

EFFECTIVE ESL WRITING PRACTICES: THE IMPACT OF EFFECTIVE TEACHERS'
PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES ON THEIR STUDENTS' LEARNING OUTCOMES

BY

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THESIS

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the principles and practices of a group of three effective ESL writing teachers at UIUC and the impact of their pedagogical decisions on their students' learning. Data collection was done through a period of three weeks and consisted of class observations, class documents and student work examination, teacher surveys, individual and group interviews, and a student survey at the end of their course. Findings from data triangulation showed that these teachers shared many principles on teaching and learning in general and of L2 writing in particular, which align with their classroom practices. In addition, the teachers follow a very similar class structure and have similar approaches to teaching-related activities out of the classroom (such as: lesson preparation before class, creation of their own materials, written feedback and teacher-student conference methods, among others). Nevertheless, despite these similarities, they differed in their idiosyncratic preferences for certain instructional decisions and styles. At the same time, the study findings provide ample evidence of the teaching effectiveness of these teachers which is corroborated by their consistently high university-level teacher evaluation scores, the positive feedback from their specific students on the quality of the course and their teaching, high class scores on the written assignment across classes, positive student self-ratings on their achievement of the course learning outcomes, and additional learning benefits such as greater confidence and the transferability of skills to other areas of academic life.

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CHAPTER 1—INTRODUCTION

The fact that the number of international students that pursue studies in higher education in English-speaking countries has increased and keeps going on the rise seems a well-established truth in second language writing studies (Hyland, 2013; Matsuda et al, 2006). In line with this trend, the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign has increased its international student population by 55.5% between 2009 and 2015, and 3.9% only between fall 2014 and fall 2015. With a total of 3,151 incoming international students as of fall 2015, the university has become the second US public university in receiving the highest number of these students.¹

From those 3,151 students, 1,453 (46.1%) were undergraduates, 1,237 (39.3%) graduates, and 461 (14.6%) non-degree and professional students. Together, international students comprised 23.2% of the student population at the UIUC and the majority of these 1,571 students (49.8%) were Chinese. In an effort to address the academic writing needs specific to the ESL population, the ESL Writing service courses' provide specific courses' targeted at the academic skills needed by these students. After fulfilling the university requirement of taking the English Placement Test (EPT), students are placed into one of the ESL Writing courses'. Only in fall 2015, 697 students enrolled in one of the 48 sections open for the undergraduate or graduate required ESL writing courses' to be able to graduate.² To meet these needs, the Linguistics department had a staff of 21 native and non-native English teachers (among visiting professors, visiting lecturers and teaching assistants). Some had little or more extensive experience in teaching English or English academic writing; in the case of many non-native TAs they had limited English academic writing skill. Regardless of all these differences, most of these

¹ International statistics released by ISSS (International Student & Scholar Services) in Fall 2015: http://iss.illinois.edu/download_forms/stats/fa15_stats.pdf

² Data collected from internal communication documents between ESL writing director and ESL writing teachers.

teachers, especially TAs—the author of this thesis included—face the challenge of learning how to teach, and specifically, learning how to teach academic writing (EAP) to ESL students. If we consider that the international student population is likely to keep increasing, and more staff will incorporate into the ESL Writing service courses’, they need to be well prepared so that they can meet the learning needs of new international students.

Fortunately, there are a number of department and campus resources available to support UIUC ESL writing teachers’ pedagogy, be it general or specific to ESL writing. For instance, for general pedagogical improvement there are free professional development workshops offered all year long to instructors and teaching assistants, which deal with topics ranging from syllabus design to assessment, among many others. Similarly, the university’s MATESL program, being one of the oldest in the United States, includes specific core courses’ designed to prepare students to teach ESL as well as ESL Writing. In addition, the program requires students to do peer- observations and to attend monthly professional development seminars whose topics are very specific to the ESL Writing class. In the past, these have included topics such as student conferences, treatment of grammar errors, uses of technology in the writing classroom, and how to foster student interaction to mention a few. For further support, the ESL Writing service has created a website instructors and TAs can access to find information about their courses’ (course and daily syllabi with learning objectives) and download (optional) course material designed by former instructors and TAs.³ Finally, international TAs are required to take an advanced academic writing class in their first semester so that they become familiar, more confident, and better at academic writing in English.

³ The website is a password-protected site available to ESL writing program staff only. As throughout the thesis reference will be made to documents found in this website, it will be referred to “UIUC ESL Writing Home.” Should any of those documents be needed, please contact the ESL Director, Randall Sadler at rsadler@illinois.edu.

Another relevant source of knowledge for teachers comes from numerous books on academic writing, with a smaller number of books available on the actual teaching of academic writing (for example Coffin et al, 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2014; Hinkel, 2004; Paltridge et al; 2009; Reid, 2005). When it comes to second language writing research itself, which is a relatively new independent field that has increased enormously in the last 25 years (Leki, Cumming and Silva 2008; Hinkel, 2011) extensive work has been done in the areas of the L2 writer, the L1 reader, the L2 students' text, feedback, and contexts for L2 writing (Hedgcock, 2005; Hinkel, 2011); yet quite surprisingly, literature on actual second language writing instruction is scarce (Cumming, 1992; Hedgcock, 2005; Leki, Cumming and Silva, 2008; Riazi and Cumming, 1996; Raimes, 1991; Kroll, 2003; Hinkel, 2011; Wette, 2014). Among the most-often cited studies are those of Cumming (1992), Shi and Cumming (1995), and Riazi, Lessard-Clouston, and Cumming (1996). With slight modifications, each of these studies—some to a greater extent than others—set out to investigate what happened in a specific second language writing classroom. Such observations considered how the teachers taught their classes, the interaction with their students or their beliefs about the teaching of ESL writing.

While all the aforementioned resources are indeed useful for instructors and especially inexperienced TAs in the ESL writing program to improve their teaching of EAP, there are some limitations. From the point of view of the novice ESL writing teacher all the knowledge provided by these sources of support, especially literature on how to teach ESL writing may seem too abstract and no more than a list of rules of how to teach writing that are very likely to be unsuitable to the teaching context they are in on a daily basis (e.g: teaching in computer labs, different degrees of student participation, time constraints). If they turn to second language writing research, the situation is no better. While they may be able to have a slight idea of what a

writing class looks like, or how to teach a specific topic, once again, they may find it difficult to relate to it and to put into practice in their own classrooms. On the other hand, in a more positive scenario, they can benefit more directly from the ample support given by the program.

Nevertheless, whereas they are able to learn how to address particular issues, and have an idea of the expectations the program has of them as teachers, as new writing teachers, they may focus only on the specifics and lose sight of the complex set of components that *together* make a good ESL writing class as well as a clear sense of what is expected from them.

From the point of view of second language writing research the limitations lie in the fact that of available studies (1) only a few focus on instruction, (2) of those which focus on instruction, even fewer focus on “the nuts and bolts” (Hedgcock, 2005, p.609) of daily teaching, (3) very often the focus is the teacher behavior and not the impact that effective teaching has on students’ learning (beyond writing at least), (4) a few (and only the most recent studies) have started to focus on beliefs behind ESL writing teachers’ practices, and most importantly, (5) no study provides a comprehensive view of specific writing class. By “comprehensive” what is meant is what precedes the ESL writing class (objectives and material design), the class occurrence itself (type, sequence and duration of class segments; how each segment is realized in terms of the material used, grouping strategy, type of interaction; teacher monitoring and circulation; students’ reactions to class activities), and out of the class practices (after-class teacher reflection; written feedback, student conferences, teacher-student contact). To complete this picture, added to these components are teachers’ principles behind their practices and the impact of their pedagogical decisions on students’ learning of and beyond L2 writing.

Admittedly, each of those elements has been studied on their own; however, to reiterate, very few studies in second language writing instruction have offered such a comprehensive few

of how all those components converge and interact in an ESL writing class. To obtain such a comprehensive picture of an ESL writing class, this project will examine three ESL writing classes considered effective in terms of their structure and main components as those described earlier, look into its teachers' principles about teaching and learning in general and of ESL writing in particular to see how they originated and how they influence their pedagogical decisions in the classroom, and lastly, based on the insights of what makes an effective ESL writing teacher describe the impact of those teachers in their students' learning (in L2 writing and other skills).

The project will fulfill these purposes through the analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data collected during fall 2015. The types of data collected address the limitations pointed out by previous researchers and they include class observations, analysis of class documents, teacher and student surveys and individual and group teacher interviews. While class observations are not new in educational research, their inclusion in this study gains more relevance due to its connection with teachers' principles. Following the suggestions of researchers on the topic such as Xiao (2014) and Yigitoglu (2011), this study will provide validation of teachers' principles through actual class observations. In addition, although Wette (2014) is the closest to this project in terms of how it articulates principles and practices, this project will offer a more explicit and in depth examination of teacher principles and class documents in order to understand teachers' practices before, in, and out of the classroom.

The final area that this project will explore is the effects of ESL writing instruction in students, particularly the effects of effective teachers. The inclusion of student views align with Vo's (2012) critique that general studies on ESL instruction tend to focus on teachers, that is, what they do and why, while overlooking students' perceptions and attitudes toward their

teachers as well as about their own perceptions about their learning. While there are studies on specific issues (e.g: group work, peer and teacher feedback, computer-assisted learning), there is no indication of students' perceptions to the ESL writing class as a whole. Similarly, effects of instruction in their learning have been limited to L2 writing improvement mostly via objective measures such as pre and post essay writing (see review by Silva & Brice, 2004); however, besides the students' essay scores, there is no indication of what specific aspect of the class or if even the teachers themselves have had an influence themselves in students' learning—from *their* point of view and not that of the teacher or a researcher. Moreover, no study seems to have explored whether students perceive they have learnt something they can transfer to contexts outside the classroom and even something beyond the disciplinary content. While it may be the case that there was an improvement of specific writing skills, it may also be that students measure their benefit from the course in ways that the production of a timed-essay cannot account for, such as more confidence in their overall writing ability, a perceived increased of vocabulary, an improvement of their essay quality in their core courses', and others. Similarly, there seems to be no study that corroborates with students if they perceive a teacher as effective; in fact, most studies consulted assume teachers are effective based on class stakeholders other than students.

Based on its purposes, the scope of this project's significance is quite broad. First, at the level of second language writing research it can help expand the discipline's knowledge in terms of what occurs in this type of class and most importantly, what leads L2 writing teachers to teach in the way they do. Although its small-scale nature does not allow immediate generalizations outside the context of UIUC, it is expected to contribute by highlighting how regardless of the specific pedagogical decision ESL writing teachers make, there is a certain rationale behind it

that attends to the needs of the local context. While this may be common knowledge for experienced teachers, novice ESL writing teachers may not engage in this kind of practice, or even if they do, it may be difficult for them to make those decisions on a daily basis.

Thus, another aspect of significance is that by gathering insights from these experienced teachers, novice ESL writing teachers—especially new TAs with scarce or no teaching experience at all—could learn about what to pay attention to in order to make those decisions. Besides this, considering that the courses’ taught and its objectives may be the same for these novice teachers and that they use the same the instruction facilities, best teachers’ opinions can give new teachers ideas of what an effective ESL writing class may be like in the UIUC context as well as specific suggestions about situations that they are most likely to encounter. Finally, new ESL Writing teachers would benefit from contextualized and practical examples of how the class is prepared, conducted and evaluated so that they can eventually apply these to their own teaching in the ESL writing program. Consequently, this research would have implications for second language writing instruction studies in general and also a more local impact for new UIUC ESL writing teachers thus fulfilling Lee’s (2013) call for “explor[ing] pedagogical approaches that suit specific contexts, and study[ing] individual teachers and learners in their own contexts” (Lee, 2013, p. 436).

In order to fulfill its purposes, this project will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What is the lesson structure of an ESL writing class at UIUC and how do effective ESL writing teachers at UIUC realize each part of their lesson to maximize student learning?
2. What are these teachers’ principles about teaching/learning and the teaching and learning of ESL writing? How do those principles impact, or are realized in their pedagogical decisions? (way to present/practice content, class organization, ways to evaluate students’

learning, types of interaction, and the type (paper or digital) and role of classroom materials (including the use of technological resources to support learning).

3. From the point of view of students, what are their opinions of the class, their teachers, and most importantly, what are the learning benefits (in relation to and also beyond ESL writing improvement) of taking a class with effective instructors and to what aspect of the class do they attribute the achievement of learning outcomes?

