforementioned findings, the dominant setting (for 58% of Korean students) was the combination of a school writing course(s) and a college examination preparatory program. It is noteworthy that of all national groups the Korean students received the highest percentage (25%) of formal instruction in English composition exclusively in the setting of a college examination preparatory program. They most frequently indicated preparing for a writing component of TOEFL and SAT, with other examinations including TOEIC, GRE, TEPS, and ACT.

Table 4.3. English Composition Instruction Received by Korean Students in L1 settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing course + college exam preparatory program	58	2-8 semesters + 0.5-6 months, respectively
College exam preparatory program	25	2-6 months
School writing course + college exam preparatory program + individual tutoring	17	2-4 semesters + 6-24 months +3-12 months, respectively

Indian

Of the Indian students, 90% studied English composition in L1 educational settings (see Table 4.4). The dominant setting (for 55%) was a school writing course(s), followed by the combination of a school writing course(s) and a college examination preparatory program (for 30%). The Indian students indicated preparing only for a writing component of the U.S. examinations TOEFL, SAT, and GRE.

Table 4.4. English Composition Instruction Received by Indian Students in L1 Settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing cours	55	4-26 semesters (4 and 8 semesters were indicated most frequently)
School writing + college exam preparatory program	30	8 semesters + 1-2 months, respectively
School writing course + college exam preparatory program + individual tutoring	10	6-26 semesters + 1-24 months +24-84 months, respectively
College exam preparatory program	5	2-6 months

Indonesian

Similar to the Malay group, 100% of Indonesian students received instruction in English composition in L1 settings (see Table 4.5). The dominant setting (for over 62%) was the combination of a school writing course and a college examination preparatory program. It is noteworthy that the Indonesians were the group with a high percentage (25%) of students who received instruction in English composition exclusively from individual tutors. The Indonesian students most frequently indicated preparing for a writing component of TOEFL and SAT. The other examinations included the U.K. Cambridge Exams FCE and CAE, which points to the British orientation of the Indonesian education system.

Table 4.5. English Composition Instruction Received by Indonesian Students in L1 Settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing course + college exam preparatory program	62.5	3-6 semesters + 1-18 months, respectively
Individual tutoring	25	3-12 months
College exam preparatory program	12.5	No data provided

Arabic

In the Arabic group, 86% received instruction in English composition in L1 educational settings, whereas 14% did not (see Table 4.6). Two equally dominant instructional settings (for 33% of Arabic students, respectively) included a school writing course(s) and the combination of the former and a college examination preparation program. The Arabic students most frequently reported preparing for a writing component of TOEFL and SAT, with several students additionally indicating IELTS.

Table 4.6. English Composition Instruction Received by Arabic Students in an L1 Settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing course + college exam preparatory program	33	6 semesters + 1-5 months, respectively
College exam preparatory program	33	2-19 moths
School writing course	17	10 semesters
School writing course + college exam preparatory program + individual tutoring	17	6 semesters + 5 months + 3 months, respectively

Miscellaneous

Recall that the Miscellaneous group included Thai, Japanese, Spanish, French, Croatian, Kazakh, Russian, and Farsi students represented by small numbers. In this group, 82% studied English composition in L1 settings, whereas 18% (one Japanese, Farsi, and French student, respectively) did not (see Table 4.7). Similar to the Arabic group, two equally dominant instructional settings (for 44% of students, respectively) included a school writing course(s) and the combination of the former and a college examination preparation program. The students in the Miscellaneous group indicated preparing for TOEFL and SAT.

Table 4.7. English Composition Instruction Received by Misc. Students in an L1 Settings

Instructional setting(s)	% of students who indicated receiving instruction	Length of received instruction
School writing course	44	2-20 semesters
School writing course + college exam preparatory program	44	2-20 semesters + 3 months, respectively
School writing course + college exam preparatory program + individual tutoring	12	8 semesters + 2 semesters + 2 months, respectively

Motivations to Register for an ESL FYC Course

The last questionnaire item inquired whether a student would have registered for an ESL track of FYC course if it had not been recommended by academic advisor⁸. This question yielded a high positive response: 48% of students indicated that they would have registered for an ESL writing course in any case; 31% responded negatively; 21% had difficulty to respond.