CHAPTER 2—LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides an overview of the literature in the various areas pertaining to this study's research questions. First, the overview will focus on the area of second language writing studies which have been divided into (1) the evolution and current status of second language writing instruction studies, (2) key foundational studies on second language writing instruction, (3) the interface between second language writing and second language acquisition research (4) suggestions from the literature on what L2 writing means, how it relates to other skills, and how it should be taught. The second section will discuss the area of teacher cognition, divided into the following subtopics: (1) ESL writing teachers' beliefs about second language instruction, (2) studies on teaching cognition and its origins, (3) the role of formal teaching education in teacher cognition and (4) the evolution of teachers' cognition due to teaching context and reflection. The third section will provide (1) a brief overview of the features of effective teachers and its connection with student learning. The fourth and final section will discuss studies which have looked into students' perceptions and attitudes toward ESL teachers and to the ESL writing class.

Studies on second language writing instruction

Evolution and current status of second language writing instruction studies

Despite being a relatively new independent field, second language writing research has increased enormously in the last 25 years (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008; Hinkel, 2011). Extensive work has been done in the areas of the L2 writer, the L1 reader, the L2 students' text, and contexts for L2 writing (Hedgcock, 2005; Hinkel, 2011); yet quite surprisingly, literature on actual language writing instruction is scarce (Cumming, 1992; Hedgcock, 2005; Hyland, 2009; Leki, I., Cumming, A., and Silva, 2008; Riazi et al., 1996; Raimes, 1991; Kroll, 2003; Hinkel, 2011; Wette, 2014).

Admittedly, there are second language writing theories that inform curricula and teaching pedagogical practices, but as Hedgcock (2005) puts it:

“the nuts-and-bolts aspects of planning and delivering instruction are topics worthy of more extensive discussion and scrutiny. Few sources are available to assist classroom teachers in developing curricula, constructing syllabi, designing lessons, devising assignments, creating effective teaching materials, and perfecting classroom techniques such as presenting information, facilitating student interaction, and managing student activities” (p. 609).

Even though those few resources are useful (for example, Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014; Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 2001), to the novice writing teacher they may very well sound as a decontextualized set of techniques that they feel the need to follow rather blindly, may not adequately help them respond to the needs they meet on a daily basis in their particular teaching context, or may simply be too theoretical in that it may never offer a glimpse of how those principles can be carried over to an actual classroom context. Part of that gap is breached by Murphy and Byrd’s (2001) whose compilation of several writing teachers’ experiences provides a closer look at second language writing instruction on a daily basis. They offer a detailed examination of classroom activities and even examples of teacher-student interaction. In each teacher’s account the reader gets to know their teaching context, their curricular design, some practical activities, the reasons behind their pedagogical decisions, and their outcomes. Although valuable, perhaps due to space constraints there is no examination of how a specific whole class period unfolds, so it is not possible to actually see how instruction develops—what the teacher does and how students react, how or whether they are learning, or how they solve doubts or questions, for example.

A more optimistic view of second language writing instruction studies is held by Silva & Brice (2004) who assert there has been an increasing number of studies related to L2 writing instruction. These explore instructional techniques for specific issues as implemented in a particular institutional, classroom context and attest to their degree of effectiveness in students' writing improvement. Just to mention a few, there are studies related to topics as diverse as scaffolding (Cotterall, 2003), coherence (Lee, 2002), and a number of others (for more details see Silva & Brice, 2004). From a more theoretical perspective and its impact on ESL writing instruction, there are many studies researching into and supporting the effectiveness of genre-pedagogy either in secondary and post-secondary second language writing education (Dudley-Evans, 1995; Henry & Roseberry, 2010; Hyland, 2007, 2009; Kongpetch, 2006; Tardy, 2006).

Key foundational studies on second language writing instruction

Well-aware of the lack of studies on the second language writing class, in a pioneering study of second language instruction, Alister Cumming (1992) researched into the instructional routines of three ESL composition teachers. By means of naturalistic case studies, he observed a total of 40 hours of classroom instruction (over the course of 6 to 11 weeks) and resorting to quantitative methods elaborated a descriptive framework containing six typical *routines*⁴. He divided these into proactive or reactive ones. Proactive ones are generally more teacher-fronted in that they consist of planned routines directed by the teacher; in contrast, responsive ones refer to the unplanned interaction held between teachers and students to solve a particular task-related problem and it can be teacher or student-initiated (Cumming, 1992). The most proactive ones were assigning tasks, roles or objectives; establishing criteria, collectively constructing interpretations. As for the responsive ones these were: providing feedback, guiding individual

⁴ He defines "routines" as "behavioral units which serve to structure and focus pedagogical activities through sequences of verbal exchanges between teachers and students" (Cumming, 1992, p.19).

development (by elicitation, clarification, or alternative perspectives).⁵ He further concluded that these routines occurred with rather similar frequencies in all 3 teaching practices and also that each teacher devoted roughly the same amount of time to each. Nevertheless, he found that despite this consistency, teachers' routines did not occur in sequence, but that teachers alternated or even embedded routines so as to best meet their students' learning needs during instruction. His greatest contribution is to have been one of the first to attempt to describe the second language writing class itself and in doing so to devise a descriptive method distinctive from others common in observations of the general second language classes such as discourse analysis. For the purposes of this project, these routines will be referred to when describing the lesson structures of the observed ESL composition classes.

This exploratory study paved the way for Riazi et al. (1996) which observed four second language writing teachers and attempted to take Cumming's 1992 study further by looking into the "value of routine structures" (p.32) as well as their "ideational content" (Riazi et al., 1996). To do so, they added two more coding categories: type of writing modeling (textual, cognitive and social, as defined in Riazi et al., 1996) and also the pedagogical supplemental materials. The term *modeling* refers to a type of teacher demonstration of an expected text, text-creation strategies and joint construction of it among students or between them and the teacher's support. It serves then an important scaffolding purpose in that it aims to assist learners reach autonomy little by little. Riazi et al's (1996) findings identified a "pattern of instruction" (Riazi et al's, 1996, p. 23) that generally coincided with the set of instructional routines found in his 1992's study of which writing modeling (with its subtypes) was one of the main components. With some variations in order of occurrence and some recursiveness, writing modeling was carried out by

⁵ The sixth category he identified was neither proactive nor responsive, which is the classroom management one; its purpose is to grab students attention at the beginning or during the class to signal the end or change of task.

teachers before assigning a task and also while the students were on-task. Together with the provision of feedback and informal and formal assessment of learning outcomes, the instruction pattern identified by Riazi et al.'s (1996) closely resembles the teaching-learning cycle later proposed by Feez (1998). There are some terminology differences between these two authors, however, that need to be clarified for the purposes of this thesis. In Feez's (1998) model—based on the genre-pedagogy instruction—modeling is the first of a three-step process (followed by joint construction and learners' independent construction of text) as such, its purpose is to “discuss and analyze text structure, context and language” (Hyland, 2003, p.21). In this sense, it is similar to Riazi et al.'s (1996) textual modeling; however, as it may be recalled, Riazi et al.'s (1996) concept of modeling encompasses a textual, cognitive and social dimension as a whole. For the purposes of this project, the term modeling will be used in the sense stated by Riazi et al.'s (1996) with a minor modification added by Wette (2014) that will be explained shortly. Going back to Riazi et al.'s (1996) findings, these resembled those of Cumming's (1992) in that all teachers allocated roughly the same amount of time to each instructional routine. In terms of type of writing modeling, textual and social types happened more often than its cognitive counterpart. These findings led the researchers to suggest that second language writing instructors should try to strike a balance between the three types of writing modeling so as to better benefit their students' learning.

A more recent study carried out by Wette (2014) seems the most thorough so far in that it integrates the methodological focus with the teachers' beliefs in the teaching of writing. Regarding methodology, she drew on Cumming's (1995) modeling taxonomy and added the categories of teaching supplemental materials analysis and the collaborative category of writing modeling to account for teacher-student(s) interaction and differentiate it from Cumming's

(1995) student-student collaboration. Then, for this thesis, the writing modeling strategies that will be described are textual, cognitive, collaborative and social. The textual aspect refers to teacher and students' analysis and discussion of sample texts of what students are expected to write; the cognitive aspect entails discussing the composing strategies; the collaborative means the joint construction of text by teacher and the students as a class; the social aspect differs from the latter in that the construction of text is done independently by students (in pairs or groups) with little teacher assistance.

Overall, her study revealed that these modeling strategies were frequent in all classes observed and also that while certain types of modeling were slightly more frequent than others, such as text modelling, it served as a basis for the others. This means that each of these has learning benefits that are most apparent when used in conjunction. Terminological differences aside, her findings lend support to the occurrence of the aforementioned "teaching-learning cycle" with explicit instruction having a key role in several modeling types (Wette, 2014). Most importantly, she highlighted the eclectic nature of the lessons she observed depending on the students' needs which resonates with previous studies' findings (Riazi et al.'s, 1996; Shi & Cumming, 1995). By that, she means that teachers did not follow a single method or approach, but rather a combination of them as well as a resort to one modeling type over the other, or different activities related to that type; in all, regardless of their specific choices, or rather, behind these was an informed decision on what their students' needed in order to advance their second language writing skills (Wette, 2014).

To conclude, there are two other aspects of Wette's (2014) study that need mentioning as they are relevant to this project. First, among the works consulted her study is practically the only one detailing teachers' modeling choices with explicit listing of its corresponding class

activities. Second, she matches each observed modeling strategy with the teacher's belief behind that instructional decision, which she does by including short quotes for further illustration. Even though Wette's (2014) study was certainly not the first one in accounting for ESL writing teachers' beliefs—the subject of section 2.1.5— it seemed to be the first one to have complemented them with actual classroom examples.

The interface between second language writing and second language acquisition research

Although the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has established itself as a discipline on its own right for many years, its theoretical extension to and parallels with second language writing theory seem to have been brought to the surface quite recently. Aware of the apparent distinct interests and untapped research on the connections between SLA and second language writing, Carson (2001) challenges the dichotomy that separates SLA as concerned with competence and its writing counterpart with performance. Instead, he argues that L2 writing does in fact entail the learners' use of their language competence, which he illustrates by drawing parallels between the answers to Ellis (1994) basic four SLA research questions and their counterparts—whenever possible—in second language writing. Some of these parallels are the existence of learners' errors (though the type can vary and be hard to categorize), their variability (and sometimes unpredictability), the degree of student motivation and its impact on L2 writing goals and achievements, the role of L1 transfer, L2 written input, and the possible benefit of formal instruction especially for its promotion of negotiation in closed tasks (Carson, 2001). Similarly, in a more recent article Polio (2012) explored the connection between written error correction and its promotion, or lack thereof, of long-term effects on students' second language acquisition, which is operationalized in sustained, greater accuracy in L2 writing. In response to Truscott's (1996) claim against the effectiveness of written error correction, she outlined the

main stances of seven approaches in second language acquisition on the role of explicit written error correction in learners' language development (i.e: SLA) and concluded that when equated to accuracy, written feedback was incompatible with the generative and processability approach to SLA, but closely compatible with the skill-based, socio-cultural and interactionist approaches. While all three emphasize the role of noticing in helping the learner realize about the error, constant practice and noticing is key for the first; mediation via a more knowledgeable peer or the teacher for the second; learners' focusing their attention in the error, rereading (or getting input) the correction and rewriting the piece given feedback to (producing output). Her study provides evidence that when given in accordance to students' level, written corrective feedback and the explicit knowledge it provides are helpful to students' L2 writing development. She adds that for more long-term learning effects learners should be prompted to notice their errors and also revise as soon as they receive feedback (Polio, 2012). (For a more extensive discussion of this current research focus see 2012's twenty-first issue of the *Journal of Second Language Writing*).

**Suggestions from the literature on what L2 writing means, how it relates to other skills,
and how it should be taught**

Although there have been numerous suggestions in the field of second language writing to answer the question how L2 writing should be taught, its complexity has made it impossible to find a definite answer. In fact, scholars in the field argue that it may depend on how L2 writing is defined (which is an unstable, context-dependent concept), and our understanding of how people learn to write in a second language as well (to which there is no definite answer either) (Hyland, 2009). Nevertheless, consensus exists on the following issues: (1) the distinctive nature of L2 writing as opposed to writing in a first language, (2) although several approaches exist to teach

L2 writing, there is not a single one that is by itself the most effective for all learners in every context. Each of these issues is explained below including their pedagogical implications later in the section.

What does L2 writing mean? The distinctive nature of L2 writing as opposed to writing in a first language

In what is now considered a landmark essay in second language writing, Silva (1993) provided empirical evidence of the differences (in composing and also specific features) between the production of text by L1 writers and ESL students. After a review of 73 studies, he found that composing in the L2 “was clearly more difficult and less effective” (Silva, 1993, p.661), and that there were differences in text features. They tended to lack fluency (be short), have a higher number of errors, judged as “less effective” (Silva, 1993, p.663) by native English speaking raters; in terms of structure, some of them differed in textual patterns from English writing, morphosyntactic/stylistic features, among several others (see Silva, 1993). He concludes that these findings show ESL writers’ needs are special and that consequently they

“should be taught by teachers who are cognizant of, sensitive to, and able to deal positively and effectively with sociocultural, rhetorical, and linguistic differences of their students. That is, they should be taught by teachers with special theoretical and practical preparation for teaching L2 writers” (Silva, 1993, p.670).

By this statement, he is implicitly addressing the question of what is an effective ESL writing teacher, which as it will be discussed in the section of teaching effectiveness in this chapter combines with the traits of effective teaching found in general education to have a more comprehensive notion of what an effective ESL writing teacher is.

Silva's conclusion in his 1993's article reflected in the quote above was expanded in a new one in 1997. In it he and his colleagues reaffirm and expand on the different needs of L2 writers, which can be summarized as follows:

- Their cultural attitudes to knowledge may be different than that of English speakers (knowledge telling v/s knowledge transforming) and so may be their assumed purposes of writing (demonstrate critical thinking, inform, persuade).
- Some writing topics deemed appropriate in an American context may not be so for other cultural groups and L2 writers may respond or react differently to texts.
- They have more difficulties reading in English than native English speakers.
- They may have a different awareness of audience and purpose and come from cultures whose writing is reader-based instead of writer-based.
- Regarding textual concerns, their rhetorical features may differ to some or a great extent from that of native English speakers.
- In terms of text structure, their beliefs about what is considered good writing may differ.
- Their cultures may view using someone's words without attribution as an acceptable and expected practice as oppose to consider it a case of plagiarism. (Silva, Leki and Carson, 1997).

All these have clear implications for teaching. Citing Raimes (1985), Silva (1993) asserts second language writers "need more of everything" (p.250). For teachers, this implies giving more time and attention to writing strategies, rhetorical and linguistic issues (Silva, 1993). He gives more practical advice suggesting teachers have them work on planning procedures, do drafts with focus on content and then on organization and linguistic issues, "familiarize them

with L1 audience expectations,” (Silva, 1993, p.671), and provide them with grammar and vocabulary resources, among others.

More than learning to write: the interrelation between writing and learning

In addition to the often taken for granted purpose of a writing class as teaching students how to write, as the previous section showed writing can play an important role in language development. This section will briefly expand on that role as well as outline the role of writing in the learning of content and other literacy skills.

Manchón (2011) offers a complete overview of the relation between writing and learning: learning-to-write and writing-to-learn either language or a specific content. As defined by Hyland (2011) learning-to-write can be explored from different foci, with each of those being associated with a distinct pedagogical approach to writing. From the point of view of students a writing class can enable them to learn writing practices used by experts; from the point of view of texts, it entails students’ use of rules as well as their communicating of ideas; finally, from the point of view of the reader, writers show their consideration of an implicit or explicit audience. All these dimensions converge in the five types of knowledge contained in a learning-to-write approach: content, system, process, genre, and context (Hyland, 2011). Thus, the main focus of a learning-to-write approach is the activity of writing itself as a vehicle for communication. On the other hand, a writing-to-learn approach emphasizes the role of writing not so much as a product, but as a facilitator of language development and/or the learning of particular subject area. In the realm of language development, Williams (2012) discusses how writing has a role “in the creation and restructuring of L2 knowledge” (Williams, 2012, p.322); specifically the advantages of written production over its oral counterpart in that process as well as which particular processes are facilitated by writing. As for the first, she asserts that writing leaves a permanent

record students can go back to for reference or further revision and can be produced as a slower pace which allows students to plan, monitor their production while displaying various attentional resources. In addition, she notes that as a result of written feedback (i.e: reformulation) and its permanence, writing can help students better notice the gap in their knowledge and eventually restructure it. Another advantage discussed is how writing promotes the creation of new explicit and implicit L2 knowledge in part because writing would allow learners' greater focus on form (which may increase when writing tasks are done collaboratively, she poses) (Williams, 2012). Finally, in regards to the writing-to-learn content dimension, activities of this type have been defined as those that "help students think critically about information" (Craig, 2013, p.21). Hirvela (2011) shows several studies researching the impact of writing in learning. Although inconclusive, he argues that they seem to suggest that with sufficient support from writing and content area instructors, students are more likely to reap the benefits of writing for their learning in various domains (i.e: reading skills, vocabulary gains, a better understanding of, and an evaluation and analysis of content knowledge, among others) (Hirvela, 2011). Despite being presented separately, Manchón (2009) underscores the interrelated nature of the three approaches as they can converge in a single writing course with more traces of one or the other (as it is the case with the writing courses' observed).

Overview of approaches for teaching L2 writing

"Second language writing research offers no universal solutions to the challenges of classroom practice, and implies no single method of teaching writing. There has probably never been a time when teachers have focused exclusively on just one of these elements of writing and blended approaches are common as a result of the diversity of teaching contexts and teacher beliefs." (Hyland, 2009, p.78).

Although the quote above shows there is no single effective method to teach L2 writing and that it is context and teacher dependent, there are many available. In SLW the answers to the question of how should L2 writing be taught have been influenced by the composition theory in L1 writing that was popular at different points in time, each of which has found its way to classroom practices and teachers beliefs through formal teacher education. Some of the most influential L1 (and subsequently L2) approaches to writing instruction have been the product-oriented, process-oriented and more recently genre-based instruction. Although there are some minor differences among genre approaches subtypes, the term “genre” can be generally defined as “ways in which people ‘get things done’ through their use of language in particular contexts...according to the aim and purpose of the genre and the relationship between the writer and the audience” (Johns et al., 2006. p.235) so that it meets the expectations of the text’s context (Johns et al., 2006). In other words, genres have specific functions within the context or their use whose effectiveness will be judged in terms of how it meets a particular audience and the purpose of the genre itself both in terms of the use of certain lexico-grammatical and rhetorical, discursive features.

At the core of the latter is the idea that writing as a socio cultural activity in which a person writes to become a member of a particular discourse community—in this case a US academic setting. With this consideration in mind Weigle (2014) argues that “good writing” is possible as long as it is more than helping the learners improve their language proficiency and composing strategies; rather, writing should consider “the broader context where the writing will be used” (Weigle, 2014, p.223). In addition to that, a well-designed course, she says, considers the students’ background and needs, has students turn in multiple drafts revised by following feedback, connects reading and writing as a way to promote academic literacy, and teaches students to appropriately incorporate sources into their writing. At a more local, daily class level,

she suggests learning outcomes with “observable behaviors” that are aligned with assessment criteria, and authentic academic tasks (write summaries, annotated bibliographies, for example). Some further recommendations for a lesson sequence are five phases (as stated by Ferris and Hedgcock (2014) but cited by Weigle (2014)): “activation of prior learning, preview/warm-up, lesson core (instructions, procedure, and participation), closure, and follow-up reflection” (Weigle, 2014, p.230)

A similar tendency towards a genre-based pedagogy is shown by the set of “Guiding Principles [for] Sound Writing Instruction” proposed by the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) (for detailed description of the each writing approach see Matsuda et al., 2006; Raimes, 1991) which responds to the distinct nature and needs of the L2 writer described at the beginning of this section. These principles (CCCC, 2015) are the following:

1. emphasis on the rhetorical nature of writing;
2. consideration of the needs of real audiences;
3. recognition of writing as a social act;
4. enabling students to analyze and practice with a variety of genres;
5. recognition of writing processes as iterative and complex;
6. need for frequent, timely, and context-specific feedback from an experienced postsecondary instructor;
7. emphasis on relationships between writing and technologies; and
8. support of learning, engagement, and critical thinking in courses’ across the curriculum.

Except for principle 7, the rest of the principles are aligned with genre-pedagogy by understanding writing as being able to analyze a real audience’s expectations and subsequently

communicate effectively by meeting those expectations (CCCC, 2015). (For a more detailed explanation of each principle see CCCC's (2015) "Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing"). While these have carried over to second language instruction with a number of current adherents (see Hyland, 2007, Johns et al., 2006) its supporters acknowledge the fact that as the list above shows, it is unlikely that this single approach will be effective on its own; rather, a genre approach can greater benefit learning when implemented in conjunction with features of the process approach such as the discussion of metacognitive strategies, peer feedback, and revision. Regardless of the approach "in fashion," there is agreement than none by itself will result in an effective writing instruction (Santos, 2001) and that "as practitioners of SLW – teachers and researchers – must not bow to any particular (imposed) theory. Rather, we should make our theories our own." (Keh, 2011, p.240). Still, genre instruction studies supporting its learning effectiveness abound (see Tardy, 2006 for a review).

Overall, there are three main branches of genre-pedagogy: the Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), The New Rhetoric, and The Brazilian didactic approach. Given the relevance for the characterization of the type of courses' observed in this project, a brief description will be made of English for Academic Purposes (from now referred to as EAP) whose principles overlap with ESP (for a more thorough description and analysis of genre approaches, see Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). In particular an EAP writing approach "must enable students to become readers and writers of the genres and text types associated with the discourses" (Hedgcock, 2005, p.5) or in the words of Ferris and Hedgcock (2014), it enables them to become participants in an established community of practice. In order to achieve this, teachers have a facilitating role in raising awareness of a specific genre; they do so by "familiariz[ing] students with the...uses of written language"

(Ferris and Hedgcock, 2014, p.109) for which illustrating with relevant, authentic writing samples is needed. Such task is carried out by genre analysis tasks, which in the case of EAP would be drawing attention to a text's rhetorical, linguistic and lexical features in a way similar to that of Feez's (1998) teaching-learning cycle (described in the first section of the paper), with the learners' role being to discover rather than imitating (for practical suggestions on how to design genre-based ESP/EAP tasks, see Ferris and Hedgcock, 2014).

The application of a genre-pedagogy to EAP writing instruction is exemplified by a recent study on modeling strategies by Wette (2014). Although it has been briefly discussed at the beginning of the chapter, it is important to highlight other aspects of her study that are relevant to this section. Unlike many of the researchers cited so far, her study stands out as an almost single example of a genre approach to SLW in actual practice. Based on the theoretical underpinnings of text modeling (despite its minor terminological variation and implementation, the practices she observed—use of models and modelling—could still be considered as adhering to a genre approach), she examined the classroom practices of a group of 7 SLW teachers in Australian EAP courses' for 4 weeks.

Whereas this study does not provide a definitive answer about how writing should be taught in every context, it does show the genre principles in action which seem to be most appropriate to the needs of a particular set of students—pre-university ones seeking admission to universities and who need to familiarize and practice with the literacy writing skills to succeed in a postsecondary educational setting. For instance, some of the curricular goals of these non-disciplinary courses' were “understanding and learning how to write academic essays using sources..., [and] analysis and production of particular text types (e.g. cause and effect, process, problem-solution, explanation.)” (Wette, 2014, p.63). By following the text modeling strategies

described in the study, learners are exposed to a guided sequence of steps that enable them to become familiar with a text type; familiar not just in terms of linguistic and lexical features, but also the rhetorical ones as determined by an awareness of the potential audience and its expectations. In turn, this exposure and practice prepares them to what they are more likely to encounter once they take their university level core courses' so that they can become members of the academic discourses'.

From this example then, it follows that a tentative answer to at least some of the main questions of this section—how L2 writing should be taught and what learning to write in an L2 means—are context-dependent; that is, these vary according to learners' needs, which hopefully are addressed sufficiently by the curricular goals of their SLW course. While the EAP courses' in this project differ from the former in that they are university level ones, they are alike in the sense that, as expressed by former ESL writing instructor, Dr. Numa Markee, “by mirror[ing] the kinds of academic tasks...that students will be faced with in their own subject-specific courses” (UIUC ESL Writing Home) the ESL Writing courses' examined in this project aim to familiarize international students with English academic writing conventions and expectations “in order to function successfully in the academic environment” (UIUC ESL Writing Home). In sum, by this definition learning to write in the L2 will be judged by how it allows students to succeed academically in an English-speaking academic setting in that it conforms to the academic norms and expectations of that community. As for how to reach that goal, to date it seems a genre-based EAP course is the most suitable to meet these learners' needs.

To respond to the growing number of second language writers in US universities, in 2001 the CCCC created a specific statement on second language writing and writers, which has been recently reaffirmed in 2014. While its full description is beyond the scope of this thesis, suffice it

to say that it establishes the main standards for universities so that they properly meet the needs of the L2 writers' population. These standards range from college level support to lesson design and other out of class considerations. Some of the most relevant to this project are the following:

- assignments should have clear instructions and if possible an assessment rubric
- teachers should evaluate students' texts considering various criteria, but with a greater focus on the text's rhetorical effectiveness
- students should be given the opportunity to write in a variety of genres
- students' writing should be evaluated at different stages rather than a single time
- students may need more teacher-student conference time. During this time, if not already given in written form, teachers should focus on the global aspects such as rhetorical effectiveness that has been successfully accomplished by students and then discuss 2 or 3 local (stylistic) issues for the student to work on for the rest of the course ("CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers," 2014).