On a more specific note, the study also investigated what motivated the students to register for an ESL writing course. To elicit these data, the last questionnaire item asked students to provide an explanation if a student answered “Yes” to the previous Yes/No question. Explanations were grouped into five categories according to the response number in a given category: (1) intention to improve writing skills, (2) acknowledgement of pragmatic value of having a writing proficiency in English for academic and/or professional success, (3) fairness and ease of an ESL writing course compared to its mainstream counterpart, (4) general interest in writing, and (5) not specified.

As shown in Table 5, 84% of students who indicated that they would have registered for an ESL writing course without academic advisor’s recommendation were motivated by a perception that a strong writing proficiency is instrumental to their success in college and professional career (Categories 1 & 2 in Table 5). Furthermore, 9% of positively motivated students (Category 3) believed or felt that an ESL course provides a more supportive environment compared to its mainstream counterpart. In the same category, however, several students perceived that an ESL track is an “easy credit” course.

Table 5. Students’ Motivations to Register for an ESL Writing Course

Motivation	% of positively motivated students	Examples of students’ reasoning
Aim to improve writing skills	50	“It is a great class in effectively improve English writing.” “I want to improve my writing skills as much as possible.”

Motivation	% of positively motivated students	Examples of students' reasoning
Practical use for academic or professional career	34	"It's useful for future classes/ research papers." "Because English is a tool that I'll be using for the rest of my college career." "I will need to write in other courses." Useful in any job area." "It's beneficial for future professionalism."
Fairness and ease of an ESL course (compared to its mainstream counterpart)	9	"Because I think it is fair to let all International Students take the same level of English. But if I take normal English course than I have to work harder since I will be competing [with students] whose native language is English." "Easy credits."
Interest in writing	4	"I love to deal with my papers and essays." It [ESL course] is fun and I learn a lot from it."
No explanation provided	3	No data

On the other hand, several students volunteered to explain the reason why they did not want to take an ESL composition course (the questionnaire did not ask to provide a reason if a respondent checked a "No" box). The reasons included a lack of interest in writing *per se* (e.g., "I'm not interested in writing"), a busy schedule (e.g., "This semester my schedule is too challenging"), and a FYC course previously taken at an L1 university (e.g., "I took a similar course in a home country university").

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In an attempt to advance our understanding of ESL undergraduates admitted to U.S. higher education institutions, the current study investigated the backgrounds of students enrolled in the ESL Writing Program of Purdue

University. Through this dataset, the study aimed to verify whether several dominant assumptions regarding this group of student population are consistent with the recent developments in international educational contexts.

The first assumption concerns the ESL characterization of students populating ESL Writing Programs. In the current study, 91% of students were internationals. In other words, the study provided no evidence of the shift in the demographics of ESL Writing Programs from international ESL to resident ESL (as shown in Ferris; Roberge et al.). Rather, the findings support the earlier claim that the ESL composition track tends to attract international ESL undergraduates (Braine), whereas U.S. resident ESL students tend to navigate toward the mainstream composition⁹ because they perceive themselves as closer to native speakers of English than to internationals (Ortmeier-Hooper; see “remedial” perception of ESL Writing Programs in Williamson). Based on the finding, the target population of specialized ESL Writing Programs is likely to be constituted by international ESL, especially in institutions with a pronounced global orientation. This forecast, of course, needs to be approached cautiously and be validated through the examination of undergraduate enrollment profiles, which vary across U.S. colleges and universities.

There are, however, two potential immediate implications. One is the need to implement instructor training that would highlight the differences between textual features (including error patterns) and composing processes of resident ESL and international ESL writers. Furthermore, professional development for writing instructors working with ESL students should include workshops on writing pedagogies and practices which build on linguistic, rhetorical, and compositional backgrounds of multilingual students. The scholarship providing the theoretical foundation for the aforementioned professional development may include Silva “Toward”, Reid “Which non-native speaker?”, Leki *Understanding*, Ferris, Harklau at al., Roberge et al., Matsuda at al., and Horner et al. More recently, Doolan and Miller offered an empirically-based insight into error patterns of resident ESL writers, as compared to native English speaking basic writers and international ESL writers. The second implication concerns the need to advance awareness of changes in teaching English composition that have been recently occurring in international educational systems. In this regard, Cimasko and Reichelt provide a comprehensive overview of teaching writing in international contexts, and You offers a current account of teaching English writing in China.