Since these guidelines have been put forth by specialists in the field of second language writing who are also experienced teachers of ESL writers, they are a reliable source when assessing the quality of a writing program and its instructor's practices. While they are certainly not universal guidelines, they offer a glimpse at what are specific features to consider when teaching L2 writing in a US university. Whether it is a mainstream or ESL writing course, following these guidelines will ensure the program, its courses' and instructors meet the needs of second language writers and thus help them to succeed academically in a US college setting.

ESL writing teachers' beliefs about second language writing instruction

Over the years, second language studies interests have slowly shifted from actual instructional practices to what lies behind them. It is generally acknowledged, both from general

and specific language learning education that there is a range of different factors that can determine a teacher's pedagogical choices in the classroom. For example, teachers' previous type of teaching and learning experiences, other factors such as formal teaching education, subject knowledge, or contextual factors (class size, institutional constraints) can all impact their pedagogical choices. The following section will briefly discuss some of these findings highlighting the commonalities across areas (general education, second language learning and second language writing instruction) and then discuss relevant findings pertaining to second language writing instruction.

Studies on teacher cognition and its origins

Because this project's interests lie in several of the factors outlined at the end of the previous section, unless singled out, all of them will be referred to under the term "teacher cognition" as described by Borg (2003a). Recognizing the terminological variation of the term in the field of general education as well as language learning, he describes a model in which teacher cognition encompasses "the beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions and perspectives," (p.82) which are in turn influenced by "schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors and classroom practice including practice teaching" (Borg, 2003a, p.82). He also points out a distinct focus of teacher cognition studies depending on the research tradition: on instructional "decision-making" or the "personal practical knowledge" perspective (Borg, 2003a, p.93). For this project, the approach to cognition will be in relation to its impact on instructional decision-making (which will be also referred to as "pedagogical choices").

Across areas, there seems to be a consensus on the idea that the primary source of teachers' beliefs about what teaching and learning mean is their own experiences as students,

regardless of the subject matter. Borrowing the term “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975) from general education, it means that former teachers influence the conceptions of what good or bad teaching mean for current teachers. Similarly, in the field of language learning, from his review of 64 studies on teacher cognition, Borg (2003a) concludes that previous learning experiences are quite significant, even more so than the impact of formal education. As for second language writing instruction, teachers own experiences as students of L2 writing have also been found to partly influence their current teaching (Xiao, 2014). Other studies showed that former school and learning experiences can go as far as to determine attitudes toward general teaching or the teaching of a particular subject. A study by Street (2003) on preservice teachers’ attitudes about L1 writing and its teaching showed that participating teachers’ biographical experiences in school could have direct, negative or positive consequences in their teaching. The case studies presented showed that, if those experiences were negative, some teachers may not be willing to improve their teaching practices. Nevertheless, the cases also showed that negative experiences can bring about teachers’ desire to try practices that were different from what they were exposed to so that their students would not have to go through the same negative experiences they had had as students.

Similar cases have been reported in second language writing instruction. Casanave (2004) emphasizes the role of literacy autobiographies or teachers’ own learning experience learning to write in the L2 as impinging on current practices. On a similar light, Tsui (1996) describes how her subject’s idea of what L2 writing was and how it should be thought had been determined by her own learning experience as an L2 writer in Hong Kong. There, L2 writing instruction was product-oriented and feedback was only given on mechanical errors. Thanks to formal education in L2 writing, and being an L2 writer herself who had experienced the frustrations and anxiety

caused by that type of instruction, she wanted to avoid causing to her students; thus, she incorporated activities derived from the process approach with positive results for her students. They had a more positive attitude toward the writing class and some of the lower proficiency students improved their fluency in writing.

An additional source of teachers' beliefs comes from teachers' own sense of self-confidence in their teaching abilities and in the mastery of the subject matter. Street (2003) study of L1 writing preservice teachers reported that self-confidence is a key competence for writing teachers (which he supports by findings by Bratcher & Stroble, 1994). Similarly, in the field of L2 writing, Winer's, (1992) study of new ESL writing teachers concluded that their choice of practices is not solely determined by issues such as not having received little and prescriptive feedback or negative criticism from their former L2 writing teachers, but also depend on their insecurities as English writers (in the case of non-native English teachers). The issue of writing teachers' self-confidence and perception as writers had also been studied by Xiao (2014) and Yigitoglu (2011). The former showed that participants' practices were partly determined by their own self-perceptions as language learners and teachers. On the other hand, Yigitoglu (2011) investigated 5 native and non-native English-speaking ESL writing teachers' self-perceptions and experiences as language learners and L1 and L2 writers and the impact of these on their instruction. She concluded that regardless of the language learned, those teachers who had been through that process were more empathetic towards their students' difficulties with English writing and that they tended to share strategies that had been useful for them as well.

However, interestingly, teachers' experiences were found to be less beneficial in helping students when their students' learning needs, styles and motivation differed from those of the teacher as a language learner (similar findings are reported by Casanave, 2004); second, she

found that for both native and non-native teachers, what influenced their beliefs about the teaching and learning of L2 writing was how advanced a writer they thought of themselves in English, either as an L1 or L2. In the case of NES teachers who had some written proficiency in a second language, this seemed to have no impact in their ESL instruction, whereas for NNES teachers it had a much greater impact because English was the language they were teaching. Then, how proficient they were in writing it affected their instruction. Third, she concluded that all five teachers' instructional practices (e.g: choice of materials, type of written feedback) were influenced by their own perceptions as writers and that the extent of their metacognitive knowledge of the genre they had to teach enhanced their instruction and had even a greater impact on it than their overall writing experiences. In a more recent study, Yigitoglu and Belcher (2014) multiple case study with a rich source of data extended that line of inquiry and found similar results. After investigating the influences of two participants' literacy learning and their self-perceptions as L1 and L2 writers, their findings confirmed these influences and showed that vast L1 writing experience in the language of instruction made one of the participants share her challenges and strategies with students and try feedback practices she would have like as a student. On the other hand, the other participant's mother tongue was other than English and had very little instruction in her L1 writing (and therefore L1 writing was not a source of influence). Even though later learning of English academic writing helped increase her confidence and teaching tools, she still did not feel as confident teaching genres she was more unfamiliar with.

Additional sources of teacher cognition in language learning literature that are relevant for this project have been documented by Borg (2003a). According to this author, some consistent findings are that beliefs (and by extension, practices) evolve over time and can be influenced by a teacher's previous language learning experiences (Borg, 2003a), language

background (Ellis, 2004) formal education in teaching a second or foreign language (Busch, 2010), established sources of knowledge such as textbooks and other teaching resources available for teachers in their teaching contexts (Buehl & Fives, 2009), and peer observation, collaboration, and self-reflection (Buehl & Fives, 2009). Though he suggests that previous learning experiences have a greater impact than formal education; Busch (2010) argues for a greater impact of formal education when teaching programs address the beliefs on teaching and learning previously held by their students and supplement these with solid formal instruction.

The role of formal teaching instruction in teacher cognition

Although the aforementioned studies across areas emphasize the role of teachers' own learning experiences, there is agreement on the idea that formal teaching instruction also plays a pivotal role in shaping teachers' cognition (specifically beliefs about teaching and learning). It follows then that any attempt to begin to understand teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning should result, at least in part from the influence of current theories of teaching and learning that they acquire through formal teaching education. Given that principles of teaching and learning in second language instruction and particularly of second language writing tend to draw on the theories of general education, the next section will present a brief overview of the most influential theories about teaching and learning that pre-service teachers are currently exposed to in their formal teaching education.

Current teaching and learning theories in general education

In the general US educational literature there is wide agreement in that there has been a shift from the so-called automatic didactic teaching (involving rote learning and passivity, facts and low-level cognitive functions) towards a constructivist approach. As part of the later, a teacher is no longer one that conveys information, but it is required to have a deep subject matter

competence to be able to teach it as well as pedagogical knowledge displayed in different areas of a lesson (for example: having lesson objectives, good classroom management, various effective activities, proper monitoring and assessment of progress, among others, including sensitive use of didactic teaching if deemed appropriate for the class objectives) (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988). According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988) effective teaching results from the careful application of three types of teaching, as they promote three different types of learning. These are the didactic, coaching and Socratic teaching respectively. The first one promotes the acquisition of knowledge, the second one the habits of intellectual skills, and the third one understanding through questioning in discussion. A general teaching theoretical framework that is compatible with those teaching types is a Vygotskian approach. The following is a brief description of the approach whose guiding principles would be considered for articulating a set of characteristics of effective teaching together with other sources for educational research.

ZPD and assisted performance. Having internalization as the goal, under a Vygotskian approach, teaching equals assisted performance through the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). The term refers to “the distance between the actual development level as determined by individual problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem-solving through adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, p.30). According to these authors, effective teaching occurs when the assistance is in fact needed for problem-solving or performance and when it does not greatly exceed the developmental level of the learners. The process that unfolds after that has been conceptualized into four stages ranging from the early to late stages of learning itself until “automatic” performance is achieved: assistance from a more capable other, performance by the learners themselves, automatized performance (no assistance

needed), and de-automatization of performance. It is with the help of a more capable other (a teacher or peer) that students are able to learn, which cognitively occurs by their reorganizing and reconstructing of the knowledge and skills they are being assisted with. In this sense, learning has both a cognitive and a social side that converge as a result of collaboration between teacher and students or the students and their more capable peers. As for how to provide that assistance, these are “modeling, contingency management, feeding back, instructing, questioning, and cognitive structuring” (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, p. 47). They will be briefly defined as they transcend the field of general education towards second language writing instruction; in addition, we will come back to them in the findings for a discussion of the extent to which the set of participating teachers provide those different types of assistance and the role they have in their ESL writing classes.

1. *Modeling*: this term has been discussed earlier in the chapter and entail not just a behavior to be imitated, but rather, the “central processing” (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988, p. 48) of that behavior in the form of images, verbal descriptions, and other representations that learners can refer to individually to guide their later performance/
2. *Contingency management*: refers to giving praise or “reprimand” after performance.
3. *Feeding back*: its purpose is to let the learners know about the quality of their performances in relation to a standard. This can be given orally, in written form and at various instances of performance.
4. *Instructing*: this is teacher-initiated and it differs from the next two categories in that it tells learners to do a certain action (or in pedagogical terms, a task)
5. *Questioning*: as the name suggests it consists of questions whose responses and subsequent questions are meant to scaffold the learner so that the performance is reached.

6. *Cognitive structuring*: the teacher provides a structure or integrates individual components for the learners to see how each contributes to a structure as a whole (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988).

It follows then that with a constructivist approach the role of teacher is that of facilitator while the learners are those receiving assistance. However, as shown earlier, learners are not passive, but build their knowledge and skills (or reach a certain performance) as a dual process: individual, internal and collaborative, external. Thus, under this approach teaching is said to be learner-centered. In line with this approach and its teacher and learner roles, the following are examples of how they have permeated into the teaching of writing (L1 and L2) through formal education.

From L1 writing, Grossman et al.'s (2000) longitudinal study of 10 recently graduated writing teachers found that although their teaching had evolved due to contextual factors, the theoretical support obtained through formal education often permeated their pedagogical decisions; in other words: “teacher education most definitely provided these teachers with a set of conceptual tools for teaching writing, including the importance of ownership, the concepts of instructional scaffolding and writers' workshop, and a process orientation to writing” (p.651). Indeed, this definition highlights that learning of writing entails a central role of the learner and the discovery of his or her own voice, which is possible as long as the teacher promotes an exploratory and collaborative approach to tasks (process writing) and facilitates it by assisting learners (scaffolding). In a similar manner, but in L2 writing, the subject referred to earlier in Tsui's (1996) study demonstrated that formal education has the power to trigger changes in teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning and ultimately, their pedagogical choices: “[s]he used to think that writing was mastering of technical skills. Now, however, she feels very

strongly that writing is a creative activity and that it is inextricably linked with thinking” (p.116). As for her subject’s idea of the teaching of writing, she adds that “she used to think that as long as she was well prepared, she will be able to teach successfully...[but] she became more and more aware of the fact that success depended on efforts of both parts” (Tsui, 1996, p.116). Lee’s (2010) qualitative study of 4 EFL teachers in Hong Kong also gives evidence that writing teacher education can change both teachers’ principles and practices as they familiarize with second language writing theory as well as their identity as teachers. For instance, some teachers reported that they had learnt about giving better feedback or the benefits of peer-feedback, which they had not heard or tried before. After the instruction received, they were more comfortable with these and were much more critical of their practices, among other gains.

Evolution of teachers’ beliefs: the influence of teaching contexts and reflective teaching in pedagogical practices and vice versa

Consistent findings exist in general education literature as well as second language and second language instruction literature that teachers’ cognitions (i.e: principles, attitudes and beliefs) about teaching and learning evolve over time (for L1 writing instruction see Street (2003); for second language studies see Borg (2003a) and Breen et al. (2001); for second language writing see Xiao (2014) or Yigitoglu (2011)). A review of the relevant literature seems to indicate that one of the most influential triggers of changes in teacher cognition besides formal education is actual teaching experiences. While formal teaching education can provide useful classroom strategies or “a vision of ideal practice” (Lee, 2010, p.12), it is through these experiences—in context—that teachers have the opportunity to test the conceptual tools learned during their formal education; as revealed in the literature, it often seems to be the case that teaching contexts challenge the feasibility of implementing the teaching and learning principles

adhered to in formal education. From the area of L1 instruction, Grossman et al (2000) argue that it was only after a year of actual teaching that him and his team as well as the participating teachers themselves starting making changes into their practices. Albeit initially new teachers had followed a specific teaching method promoted by the school they taught at, poor students' learning motivated them to adapt their practices so that it aligned with their beliefs about how writing should be taught and learned. In this case, their formal teaching education provided them with the basics to become more flexible and open to develop their own method of teaching and class materials; it also provided them with the tools to recognize the conflict between their writing teaching beliefs and those imposed by the school materials as well as tools to come up with innovations to solve the problems they perceived in students' learning (Grossman et al., 2000).

In some less successful cases, contextual constraints can result in a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their practices. From the area of second language writing instruction, Pennington et al.'s (1997) study of 31 ESL and EFL writing teachers' beliefs found that, especially those in EFL contexts, many teachers recognized a gap between their beliefs about teaching and the teaching of writing and how they tended to put them into practice in the classroom as a result of context constraints (large-classes, heavy workloads, among others). Similar findings have been recently reported by Ruecker, Shapiro, Johnson, and Tardy (2014) and Xiao (2014). In his study, Xiao (2014) discusses the case of a participating teacher who despite adhering to the principles of a student-centered classroom, could not put it into practice due to having very large classes and had to resort to a teacher-fronted classroom. It was only after she returned to teach in the U.S, where class sizes were smaller and where she was expected to have a more student-centered class that she was able to apply her former teaching principles;

however, this also required her to adjust her previous practices to the new teaching context. Cases such as this one serve to emphasize the idea that decision making in the second language writing class is to a great extent determined by what Casanave (2004) calls “the practical realities of local teaching and learning settings” (p.18) or “structural and systemic constraints” (Casanave, 2004, p.19) such as institutional policies, instructional materials, classroom management issues, among others. Another rich source for ESL writing teachers’ principles and how they have evolved over time as a result of their extensive teaching experience is found in Blanton et al. (2002). In it, prominent researchers—but also current academic writing teachers—share their professional autobiographies offering a glimpse of their careers as well as their constant challenges when teaching. Some of the commonalities across teachers show that they are very passionate about their profession and that although formal training was helpful, overtime they have developed their own teaching beliefs and strategies. Most importantly, they agree that instead of being contented with teaching in a certain manner, they are open to changes and consider staying up to date in second language writing research as well as constant reflection of the utmost importance to their profession.

Though the studies discussed so far have shown influences on individual teachers’ set of beliefs, other researchers have found what they call a “collective pedagogy.” In particular, Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001) found that even though in a group of 18 experienced teachers working in the same teaching context each teacher had a set of preferred practices that differed from their colleagues, they shared a set of principles. Those findings are echoed by Xiao (2014) and his group of participating teachers; some of them shared certain beliefs and practices, but they also had their own preferences. Nonetheless, Shi and Cumming (1995) have found opposite results. Although their subjects had similar formal second language writing instruction

and rather similar teaching experiences, each of them conceptualized their teaching based on “very different knowledge frameworks and intentions” (p.105).

Specifically, Shi and Cumming (1995) found that although their five participating teachers demonstrated a shared teaching and content knowledge of second language writing topics, their conceptualization of L2 writing instruction differed because they prioritized different areas of writing instruction. In turn, these resulted in varying practices. For example, one of the teachers believed that rhetorical organization was key to English writing, so as opposed to her colleagues most of her activities focused on helping students with their organization using activities for them to practice outlining, thesis statements, topic sentences and paragraph development, all of which she felt “they really understood” (Shi and Cumming, 1995, p.98).

The importance of reflective teaching

Despite the different foci and methodologies, if there is one idea common to most if not all of the studies reviewed across areas of inquiry is that of the role of reflective teaching in the evolution of teaching and learning beliefs with its subsequent positive influence in teaching practices. In most teacher cases presented across education fields, no matter the source of the beliefs, or the contextual constraints against them (if any) the fact that these teachers have started to question their beliefs and to look retrospectively toward their teaching practices signals their application of the widely-favored practice of reflective teaching.

For decades now there has been agreement on the idea that delivering content and “following recipes” by constantly following a single, decontextualized teaching method to the letter is an outdated notion which has changed to a more active role of the teacher as self-reflective (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Kroll, 2001; Murphy & Byrd,

2001). In line with general education and L1 writing studies (see Grossman et al., 2000), there have been a number of ESL and EFL studies demonstrating and highlighting the benefits of reflection for improving teaching practices. Farrell (2011) discusses the benefits of teacher observation and post-observation conferences for a novice teacher's improvement of his/her practice in a speaking class, particularly students' distribution of participation. This study shows how reflective practices—understood as an observation and reexamination of a specific teaching practice after it has occurred—can bring about positive changes for both teachers and students.

Similar improvement of teachers' practices and students' learning thanks to teacher reflection has been reported in the field of second language writing. Fatemi, Shirvan, and Rezvani's (2011) evaluation of the benefits of reflective teaching for second language writing improvement (as measured by students' pre and post- writing test scores and their correlation with reflective teaching questionnaires and interview scores) showed not only that there was a significant correlation between teachers' reflection and students' scores, but also that the more highly reflective the teacher, the higher were his or her students' writing achievement. Despite the encouraging findings and the study's asserted reliability, it would have been helpful to see what the instrument's questions were and if the teachers' assertion correlated with their actual practices (through classroom observation or other documents besides interviews).

These examples show that in the words of Farrell (2008), thanks to reflection, teachers “subject their beliefs and classroom practices to some form of critical analysis so that they can become more aware of what they do and why they do it” and a result bring to the surface previously unseen aspects of their teaching. In turn, teachers' findings can motivate them to look for solutions they are willing to try in order to solve aspects needing revision, while for students' the implemented change, when successful, can result in a better achievement of learning

outcomes. With a slightly different definition of reflective practice, Kroll (2001) points out that ESL writing teachers can best serve their students not just by “understanding methods,” but being reflective in terms of being aware of the beliefs of teaching and learning they bring to the classroom.

Brief overview of the features of effective teachers

To be able to assert the teaching effectiveness of the participating teachers in this study, this section will draw on general education, language and second language writing instruction (which has been partially discussed previously in this chapter) to provide an overview of how teaching effectiveness is defined and what are consistent characteristics of effective teachers, across areas. In so doing, the concept of effective teaching will attempt to be more objectively defined (based on discrepancy judgment evaluation as defined by Peterson, 2000) while at the same time, when indicated, it will include more subjective components (comparable to Peterson’s (2000) emergent model of evaluation) to be able to account for features of qualities of teaching that are particular to the set of participating teachers in this specific educational context.

Acknowledging the complexity of teaching itself, Ko and Sammons (2013) suggest a narrow and a broad concept of teaching effectiveness. The former refers to the extent teachers’ classroom decisions foster students achievement of learning outcomes as outlined in the curriculum goals (also adhered to by Nilson, 2010); the latter refers to teachers’ behavior outside the classroom in that it includes their collaboration with fellow teachers, searching for professional development and engaging in teaching reflection. Another, more subjective definition is that of Bain (2014). With a slightly different view that transcends course objectives, he claims that best teaching means succeeding in “helping their students learn in ways that ma[k]e a sustained, substantial, and positive influence on how those students think, act, and feel”

(p.5). Under this view learning is defined based on more than objective measures of the achievement of learning outcomes (e.g: test performance), but rather on a more holistic, long lasting impact on students (e.g: “stimulat[ion of] their students interest in the subject” (Bain, 2014, p.13)). From the area of second language instruction, a similar criticism has been done by Cumming 1998b; Cumming, 2001, Cumming & Riazi, 2000 who assert that students’ gains from L2 writing instruction go beyond the sole improvement of writing supposedly accounted for via pre and post performance tests. The section below will provide an encompassing view of effective teaching since it will have elements pertaining to the three aforementioned conceptualizations.

Research on effective teaching

An analysis of the literature on effective teaching shows that although there are extensive lists of elements to describe good teaching, none of them is exhaustive as some elements that better meet student needs and learning outcomes in one subject and setting can prove ineffective in others (Peterson, 2000) and also due to the complex multidimensionality of the profession (Feldman, 2007). Similarly, Porter and Brophy (1988) and more recently Walls, Nardi, von Midden & Hoffman (2002) as well as Ermeling, Hiebert and Gallimore (2015) have argued that rather than displaying a definite set of static characteristics, effective teaching occurs when teachers are able to find and apply the characteristics that are the most suitable for their teaching goals to meet student needs.

That said, the literature still shows a consistent set of characteristics that have been found to be common across disciplines and student age groups. To add to the complexity of the issue, results come from studies based on a variety of stakeholders such as administrators, faculty members, student ratings and comments, trained observers, and even instructor self-ratings (for a

more in depth discussion of the validity and reliability of these groups views, especially student ratings see Benton & Cashin, 2012; Feldman, 2007; Ko & Simmons, 2010; Petersen, 2000). An important caveat made by researchers is that although evidence exists of the correlation between teaching effectiveness features and student achievement gains, these cannot be solely attributed to the teacher since independent student variables such as motivation and aptitude can account for part of students' learning outcomes; in addition, student achievement previous to taking a class with a particular teacher has been found to account for even 60% of the students' achievement in that class as measured by their exam scores (Petersen, 2000). That said, Table 1 synthesizes the characteristics of effective teaching found in educational literature according to their corresponding teaching aspect. The left column shows (most of) the dimensions identified by Feldman's (2007) meta-analysis of teaching effectiveness studies, and the one on the right shows the findings of Porter and Brophy's (1988) meta-analysis as well as their own study findings, which are a more concrete version of Feldman's (2007) although they do not match entirely.

Table 1

Characteristics of effective teaching (comparison between Feldman's (2007) and Porter and Brophy (1988))

Feldman (2007, p.112)	Porter and Brophy (1988, p.75)
1. Teacher's preparation and course organization (6)	1. are clear about instructional goals (2,8)
2. Clarity and understandableness (also in Benton & Cashin, 2012) (2)	2. are knowledgeable about curriculum content and the strategies for teaching it (4,9)
3. Perceived outcome or impact of instruction (3)	3. communicate to their students what is expected of them – and why (8)
4. Teacher's stimulation of interest in the course and in the subject matter (1)	4. make expert use of existing instructional materials in order to devote more time to practices (5,10)
5. Teacher's encouragement of questions and discussion and openness to opinions (also in Benton & Cashin, 2012) (11)	5. that enrich and clarify the content
6. Teacher's availability and helpfulness (16)	6. are knowledgeable about their students, adapting instruction to their needs and

Table 1 Continued

Feldman (2007, p.112)	Porter and Brophy (1988, p.75)
7. Teacher's elocutionary skills (10)	anticipating misconceptions in their existing knowledge (10, 11)
8. Clarity of course objectives and requirements (7)	7. teach students meta-cognitive strategies and give them opportunities to master them (10)
9. Teacher's knowledge of the subject (9)	8. address higher- as well as lower-level cognitive objectives
10. Fostering intellectual challenge (4)	9. monitor students' understanding by offering regular appropriate feedback (12)
11. Teacher's concern and respect for students, teacher's friendliness (also in Benton & Cashin, 2012) (12)	10. integrate their instruction with that in other subject areas (3)
12. Nature, quality and frequency of teacher feedback (17)	11. accept responsibility for student outcomes (11)
	12. are thoughtful and reflective about their practice

Note: For Feldman (2007) although there are originally 28 dimensions that are most highly associated with student achievement only almost half of them are presented here for being the most relevant to this project and due to space constraints (for a complete list and analysis see Feldman, 2007). In Porter and Brophy's column, the dimensions have been arranged from high to low correlation. In addition, they do not always match the students' evaluations of overall teaching effectiveness. Student rating order is indicated by the number in parenthesis (missing numbers will be discussed later).