Since the majority of students in this study were found to be international or traditional ESL, the rest of the discussion will focus on the assumptions relevant to this particular ESL group. What appears to be

the prevalent view is that international undergraduates are a homogeneous group of English language learners with limited prior experience in the use of English language outside of the classroom, English composition, and academic discourse. This monolithic perception grows from the assumptions that international “students come to L2 writing without any previously learned discourse schemata” (Leki “Twenty-Five”: 124) and therefore they get exposed to teaching of rhetoric and composition for the first time in a U.S. FYC setting. These assumptions guide the ideology of composition courses in U.S. colleges and universities yet appear to be problematic, at least from two perspectives. From an ideological standpoint, these “monolingualist” and “monorhetorical” assumptions are harmful because they reinforce the dominance of the Western rhetorical tradition in academic writing (Canagarajah). From a pedagogical standpoint, they are counterproductive, as they take out of the equation a set of knowledge and skills that students accrue prior to their participation in a U.S. FYC course.

The current study does not support the assumptions outlined above in several ways. First, the study provided no evidence to support the common perception that international ESL undergraduates are *learners of English* whose prior communicative experiences in English are limited to an L1 classroom setting. In this ESL Writing Program, the students’ national representation fell into three distinct contexts:

1. the countries where English functions in social and educational contexts alongside local languages (India, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand);
2. the countries where the role of English in educational systems has been significantly emphasized, thus prompting the reorganization of national curricula based on the U.S. model and an aggressive hiring of native English speaking teachers and/or U.S. graduate degree holders (China, South Korea, and the Middle East countries);
3. the countries where English primarily functions as a dominant foreign language learned in educational settings and the *lingua franca* of international communication (Japan, Iran, Kazakhstan, Croatia, France).

Based on the presence of English in a country of student origin and the status of English in the national educational system, the above contexts form a hierarchy. Context 1 represents the Southeast Asian countries belonging to the Outer Circle of Englishes (Kachru). In these countries (India, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand), English is omnipresent in daily communication or even institutionalized (in India). In education, English-

medium instruction has been historically prominent. Increasingly, English functions as a *lingua franca* of regional interethnic communication among Chinese, Malay, Koreans, and speakers of other languages of Southeast Asia (Kirkpatrick, *World Englishes*). Due to the wide use, a post-colonial English has developed into several nativized varieties, each having distinct phonological, morphological, and syntactical features (see the description of Asian Englishes in Kachru and Nelson; Kirkpatrick, *World Englishes*; Schneider). Consequently, it is safe to assume that, prior to their studies at U.S. institutions of higher education, students from Southeast Asia may have acquired and routinely used a full lectal continuum of their own nativized variety of English, in which a Standard nativized English (e.g., Malaysian English) is associated with a speaker's higher social status and better education, whereas a less prestigious lect (e.g., Manglish) is commonly used as an indicator of social proximity. In other words, given the present, well-documented, sociolinguistic realities of English in South Asia, it would be erroneous to perceive and treat Southeast Asian students as learners of English. Rather, they should be considered as native speakers of a different (from American English) variety of English. In a U.S. FYC course, such students need to be taught how to *adjust* their linguistic and rhetorical repertoires to Standard American English, rather than to *learn* them from scratch.

A similar adjustment of perception begs to be made regarding students belonging to Context 2, which includes China, South Korea, and the Middle East countries. Two processes factor into a need for this adjustment. The first process is an exponential growth of functional range of English use in respective speech communities, largely in response to globalization. The second process encompasses profound changes in writing curricula, due to ubiquitous internationalization of higher education. This process includes aligning national higher education systems with the U.S. higher education, including revising national curricula and policies, hiring teachers with graduate degrees from U.S. universities, and, most importantly, establishing partner programs with and/or extended campuses of U.S. universities. These changes, in turn, alter students' experiences with English and English composition, transforming English from a foreign language with a restricted use in the classroom setting use into a common means of communication. While arguably still being considered as learners of English (Schneider), students in China, South Korea, and the Middle East use English outside the classroom more often than ever before. Similarly, they get more exposure to English composition, in many cases being taught by U.S.-educated instructors in public and private institutions.

In contrast, for the students from Context 3 (Japan, Iran, Kazakhstan, Croatia, and France), opportunities to use English beyond the classroom

(i.e., in social interactions within local communities) are less ample and often limited to the purpose of international communication. Therefore, the majority in this student group may be rather accurately described as learners of English. Nevertheless, even in this group, the number of students who extensively use English prior to their U.S. studies is growing exponentially (for example, consider a prominent presence of English in Europe).

The sociolinguistic analysis of student origin has shown that it would be an imprecise generalization to consider *all* international undergraduates to be learners of English. Such a generalization would be in dissonance with the present global realities. In fact, the current study, over 90% (Contexts 1 and 2 combined) of the Program population under study were speakers of several nativized varieties of English, each characterized by distinct linguistic features, as well as a distinct identity. This emerging characteristic of the international student population needs to be recognized in the form of developing writing pedagogies which integrate awareness of new Englishes to enhance the efficiency of instruction.

Second, the current study provides evidence that confidently refutes the claim that international undergraduates have limited exposure to learning English composition prior to their U.S. studies. In fact, the majority of students indicated that they had developed backgrounds in composition in L1 contexts. Specifically, 71% of students studied L1 composition, and 88% studied English composition in L1 educational settings. Notably, most of the students studied English composition at school and/or in a college examination preparation program. In other words, the study brought two observations to the fore. First, English composition courses are becoming included in pre-higher education curricula across the globe. Second, the majority of international students carry into a U.S. FYC course previously acquired knowledge and skills of composing that “inevitably reproduce [...] culturally preferred discourse styles” (Leki “Twenty-five”:124). While these results, yielded by a single exploratory study, need to be further verified through systematic research conducted across U.S. writing programs, they strongly suggest that it has become inaccurate to perceive international ESL undergraduate writers as some sort of empty vessels ready to be infused with the appropriate tradition of teaching composition (note the implication of superiority). Rather, like never before, it is essential to recognize the role of cross-language and cross-cultural relations in composition (Horner, Lu, Matsuda; Kirkpatrick, “Traditional”) and fully integrate the latter in writing pedagogies, assessment practices, and teacher training.

Finally, the study provided some insight into academic literacy of international undergraduates. More than half of the students had developed

academic literacy in L1 university contexts, whose cultural conventions certainly differ from those of the U.S. academy. Arguably, such students do not share expectations of their U.S. writing instructors (Atkinson and Ramanathan; Casanave; Ramanathan and Atkinson) and thus would benefit from explicit articulation of expectations and norms of the U.S. academic community. In addition, conducting comparative studies across represented academic cultures would help advance our understanding of social behavior of matriculated international students.

The current study also contributed to the research into student perceptions of ESL composition courses. Overall, the findings of this line of scholarship appear to be somewhat inconclusive. On the one hand, the literature suggests that international ESL undergraduates (in contrast to their U.S. resident counterparts) tend to demonstrate a pragmatically positive attitude to the ESL composition track (Braine, *ESL Students*; Leki, *Undergraduates*). On the other hand, evidence also suggests that students rarely share the instructor's belief in pragmatic value of an ESL composition course, which they commonly perceive as a hurdle in their academic progress (Goldstein; Leki, *Understanding*, "Good", "A challenge"; Leki and Carson, "Students' perceptions", "Completely"; Williams).

While partially reflecting the two-sided argument, this study's findings highlighted a positive perception, with a well-pronounced recognition of benefits provided by the ESL track. In fact, only 31% of students indicated that they would not have registered for an ESL composition course if it had not been recommended by academic advisor. This particular ("negative") group yielded results that are informative for institutional policy makers. First, none of the students pointed to the stigma of being ESL-labeled, which is commonly documented in case of resident ESL undergraduates. This notable finding is certainly accounted for by the University's practice of using an ESL course designator exclusively for internal purposes, whereas an external transcript does not reflect which composition track was taken. Based on the current study, this institutional practice has a potential for adoption by U.S. colleges and universities, provided that this finding will be confirmed by a focused study investigating the research question: "Would students register for an ESL writing class if it were labeled on the transcript as ESL?"