Further research on teaching effectiveness has been done considering the views of teachers themselves on the basis of their former experience as students. Walls et al's (2002) qualitative study of 90 teachers of different range of experience showed that among the 5 themes that emerged as a description of effective teachers, the emotional environment was the most frequent and it referred to "caring about students...being warm [and] friendly" (p.45). The other themes include characteristics similar to those reported by Feldman (2007) and Porter and Brophy (1988), which are organized, prepared and clear; enthusiastic about teaching; promoters of "authentic learning, interactive questioning and discussion" (p.46) in addition to motivating students to do their best while grading fairly on their part (Walls et al., 2002).

Harbour, Evanovich, Sweigart, & Hughes (2015) took teaching effectiveness further and proposed specific teaching behaviors to increase student engagement, as the evidence they

collected suggests that student engagement is one of the strongest predictors of achievement. Those behaviors are “modeling, opportunities to respond (OTR) and feedback” (p.6) In modeling, teachers show what students are expected to do, they think aloud eliciting student participation, and show examples to facilitate understanding; OTR relates to eliciting different answers from students in various formats; as for feedback they report both negative and positive types are needed, but that the latter should be preferred. It should also be specific and given often to have similarly positive effects on student achievement.

Research on effective general language teaching

A look into the second language teaching literature shows that there have been many attempts to describe the characteristics of a good (and bad) language teacher. Given that it is such a broad area, this review will provide only broad information on key findings. Before discussing these features, some characterization of the special nature of second language instruction as opposed to other subjects needs to be made. Borg (2006) investigated the distinctiveness between foreign language teaching and teachers in contrast to a number of other subjects (i.e: Math and History and two others). Besides his study findings he suggests from the outset that this distinctiveness arises from students being taught through a medium (the L2) that they have not comprehended, the need for group work and other interaction patterns, the need to continuously expand their knowledge of the language. As for his study, it showed that although language teaching had much in common with other subject areas, it was distinctive in at least 11 theme areas. Some of the most commonly mentioned were: the dynamic and real-life application of the subject; the teaching of more than core content to include “culture, communication and learning skills” (p.24); the need for more varied methodologies; the need to communicate with learners in a language other than their mother tongue; a closer teacher-student relationships; the

value of “creativity, flexibility and enthusiasm” (p.24). On a final note, he cautions against generalizing from findings and asserts that such distinctiveness may differ in other contexts. Although Borg (2006) did not specify if these are in turn effective teaching features, it seems safe to assume that they are since they represent ideals of what teaching of a subject is for a broad range of teachers and also language learners in a particular setting. Farrell’s (2015) review of the literature highlights the multidimensionality of the concept of effective teaching and how difficult it is to define. Teaching effectiveness, he argues, has been approached to from two sides: one focused on the teacher behavior and student learning connection including how learning is facilitated and the other focused on the comparison of behaviors between novice and expert teachers (Farrell, 2015). Citing Richards (2014), and in parallel with Borg (2006) he points out that,

“[t]he way a person teaches, and his or her view of what good teaching is, will, therefore, reflect his or her cultural background and personal history, the context in which he or she is working and the kind of students in his or her class” (Richards, 2014, p.5).

Thus, it follows that any characterization of effective teaching is subject to variation according to a number of factors, even if some aspects are still found to be common across teachers in different contexts. While teachers do need disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge, Farrell (2015) argues, experience can give them more flexibility and ability to improvise in their teaching routines. Despite the importance of experience, in a previous study, Farrell (2013) readily cautions that teaching experience does not equal expertise (or effectiveness) as some experienced teachers may constantly resort to routines instead of a questioning and dynamic approach to their teaching practices. In that regard, he argues than more than relying on static knowledge, a key competency for 21st century teachers is:

“to be able to respond to every issue, dilemma and problem they face, thus moving beyond their initial craft skills and knowledge and be able to evaluate possible roads of action that take into account the needs of their students, their institution and their community” (Farrell, 2015, p.83).

For him, it is not just a matter of *being*, but also *remaining* effective, which leads him to propose the Reflective Practice Framework which entails five components: philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice (or socio-political and affective/moral issues. See Farrell, 2015 for details). Two years before that, the same researcher had published a study investigating the characteristics of three expert (or effective as he treats the terms as synonyms) teachers and elaborated the list in Figure 1. The figure shows the five characteristics of effective ESL teachers in order of frequency of occurrence in the qualitative data, from most to least (but still significant) frequent. As the figure illustrates, these teachers’ characteristics resonate with the distinctiveness described by Borg (2006) as well as Farrell’s (2015) competencies of 21st century language teachers (for more in-depth studies of components of teacher expertise see Tsui 2003, 2005, 2009).

Taxonomy of ESL teacher expertise.

Characteristic	Definition
Knowledge of Learners, Learning & Teaching (211)	Knowledge of institution policies and how to fit into instruction/sensitive to learner context/environment/sensitive to student diversity/group dynamics/student moods, motivation, learning styles, needs, interests & behaviors
Engage in Critical Reflection (133)	Critical examination & reflection of teaching, beliefs, values & practices
Access Prior Experiences (120)	Aware of self and other teachers/teaching repertoires and routines/past experiences and practices
Informed Lesson Planning (84)	Aware of bigger picture for planning/aware of instructional objectives to support lesson/can anticipate difficulties in lesson/detect failure of student comprehension during execution of lessons
Active Student Involvement (59)	‘socializing’: part of the profession/not enforced/enjoyed/aware of professional boundaries & teacher burnout

Figure 1. Taxonomy of ESL teacher expertise. This figure shows the 5 main themes identified by Farrell (2015, p.1074).

Similar efforts to systematize effective language teacher characteristics have been done by Walkinshaw and Duong (2012) who combined the findings from ESL and general education to create the Language Teacher Characteristic framework consisting of professional, personal, pedagogical, cultural, and linguistic characteristics. Finally, the characteristics in the framework are corroborated in Baley et al. (1996)'s findings from a group of teachers reflecting on their own language learning experiences. They found that among the positive features the most highly valued were personal ones such as showing care and respect, followed by having (and explicit) high expectations for learners, making efforts to keep learners motivated, showing students the usefulness of their learning, being creative and skilled in various areas, and modeling expected behaviors and attitudes systematically (Baley et al., 1996). In sum, their findings are quite similar to that of general education although as the previous studies reviewed in the language teaching section seem to suggest that personal characteristics such as teacher-student rapport and creativity are more significant and relevant to language teaching than in other subjects.

Research into students' perceptions and attitudes toward ESL teachers and to the ESL writing class and their own assessment of learning

Research on ESL students' perceptions or attitudes towards ESL teachers and other aspects of the ESL (general and writing) class

The characteristics of effective language teaching described in the previous section have arisen from studies whose participants were language teachers of different degrees of experience and expertise; however, in comparison to general education very seldom—if at all—have these effective teaching features being explored from the point of view of ESL students (a rare exception is Borg's (2006) inclusion of EFL students opinions' of their language teachers distinctiveness). In fact, a review of the literature on ESL students, be it of their perceptions,

attitudes towards the ESL class (instruction and teachers) shows that it is scarce, but quite diverse. ESL/EFL student perceptions have been investigated in regards to having native and non-native English speaking teachers (Kelch & Williamson, 2002; Liaw, 2012; Moussu, 2006; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012); in the area of second language writing student views (or also found as “perceptions” or “attitudes”) the foci is quite varied. Studies found focused on perceptions on college writing conferences (Liu, 2009); on computer-assisted writing classes (Ghandoura, 2006); on students’ own writing proficiency and peer-review training (Goldburg, 2012); on teachers’ written feedback (see Enginarlar, 1993). Particularly, Leki and Carson (1997) carried out surveys and student interviews to investigate the extent to which an EAP class writing tasks prepared students for writing assignments in their core, non-ESL courses’. Findings revealed that the class did not prepare them well as many of the tasks required students’ use of personal experiences, or using texts to support their own views rather than as sources to produce new knowledge (i.e: understand, analyze and synthesize sources) as they were asked to do in their other classes (Leki & Carson, 1997). More recently, the same author raises her concern that a review of the literature has still not considered L2 writers enough:

“I was struck by the fact that so many of these studies talked about the students but never gave evidence that researchers spent any time talking to the students, never asked them one on one what [the particular aspect of the L2 writing] meant to them.” (Leki, 2001, p.18).

Consequently, her article provides a brief overview of the few (5) studies that have in fact met that goal and then adds to that line of research with her own study. What those studies have in common is that they explored the difficulties students had in their L2 writing classes and how they dealt with those difficulties (see Leki, 2001 for more details). In an EFL context, Yayli

(2011) researched 6 students attitudes towards genre-based instruction over the course of two semesters. He found that although at the beginning there was some resistance on their part, over the course of the semester, having to write different genres and to include a written analysis of their lexical and rhetorical choices changed to a positive attitude by the end of the course. This type of instruction triggered their genre-awareness, fostered transferring across genres and even the course (Yayli, 2011). On a methodological note, his study includes several excerpts from students' views to support his findings, as opposed to other studies on the effects on instruction that have only considered students' scores. Similarly, Kongpetch (2006) classroom-research on the effects of genre-based teaching in students learning of exposition texts as well as their reactions to this form of instruction and particular stages of in the teaching-learning cycle. Data collected through informal discussions, students' diaries and their written assignments showed that they had found it helpful and that it had made their L2 writing better. Such views are supported by the researcher who analyzed and provided samples of student work as evidence of their improvement in both textual and rhetorical features. An additional relevant finding for this project was that, of the four stages of the teaching and learning cycle, students' perception of the most useful ones for their writing improvement (from the most to the least useful) was: independent construction, text modeling, building up the field knowledge, and joint-negotiation. These studies show that even though student views have been considered to account for their learning (or perceived writing improvement) there are some gaps: (1) with a few exceptions—as Kongpetch, 2006—student-focused studies rarely comment on whether or of how student views relate with their assessed writing performance or rarely do they provide and examine student written samples to support their claims; (2) often there is no connection made between what

specific teaching behavior or decision facilitated students learning; (3) there is rarely some indication of whether students have learned other skills besides writing-related ones.

Assessing student learning

Based on the definition of student learning as the achievement or mastery of a course objectives, general education and language teaching literature shed some light on how learning can be accounted for. From general education literature, there is evidence of the validity of students' self-reported ratings of learning. Benton, Duchon and Pallett (2013) researched this issue through investigating the correlation between students' perception of progress in two core and also less important course objectives, and their 5 course exam scores. Results showed that there was a positive correlation between their perceived progress in terms of the two core objectives and 4 out of 5 test scores and that the higher their self-rating in those, the higher their scores. In addition, no correlation was found between scores and less important objectives. While the researchers could support the validity of students' self-ratings, they acknowledge some of the limitations may have been that the results are based on only one course and teacher, problems in the exams reliability, and most importantly, that the learning outcomes selected as core were selected by the teacher (who also designed the exams) and they do not account for what the authors call "incidental learning beyond what is required by course objectives" (Benton et al., 2013, p. 385). Of additional relevance to this thesis is the authors' further evidence of the correlations between students' self-ratings of progress on the learning objectives and their ratings of the frequency of the teachers' emphasis on those through particular forms of instruction. What this correlation seems to suggest then is that student achievement is determined (even if not wholly) by teachers pedagogical choices, whether in teaching methods, specific class procedures, among other class-related decisions.

From the field of second language writing many researchers acknowledge the difficulty of accounting for actual learning of L2 writing (also synonymous to writing improvement) due to the complexity of the construct of writing itself which makes it hard to operationalize in adequate tasks (Cumming & Riazi, 2000); as a result, Cumming and Riazi (2000) argue against the simplicity of holistic rating in favor of a more “fine-grained” (Cumming & Riazi, 2000, p.60), analytic rating, which they apply in their research. In doing so, one of several of their study’s aim was to be able to correlate each of the traits in their scheme to indicators of student achievement. While the findings were not as informative as they expected, (they attributed it to being too ambitious), they claim to make an important contribution to the area (Cumming & Riazi, 2000). In parallel with the views in general education, in a former article, the same author suggests a wider view to attest for L2 writing improvement by complementing student scores on compositions with the self-evaluation of their learning. Nevertheless, he is aware of the fact that not all learners may benefit from that form of assessment (Cumming, 1995).

To conclude this section, one more study needs mentioning as it connects to how student learning is conceptualized in this project. Cumming (1995) investigated how a group of experienced ESL/EFL writing teachers conceptualized their teaching on the basis of the curriculum (specific or general purpose orientation as he calls them) and how this translated into their teaching practices. He found that in courses’ with a more general orientation, the types of assessment and achievement they recognized in their students transcended writing. In his view, these types of courses’ (which are similar to those in this project) “allow for a wide range of possible achievements among students, suitable to the complexity of second-language writing itself...which might be assessed in a variety of ways” (Cumming, 1995, p.83). Some of these as cited by him are “gains in expressive abilities and self-confidence...improvement in composing

processes...and [skills and the confidence] to socializ[e] into academic or societal contexts” (Cumming, 1995, p. 84). As the research questions of this project show, one of main aims is to explore the students’ reports on the impact their teachers’ pedagogical decisions have in their learning outcomes, not only in relation to L2 writing, but also other areas like those described by Cumming (1995).

CHAPTER 3—METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the instructional setting, participants, research design, data collection procedures, and the data analysis procedures as well. The description of each component will be complemented with the limitations from previous research in second language writing instructions this study addresses.

Instructional setting

As a response to the growing number of international students that come to pursue degrees at UIUC—55.5% between 2009 and 2015—the ESL Writing courses’ (part of other ESL service courses’) “provides students with the necessary academic literacy skills to succeed academically in their core courses” (UIUC ESL Writing Home). These courses’ serve undergraduate and graduate students of diverse areas and ages; according with the Curriculum Coordinator, Jin Kim, courses are “divided into an undergraduate sequence (ESL 111, 112 and 115) and a graduate sequence (ESL 500, 501, 502 and 503 (advanced electives), and ESL 505 (for business students)” (UIUC ESL Writing Home). For undergraduates, after obtaining at least a score of 80 on the TOEFL, they need to take the English Placement Test (EPT) and they may be required to take one or two of the courses’ in the sequence. On the other hand, any graduate who obtains from 79 to 102 points on the TOEFL iBT needs to take the EPT and will be placed either in ESL 500 or 501 as a requirement (UIUC ESL Writing Home). Each course lasts 15 weeks, classes have a maximum of 15 students, and sessions are held in computer laboratories either twice per week (80 minutes per class, Tuesday and Thursday) or three times per week (50 minutes per class, Mondays, Wednesday and Friday). Moreover, each course, whether undergraduate or graduate level is made up of 4 main modules aligned with curricular goals. At

the end of each module, students do a major written (or in specific cases, an oral/written) assignment.

ESL Writing courses’ student profile and the courses’ teaching philosophy

According to the ESL writing courses’ website, given their TOEFL scores students are likely to have an “adequate background in grammar” (UIUC ESL Writing Home) though they may not know how to communicate effectively in the language in an American academic setting (UIUC ESL Writing Home). The teaching approach is TBLT, so the courses’ curriculum and module objectives are designed to meet students’ needs through experiential learning and the use of authentic and relevant academic materials. In addition to this, all teaching staff (lecturers, new and more experienced TAs) are expected to be familiar with the teaching content and are encouraged to contribute with curricular innovation and problem-solving, regardless of their level of expertise (UIUC ESL Writing Home).

The ESL writing courses’ teaching staff

As shown in Figure 2, in fall 2015, the ESL Writing Service program staff consisted of an ESL Writing Director, ESL Writing Curriculum Coordinator, and an ESL Writing Teaching Director (all of them also teach ESL Writing courses’ every semester), 9 lecturers, 17 new TAs, and 11 returning TAs (with 2 or more semesters of ESL writing teaching experience). Although major curriculum innovations and administrative decisions are of a top-down nature, all lecturers and new and returning TAs are encouraged and sometimes required by their course leaders to contribute with curricular suggestions or modifications as part of their training in the program. In turn, if any teacher regardless of rank needs pedagogical assistance, they are advised to contact any of the directors or their course leaders.

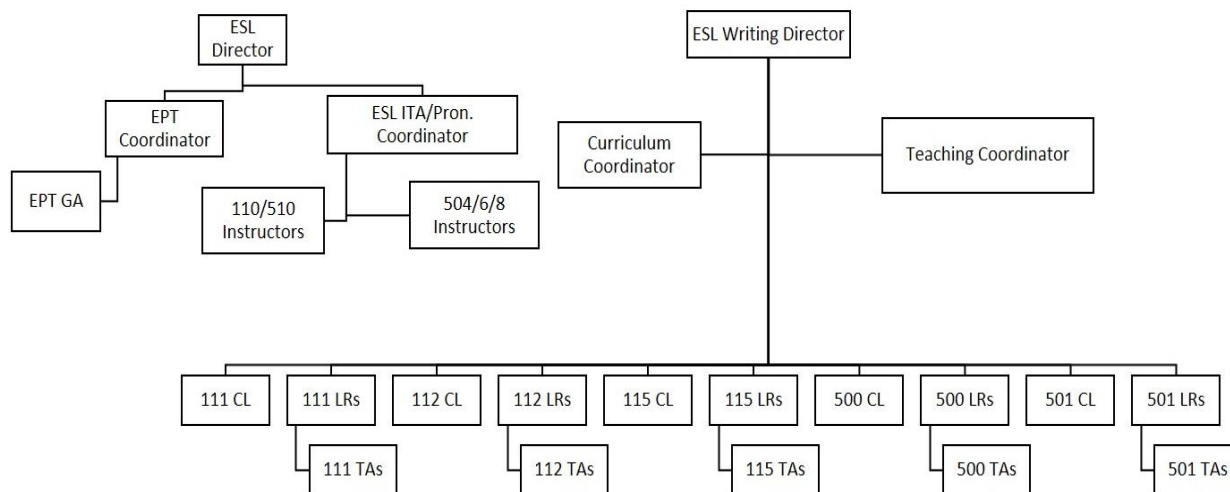


Figure 2. ESL Writing service courses' organization chart. Key: CL: Course leaders; LR: Lecturers; TA: Teaching assistants (Visual adaptation based on UIUC ESL Writing Home)

Instructional and professional support given to new and returning TAs

Besides the opportunities for assistance available any day on the part of the ESL Writing directors and curriculum coordinator, there are several ways in which all the ESL writing TAs can enhance their teaching of academic writing. One of them is attending a required weekly one hour level meeting with the course leader of the TAs' level; in these, teachers discuss the upcoming lessons, share ideas, are reminded of administrative procedures, and are encouraged (or sometimes required) to share any pedagogical or class management problems they may be having to work on a solution. Other duties that contribute to teachers' development are administrative, curriculum-related, professional development and teaching-related. The last three are described below in Table 2 (elaborated by the ESL Writing Director, Susan Faivre; the Teaching Coordinator, Cassandra Rosado, and the Curriculum Coordinator, Jin Kim) as they contribute to TAs and lecturers teaching development.

Table 2

TAs and lecturers' overview of responsibilities (UIUC ESL Writing Home, 2015)

Responsibility type	Duties
Curriculum development responsibilities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Participate in the development of the diagnostic exam. 2. Keep a daily retrospective syllabus for reflection on the course curriculum and teaching. 3. Create or participate in projects and committees which contribute to the program each semester. 4. In conjunction with other instructors teaching other sections of the same course, work towards improving the course materials while upholding the course goals and objectives as specified in the course guides. 5. Evaluate and revise the materials, lessons, assessments, and units which they teach and which are provided in the online course guides, and participate in an on-going discussion in level meetings and online sharing regarding the success and improvement of the program. 6. In all cases of curriculum and program development, integrate current and accurate content knowledge.
Professional development responsibilities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Model professional appearance and demeanor. Demonstrate respect through language and behavior in all interactions with colleagues, students, and supervisors (includes email, level meetings, student conferences, etc.). 2. Attend and participate in any professional development seminars and other training events which are organized by the ESL Writing Program. Stay informed about information and announcements on the UIUCESLTA website, online course guides, level meetings, or the ESLTA listserv, etc. 3. Fulfill professional development requirements per semester by seeking out seminars, courses, conferences, etc. which contribute to learning pedagogy, professionalism, academics. A minimum of 4 seminars per semester is required (Rosado, 2015). 4. Encouraged to pursue at least one of the teaching certificates offered through the Center for Innovation in Teaching and Learning. 5. Encouraged to develop a teaching portfolio.
Teaching responsibilities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teach and maintain excellent attendance and punctuality for all scheduled classes, which includes preparing for all classes, teaching them and grading all assignments and/or examinations in a prompt and timely fashion.

Table 2 Continued

Responsibility	Duties
Teaching responsibilities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Require students to satisfy good practices in writing process by requiring them to submit multiple drafts for review. 3. Aim to plan student-centered activities and display best practices in teaching. 4. Maintain the integrity of the program by implementing lessons and assessments which align with the sequencing, course goals and objectives specified on the online course guides. 5. Maintain an online course website, where students can access course information and materials (via Compass, Blogger, Moodle, etc.). 6. Meet with students for individual paper conferences at least once during the semester. 7. Collect feedback from students at least twice during the semester (IEF and ICES). 8. Arrange and participate in all required observations and pre- and post-observation conferences.
<p><i>Note:</i> these list are partial ones; full list is available at UIUC ESL Writing Home.</p>	

In addition to the above, TAs and lecturers who are to graduate or have graduated from the UIUC MATESL program have been required to take a course in ESL Teaching Methodology, and Second Language Reading and Writing. In the case of international students, they are all required to take a course in advanced academic writing their first semester in the program.

The classes observed: students, course goals and unit objectives

ESL 112

One of the classes observed was ESL 112, the second part of the undergraduate class sequence, which means students had taken the 111 level the semester previous to this one. Though the majority of these students are international students pursuing a degree, there are also non-degree exchange students, and “US citizens or permanent residents whose first language is not English but who have gone through US high schools” (UIUC ESL Writing Home) with

almost native-speaker oral skills, but weak writing skills (UIUC ESL Writing Home). It is a 3 credit-unit required class and its goals are a review of the concepts in the previous course in an argumentative writing major assignment and for the remaining 3 units, develop skills to prepare them for “research-based writing for American audiences” (UIUC ESL Writing Home). The units (whose names are similar to the units’ major assignments) are the following:

- Unit 1: Argumentative Essay
- Unit 2: Pre-research Portfolio
- Unit 3: Annotated Bibliography
- Unit 4: Problem-solution Research Paper (source)

The unit observed was number 3, the Annotated Bibliography plus the last module of unit 2 (thesis statements and rough outlining) and observations were done over the course of 2.5 weeks (5 classes) except for one class dedicated to Library Day. Table 3 shows the observed class schedule, daily syllabus and the corresponding module objectives:

Table 3

ESL 112’s class schedule, daily syllabus and module objectives

Day	Date	Class Module (topic)	Module objectives
15	10/13	2.5 Thesis Statements 2.6 The “Rough” Outline	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Differentiate the thesis statement of an argumentative essay and a problem-solution essay with respect to purpose 2. Describe the three-fold purpose of the problem-solution research paper (describe solutions, critique solutions, and offer improvements). 3. Build a tentative thesis statement that includes the three-fold purpose of their research paper 4. Create an APA style academic essay outline 5. Construct a rough outline with headers matching the function of each paragraph based on the research paper prompt and fill out the outline with relevant information from their pre-research portfolio in the corresponding parts.

Table 3 Continued

Day	Date	Class Module (topic)	Module objectives
16	10/15	Library Day	N/A
17	10/20	3.1 Source Reliability	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Locate information about a source that helps determine its credibility and reliability (e.g. publisher, date, author, kind of journal) 2. Categorize sources along a spectrum of credibility ranging (not credible, credible/not academic, scholarly/academic/peer-reviewed) 3. Concisely explain source reliability in a few written sentences.
18	10/22	3.2 Source Relevancy 3.3 Choosing Sources: Adjusting the Topic	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Apply skimming and scanning strategies to identify key sections of sources that are more relevant to their papers 2. Rate the degree of relevancy of sources based on their applicability to a particular research topic and focus 3. Concisely explain the relevancy of their sources to specific sections of their papers in a few sentences.
19	10/27	3.4 Introduction to Annotated Bibliography	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Explain the function and importance of an annotated bibliography within the research process 2. List 4 common elements of an annotated bibliography: APA citation, summary, explanation of relevancy and reliability 3. Generate strategies for writing each of the 4 sections
20	10/29	3.5 Summarizing Sources 3.5.1 Summaries – Research Articles 3.5.2 Summaries – Other Sources	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Locate the most important information in a source necessary for a summary 2. Write a short summary (~5 sentences) for a standard scholarly article using 1-2 sentences to match corresponding sections of the paper (Intro/ Method/Results/Discussion)

Table 3 Continued

Day	Date	Class Module (topic)	Module objectives
20	10/29	Research Articles 3.5.2 Summaries – Other Sources (continued)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Write a short summary (~5 sentences) for non-academic articles or other electronic sources by following pre-delineated sections or identifying main ideas in their absence. 2. Recognize and avoid common pitfalls of summaries.
21	11/3	3.5.3 Writing Concisely	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Write concisely by eliminating wordiness and maximizing the amount of information in a sentence.