Another finding that might be of interest to institutional policy makers concerns the reasons why some students did not want to take the course. First, the international transfer students had to repeat a FYC course that they had taken in their home (L1) university. For them, a requirement to re-take it in the U.S. University indeed slowed down their progress toward a degree. Bear in mind that international transfer students are expected to

complete some of their coursework at L1 universities, much like U.S. students transferring from one university to another. In the case of international transfer, however, degree requirements and curricula of L1 and U.S. partner universities are considerably better coordinated, especially when an L1 university is, in fact, an extended campus of a U.S. university. Still, the first-year writing requirement is not considered to be met until an international transfer student repeats a FYC course at a U.S. university. Given that global outreach initiatives are growing across U.S. universities, the time has come to put up for discussion the issue of whether the credits for a FYC course taken at an L1 university are transferable to a U.S. degree-granting institution. Second, some international students who began their studies at Purdue University (i.e., non-transfer) were reluctant to take an ESL FYC course largely because they were concerned about their ability to manage a heavily-loaded schedule. Recall that the majority of students in the Program were taking an ESL FYC course during their first semester, i.e. weeks or even days after arriving in the U.S., when they were contending with numerous adjustments.

This finding raises a question of whether it would be beneficial for incoming international undergraduates to delay a FYC course until the second semester of studies. Arguably, FYC functions as a gateway to the U.S. academic discourse, introducing both domestic and international undergraduates to the U.S. academic culture (Spack; Zamel). While this argument is certainly valid, it is essential to bear in mind that international students have to maintain a full course load immediately after their arrival in the U.S. in order to sustain F-1 student visa status. The requirement to take FYC, along with several other college-level courses, during the period when students are undergoing immense language, cultural and social adjustments, may easily result in cognitive overload, thus hindering their ability to master the nuances of academic writing. Delaying a FYC requirement until the second semester would allow a more manageable cognitive load, while the introduction to norms and expectations in U.S. academia can be implemented in a college study skills and/or orientation course during the first semester.

In sum, the finding that 31% were reluctant to take an ESL FYC course for the reasons which were *not* associated with their negative perception of the ESL Writing Program was further supported by the high percentage of students who confidently indicated that they would have registered for ESL FYC without recommendation of academic advisor. In this group, the majority articulated their awareness that a strong proficiency in writing in English is the foundation of successful college studies and future professional career. In line with Braine's findings, this result emphasizes a global

trend to recognize a pragmatic value of English (Blommaert). Furthermore, 9% of students demonstrated their perception that a supportive setting of the ESL FYC track contributes to a higher learning gain. In this particular group, many students voiced the opinion that they would have been disadvantaged in a mainstream FYC course where they would have to compete with native English speaking students. Pointing to students' awareness of being linguistically disadvantaged in a mainstream course, this finding echoes Janopoulos' argument that "a double standard places [ESL] students at risk" (43) made in his publications "Writing" and "University". In this respect, the current study emphasized the perception that the ESL Writing Programs provide a supportive learning environment sensitive to the needs of ESL writers. Meanwhile, the study also brought to the surface the student perception that an ESL writing course may be an "easy credit" course. While being articulated by only few students, this unsettling perception reminds that, in order to be efficient, the ESL Writing Program has to maintain a delicate balance between the need to provide a supportive learning environment and the need to challenge students to develop their writing proficiency to a level allowing for their competent performance in content college courses.

Regardless of its limitation of a one-semester exploratory inquiry, the current study provided evidence that the profile of ESL undergraduates admitted in U.S. higher education institutions continues to diversify. The dichotomous categorization of ESL students enrolled in U.S. composition courses into U.S. resident (or Generation 1.5) and international (or traditional) has truly become more of an imprecise generalization rather than a helpful guide to WPAs and practitioners. In the traditional ESL group, comprised by international undergraduates admitted to U.S. higher education institutions, the characteristics are profoundly changing, largely due to internationalization of higher education and an exponential growth of English use in students' home countries. This emerging reality calls for a data-driven revision of assumptions related to the needs of international students in U.S. FYC courses. In addition to ideological adjustments, it is essential to develop pedagogical approaches and assessment practices that provide a challenging yet supportive learning environment for international undergraduate writers by integrating—rather than denying—their previous backgrounds in English and composition.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Tony Silva, Crissy McMartin-Miller, Beril Tezel-Arik, and the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments and suggestions which helped to considerably improve the quality of this paper.

NOTES

1. The term, *resident ESL*, suggested by Friedrich, seems to be more accurate and inclusive than “Generation 1.5”. See the argument made by Friedrich (15-16).

2. Source: *Enrollment Summary* in fall 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011; *International Student and Scholar Enrollment & Statistical Report* in fall 2009, 2010, 2011.

3. Source: *International Student and Scholar Enrollment & Statistical Report* in fall 2009, 2010,

4. During the semester when the study was conducted, the ESL Writing Program offered 13 sections.

5. In this paper, the phrasings “writing in English” and “English composition” are used interchangeably.

6. This column shows the reported duration of instruction in the minimum and the maximum semesters.

7. This number was reported by one student who may have counted the pre-school English writing instruction.

8. In the hindsight, the phrasing “if it were not recommended by academic advisor” could have been interpreted as “not required” or “not mainstream”. If the study was repeated, this item would be better developed into two questions: (1) “Would you register for a writing course if it were not required by university?” and (2) “When registering for a writing course, would you choose an ESL course over mainstream?”

9. In colleges and universities where the dominant ESL population is U.S. resident, ESL Writing Programs need to be tailored to accommodate the specific needs of this group. In such cases, however, WPAs will most likely to face a challenge of overcoming the ESL stigma.

10. The responses were distributed as follows: YES – 48%; NO – 31%; DIFFICULT TO RESPOND – 21%.

WORKS CITED

Allaei, Sara K. and Ulla M. Connor. “Exploring the Dynamics of Cross-Cultural Collaboration in Writing Classrooms.” *Writing Instructor* 10.1 (1990): 19-28. Print.

-
- “Application Process.” *Purdue University International Students and Scholars*. Purdue U. n.d. Web. 12 Mar., 2010.
- Atkinson, Dwight and Vaidehi Ramanathan. “Cultures of Writing: An Ethnographic Comparison of L1 and L2 University Writing/Language Programs.” *TESOL Quarterly* 29 (1995): 539-568. Print.
- Blommaert, Jan. *The Sociolinguistics of Globalization*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge UP, 2010. Print.
- Braine, George. “Starting ESL Classes in Freshman Writing Programs.” *TESOL Journal* 3.4 (1994): 22-25. Print.
- . “ESL Students in First-year Writing Courses: ESL versus Mainstream Classes.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 5.2 (1996): 91-107. Print.
- Canagarajah, Suresh A. “The Place of World Englishes in Composition: Pluralization Continued.” *College Composition and Communication* 57.4 (2006): 586-619. Print.
- Casanave, Christine P. “Transitions: The Balancing Act of Bilingual Academics.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 7.2 (1998): 175-203. Print.
- “CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers”. Conference on College Composition and Communication. Nov. 2009. Web. 15 Feb., 2010.
- Cimasko, Tony and Melinda Reichelt, eds. *Foreign Language Writing Instruction: Principles and Practices*. West Lafayette: Parlor P, 2011. Print.
- Doolan, Stephen M. and Donald Miller. “Generation 1.5 Written Error Patterns: A Comparative Study.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 21 (2012): 1-22. Web. 15 June 2012.
- “Fall 2009, 2010, 2011. International Student and Scholar Enrollment & Statistical Report.” *Purdue University International Students and Scholars*. Purdue University. n.d. Web. 12 Mar., 2010.
- Ferris, Dana. *Teaching College Writing to Diverse Student Populations*. Ann Arbor: U of Michigan P, 2009. Print.
- Flowerdew, John. “The Non-Anglophone Scholar on the Periphery of Scholarly Publication”. *AILA Review* 20 (2008): 14-27.
- Friedrich, Patricia. “Assessing the Needs of Linguistically Diverse First-Year Students: Bringing Together and Telling Apart International ESL, Resident ESL, and Monolingual Basic Writers.” *WPA: Writing Program Administration* 30.1/2 (2006): 15-35. Print.
- Goldstein, Lynn M. *Teacher Written Commentary in Second Language Writing Classrooms*. Ann Arbor: U of Michigan P, 2005. Print.
- Harklau, Linda. “From the “Good Kids” to the “Worst”: Representations of English Language Learners across Educational Settings.” *TESOL Quarterly* 34.1 (2000): 35-67. Print.
- Harklau, Linda, Kay M. Losey, and Meryl Siegal. *Generation 1.5 Meets College Composition: Issues in the Teaching of Writing to U.S.-Educated Learners of ESL*. Mahwah: Erlbaum, 1999. Print.
- Horner, Bruce, Lu Min-Zhan, and Paul K. Matsuda. *Cross-language Relations in Composition: Understanding the Multilingual Nature of Composition Courses*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois UP, 2010. Print.

- Janopoulos, Michael. "University Faculty Tolerance of NS and NNS Writing Errors: A Comparison". *Journal of Second Language Writing* 1.2 (1992): 109-121. Print.
- . "Writing Across the Curriculum, Writing Proficiency Exams, and the NNS College Student". *Journal of Second Language Writing* 4.1 (1995): 43-50. Print.
- "Open Doors 2011". *Institute of International Education*. 14 Nov., 2011. Web. 12 Dec., 2011.
- Kachru, Braj B. *Asian Englishes: Beyond the Canon*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong UP, 2005. Print.
- Kachru, Yamuna and Cecil Nelson. (2006). *World Englishes in Asian context*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong UP, 2006. Print.
- Kasper, Loretta F. "ESL Writing and the Principle of Nonjudgmental Awareness: Rationale and Implementation". *Teaching Developmental Writing*. Ed. Susan Naomi Bernstein. Boston: Bedford/St. Martins, 2001. 277-87. Print.
- Kirkpatrick, Andy. "Traditional Chinese Text Structures and their Influence on the Writing in Chinese and English of Contemporary Mainland Chinese Students." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 6.3 (1997): 223-244. Print.
- . *World Englishes: Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge UP, 2007. Print.
- Lee, Molly N.N. "Global Trends, National Policies and Institutional Responses: Restructuring Higher Education in Malaysia." *Educational Research for Policy and Practice* 3.1 (2004): 31-46. Print.
- Leki, Ilona. "Twenty-Five Years of Contrastive Rhetoric: Text Analysis and Writing Pedagogies". *TESOL Quarterly* 25.1 (1991): 123-143. Print.
- . *Understanding ESL Writers: A Guide for Teachers*. Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook, 1992. Print.
- . "Good Writing: I Know It When I See It." *Academic Writing in a Second Language*. Eds. Diane Belcher and George Braine. Norwood: Ablex, 1995. 23-46. Print.
- . "A Challenge to L2 Writing Professionals: Is Writing Overrated?" *Exploring Dynamics of L2 Writing*. Ed. Barbara Kroll. New York: Cambridge UP, 2003. 315-331. Print.
- . *Undergraduates in a Second Language: Challenges and Complexities of Academic Literacy Development*. Mahwah: Erlbaum, 2007. Print.
- Leki, Ilona, and Joan Carson. "Students' Perceptions of EAP Writing Instruction and Writing Needs across the Disciplines." *TESOL Quarterly* 28 (1994): 81-101. Print.
- . "Completely different worlds": EAP and the Writing Experiences of ESL Students in University Courses." *TESOL Quarterly* 31 (1997): 39-69. Print.
- Leki, Ilona, Alister H. Cumming, and Tony Silva. *A Synthesis of Research on Second Language Writing in English*. New York: Routledge, 2008. Print.
- Matsuda, Paul Kei. "Situating ESL Writing in a Cross-Disciplinary Context." *Written Communication* 15.1 (1998): 99-121. Print.
- . "The Myth of Linguistic Homogeneity in U.S. College Composition." *College English* 68.6 (2006): 637-651. Print.

- Matsuda, Paul Kei, Maria Fruit, and Tamara L.B. Lamm, eds. *Bridging the Disciplinary Divide: Integrating a Second-Language Perspective into Writing Programs*. Spec. issue of *WPA: Writing Program Administration* 30.1/2 (2006). Print.
- “NCTE Position Paper on the Role of English Teachers in Educating English Language Learners (ELLs).” National Council of Teachers of English. Apr. 2006. Web. 12 Dec. 2011.
- Nelson, Gayle L. and John M. Murphy. “An L2 Writing Group: Task and Social Dimensions.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 1 (1992): 171-193. Print.
- Ortmeier-Hooper, Christina. “English may be my second language, but I’m not ‘ESL.’” *College Composition and Communication* 59.3 (2008): 389-419. Print.
- Platt, John T., and Heidi Weber. *English in Singapore and Malaysia: Status, Features, Functions*. Kuala Lumpur: Oxford UP, 1980. Print.
- Ramanathan, Vaidehi and Dwight Atkinson. “Individualism, Academic Writing, and ESL Writers.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 8.1 (1999): 45-75. Print.
- Reid, Joy M. *Teaching ESL Writing*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Regents/Prentice Hall, 1993. Print.
- . “Which Non-native Speaker? Differences between International Students and U.S. Resident (Language Minority) students.” *New Directions for Teaching and Learning* 70 (1997): 17-27. Print.
- Roberge, Mark, Meryl Siegal, and Linda Harklau. *Generation 1.5 in College Composition: Teaching Academic Writing to U.S.-Educated Learners of ESL*. New York: Routledge, 2008. Print.
- Schneider, Edgar W. *English Around the World: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 2011. Print.
- Silva, Tony. “Toward an Understanding of the Distinct Nature of L2 Writing: The ESL Research and its Implications.” *TESOL Quarterly* 27 (1993): 657-677. Print.
- . “An Examination of Writing Program Administrators’ Options for the Placement of ESL Students in the First Year Writing Classes.” *WPA: Writing Program Administration* 18.1-2 (1994): 37-43. Print.
- . “On the Ethical Treatment of ESL Writers.” *TESOL Quarterly* 31 (1997): 359-363. Print.
- Spack, Ruth. “Initiating ESL Students into the Academic Discourse Community: How Far Should We Go?” *TESOL Quarterly* 22.1 (1988): 29-51. Print.
- Tucker, Amy. *Decoding ESL: International Students in the American College Classroom*. Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook, 1995. Print.
- Williams, Jessica. “ESL Composition Program Administration in the United States.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 4.2 (1995): 157-179. Print.
- You, Xiaoye. “Globalization and the Politics of Teaching EFL Writing”. Ed. Paul K. Matsuda, Christina Ortmeier-Hooper, and Xiaoye You. West Lafayette: Parlor P, 2006. 188-202. Print.
- Zamel, Vivian. “Strangers in Academia: The Experiences of Faculty and ESL Students across the Curriculum.” *College Composition and Communication*, 46.4 (1995): 506-521. Print.
- Zhu, Wei. “Interaction and Feedback in Mixed Peer Response Groups.” *Journal of Second Language Writing* 10.4 (2001): 251-276. Print.

Appendix: The Questionnaire

1. What is your native language?
2. In what languages other than your native language and English are you proficient (i.e., you can speak and write relatively well)?
3. Have you taken any writing courses in your native language? If yes, then for how many semesters? Check the proper box.
 - I have not taken any writing courses in my native language.
 - I have taken writing courses in my native language for ... (write the number) semesters.
4. Before ENGL 106i, were you taught composition in English? Check the proper box.
 - I have never been taught composition in English.
 - I have been taught composition in English.
5. If you answered "I have never been taught" to the previous question, skip this question. If you answered "I have been taught", then answer this question: What kind of instruction did you receive? Check the proper box.
 - Writing in English course in school for ... (write a number) semesters.
 - Individual private tutoring for ... (write a number) months.
 - College examination preparation course for ... (write a number) months.Write the name of the exam you studied for (e.g., TOEFL, SAT, or other)
6. How many semesters did you study at college in your home country? If you did not study at college prior to Purdue University, write 0.
7. How many semesters, including this semester, have you studied in a U.S. college / university (i.e., at another U.S. college or university + Purdue University)?
8. Did you study in a U.S. high school or college prior to Purdue University? Check the proper box.
 - I did not study in a U.S. high school or college prior to Purdue University.
 - I studied in a U.S. high school or college prior to Purdue University. Please circle where you studied (high school / college) and write the number of semesters.
9. If ENGL 106i were not a required course recommended by your academic advisor, would you have registered for it?
 - Yes. Please, write down your reason.
 - No. If you would like to let us know, write down your reason.
 - It's difficult to say.