Source: *Fall 2015 ESL 112's Two-day Suggested Course Syllabus* (UIUC ESL Writing Home).

By the end of this unit the students had to do an annotated bibliography with a minimum of 5 entries of the sources they would use for the Individual Research Paper (IRP) they would turn in at the end of the next unit, the last of the semester. One of the main requirements is that 3 sources are from scholarly, peer-reviewed sources (journals, books) and the others can come from other non-scholarly, but reliable sources. The other requirement is that each entry should contain an APA style citation, 5-sentence summary of the source, a 2-3 sentences long relevancy, and reliability statements (for the complete assignment description and rubric in Appendix A).

ESL 115

The other class observed was ESL 115. The student population is similar to that of ESL 112, but students get placed in this level if they proficiency out of ESL 111 based on their diagnostic test performance or if they are directly placed into ESL 115 on the basis of their EPT score (UIUC ESL Writing Home). Although contents are quite similar to that of ESL 112, students are taught the “general principles of academic writing, such as awareness of audience and purpose, coherence and unity, clear thesis statements, PIE structure, and formal academic

style” (UIUC ESL Writing Home) for the first time in addition to the skills to prepare them for “research-based writing for American audiences” (UIUC ESL Writing Home). The units (whose names are similar to the units’ major assignments) are the following:

- Unit 1: Diagnostic Revision and Analysis Assignment
- Unit 2: Pre-research Portfolio
- Unit 3: Annotated Bibliography
- Unit 4: Problem-solution Research Paper

The unit observed was number 3, the Annotated Bibliography plus the last module of unit 2 (thesis statements and rough outlining) and observations were done over the course of 3 weeks (9 classes) except for one class dedicated to Library Day. Table 4 shows the observed class schedule and daily syllabus. The corresponding module objectives are similar to those of ESL 112 (outlined above), so they have not been included. The complete assignment description and rubric is very similar to that of ESL 112, except for a slight variation in the number of sentences specified for summaries and relevancy statements and the inclusion of “Plagiarism” in the evaluation criteria in ESL 115. See Appendix B).

Table 4

ESL 115’s class schedule and daily syllabus

Day	Date	Class Module (topic)
22	10/14	Module 2.7 Research Paper Thesis Statements
23	10/16	Library Day (no class)
24	10/19	Module 2.8 “Rough” Outline
25	10/21	Module 3.1 Source Reliability
26	10/23	Module 3.2 Source Relevancy
27	10/26	Module 3.3 Choosing Sources & Refining the Topic
28	10/28	Module 3.4 Reflective Writing* (not done in the lessons observed)
	10/30	Module 3.5 Introduction to the Annotated Bibliography
29	11/2	Module 3.6.1 Summarizing Sources
30	11/4	Module 3.6.2 Summarizing Sources

Source: *Fall 2015 ESL 115’s Three-day Suggested Course Syllabus* (UIUC ESL Writing Home).

ESL 500

The third class observed was ESL 500, the first part of the graduate class sequence. Students who take this class are international graduate students who have finished their undergraduate studies in their home countries to pursue graduate and post graduate studies (UIUC ESL Writing Home). Students are placed directly into this class on the basis of their TOEFL score (79-102) and their subsequent score in the EPT. It is a non-credit required class, aiming at developing students written and also oral skills. In terms of writing, the “focus is on paragraph development and organization of American academic writing” (UIUC ESL Writing Home) in conjunction with “reading strategies for research articles from different disciplines (UIUC ESL Writing Home). The units (whose names are similar to the units’ major assignments) are the following:

Unit 1: Diagnostic Revision Process Assignment

Unit 2: Synthesis Essay

Unit 3: Critique

Unit 4: Oral Presentation

The unit observed was number 3, Critique, which was taught over the course of 2.5 weeks (5 classes) except for one class dedicated to Library Day. Table 5 shows the observed class schedule, daily syllabus and the corresponding module objectives:

Table 5

ESL 500’s class schedule, daily syllabus and module objectives

Day	Date	Class Module (topic)	Module objectives
1	10/15	3.1 Introduction to Critique (part 1)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Define the word “critique” in an academic context, meaning a critique that includes both positive and negative evaluations2. Describe the basic structure of their critique essay, including the addition of a summary in the introduction3. Write an effective summary, including principles such as the use of biased/unbiased

words and how to appropriately introduce the source

Table 5 Continued

Day	Date	Class Module	Module objectives
1			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Write a thesis statement that asserts the overall strengths and weaknesses of an article Write a critique introduction that moves smoothly from summary to thesis statement.
2	10/20	3.1 Introduction to Critique (part 2)	(Same as above)
3	10/22	3.2 Critical Thinking: Identification of Critique Points	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Critically evaluate a research article's premise, theoretical framework, methods, subjects/content, results and claims. Apply these above mentioned criteria to identify sample critique points from the article used in the course. Apply an appropriate organizational structure (outline) based on their identified critique points.
4	10/27	3.3 Language: Evaluation and Hedging	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Identify strength and appropriacy of academic evaluative verbs, phrases, and adjectives Use different kinds modals and phrases to qualify claims in academic writing. Understand rationale behind why softening evaluative language for academic critiques is necessary and how that affects the readers' perception of the author. Apply evaluative and hedging language to critiquing academic research papers.
5	10/29	Library Day	N/A
6	11/03	3.4 Avoiding Informal Language 3.5 Peer Perception	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Identify some informal vocabulary and grammatical structures through focusing on spoken language vs. written language. Apply rules to revise informal language structures into more academic language Identify their own informal language in their writings.

Source: *Fall 2015 ESL 500's Two-day Suggested Course Syllabus* (UIUC ESL Writing Home).

Participants

Participants in this study were three teachers and their students in their classes. Table 6 shows a summary of the 3 classes and the number of participating students, which were a total of 34 students.

Table 6

Participating teachers and students

Class	Teacher	Number of participating students
ESL 112	Betty	11
ESL 115	George	12
ESL 500	Leslie	11

The teachers

The three participating teachers in this project were selected based on their consistent inclusion in the list of teachers ranked as excellent by their students (for inclusion in the list, the average score TAs need to have is 4.3/5 and faculty 4.4/5 for required courses) at least 3 (sometimes 4) times in the course of 5 semesters (fall 2013 to fall 2015). In addition, in those occasions these teachers were ranked as “outstanding” because they were ranked “high” (top 10%) in the item “overall teaching effectiveness.” Other sources for considering them exemplary are the reports from the ESL Writing courses’ Directors based on the coordinator observations they are in charge of. All three teachers had qualifications in TESL after graduating from the MATESL program at UIUC and started working as ESL Writing TAs during their master studies. They had an average of 2.6 years EAP writing experience and 6.8 years of experience on average teaching English in ESL and EFL settings. Two teachers were female and one male. Two were born and raised in the United States and one was born and raised in Russia. As described above, two of the teachers Bettie and George taught undergraduate courses

(ESL 112 and 115) and Leslie, a graduate course (ESL 500).

Participating students

Of the 34 participating students, the majority (85.2%) were Chinese. The remaining nationalities, with one student per country (14.7%) were Taiwan, South Korea, Turkey, Mexico, and India. For most of them it was their first year at UIUC, with an average of 1.1 year for both undergraduate and graduate students. Their majors varied widely in the three groups. Undergraduates reported to have studied English for an average of 11 years, with 26.1% doing so for 10 years. As for graduate students, they majority (72.8%) studied from 10 years up to more than 20 years, while the remaining 27.2% studied 10 years or less. In terms of their familiarity with English writing, more than half of the undergraduate students (60.9%) reported they had taken between 3 and more than 4 writing classes before their current course and the remaining 39.1% had taken 1 or 2. In the case of graduate students, it was the opposite: the majority (83.3%) reported that they had taken no English writing classes before (27.2%) or they had taken 1 or 2 classes before the current one (56.1%) while the remaining 18.4% had taken between 3 to more than 4 besides the current class. Students were also asked about their interest in English academic writing to account for their level of motivation. On a 1 to 5 point Likert scale (1 very uninterested-5 very interested) in undergraduate classes a little more than half (56.5%) said their feelings about the topic were neutral (3), the average being 3 out of 5. The remaining 43.4% said they were interested (26.1%), and on the other extreme, uninterested (17.3%). Results were quite similar for graduate students, where the average was 3.3 out of 5 and 45.4% said they were interested and 18.1% uninterested. Regarding their English proficiency level, the only information available is TOEFL iBT scores ranging from 80-103. More detailed background

information such as students' majors and their opinion of their courses and teachers were obtained through a digital survey administered at the end of semester.

Research design

This study is primarily of a qualitative nature with a few features of quantitative research. Following Watson-Gegeo (1988), within its qualitative nature, this research is ethnographic and naturalistic. It is ethnographic in the sense that its main purpose is:

“...the study of people's behavior in naturally occurring, ongoing settings...to provide a description and an interpretive-explanatory account of what people do in a setting...the outcome of their interactions, and the way they understand what they are doing...through a systematic, intensive, detailed observation of that behavior...and the social rules, interactional expectations, and cultural values underlying behavior” (Watson-Gegeo, 1988, p.576-577).

Among the guiding principles for ethnographic research the same author argues that ethnographic research centers on the study of interactions within groups rather than on individuals, describes and explains aspects of the group in relation to its place as part of a larger system, and is based on but not constrained by an external theoretical framework (Watson-Gegeo, 1988). This study follows those guidelines in that it studies a group of teachers in addition to their behaviors and beliefs as individuals. In practice, the approach was implemented via naturalistic classroom observation and teacher interviews. The former implies that the observations were done in a naturally occurring setting with no involvement of the researcher in the classes observed so that the data is representative of what happens on a daily basis in the classroom; the latter complements the first one in that it sheds light into the teachers' and students' behaviors observed to better understand and explain them. Besides observations, in

line with ethnographic research and to investigate individual teachers, case studies were selected as the main methodology as they facilitate the understanding of a problem within a real setting through the data collection from multiple sources of information such as “observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports” (Creswell, 2012, p. 97).

Using Creswell’s (2012) terminology, based on the case studies’ intent, these can be considered both single instrumental and collective case study. In the former, the problem is illustrated by a single entity—in this project, that is a single participating teacher— whereas in the latter, the problem is illustrated by a set of case studies for comparison purposes—in this case the three participating teachers as a group. Both single and multiple case studies were chosen as they offered a more comprehensive view of the issue under study. Case study analysis was done within-cases for individual teachers and across-cases for comparison among teachers and group findings. In all, this research has features of both emic and etic approaches in that it nurtures from the participating teachers insights (an “emic” approach) and also from the outsider perspective of the researcher who interprets these participants’ principles and observed practices (an “etic” approach).

Although mainly qualitative, data collection from surveys (teacher and student ones), which are of a quantitative nature, make the research methodology be of a mixed methods type. Specifically, this project’s quantitative data are complementary to their qualitative counterpart with the aim of achieving a better understanding of the issue by triangulation of survey results with the qualitative data.

Data collection

The first step in the data collection process was selecting the participating teachers. Because the project’s aim was to look into best practices in the teaching of EAP writing, the

teachers were selected based on their ranking as best teachers on ICES forms for three or more consecutive semesters (Fall 2013 and 2014, Spring 2014 and 2015) and the recommendation of the ESL writing directors. These were first contacted via e-mail. Once they confirmed their interest in the project, they were sent the consent form, which was clarified and signed by them in a face-to face meeting with the researcher (Appendix D) Dates for observations and doing interviews were also agreed. With previous agreement with the teachers, the researcher went to their classes one class before the start of observations to introduce herself, the project and distribute and collect student consent forms (Appendix E).

All observations took place during Fall 2015 for the course of an entire module. In some cases modules were 3 weeks long (ESL 115) and 2.5 weeks (ESL 112 and ESL 500), with a total of 20 classes. The three classes were carried out in computer labs with internet access, a projector and two large whiteboards. Class observations were naturalistic in nature in that the researcher sat at the back of the classroom, taking notes and audio recording without participating in the class and trying not to disrupt the classroom setting. Observations were semi structured in the sense that there was a set of predefined categories but these were used as reminders of class elements to describe. These were not meant to restrict the observation, but to ensure a comprehensive description of the class was achieved. The description of these elements are described in Table 7 below (and the chart is in Appendix F):

Table 7

Class observation elements

Element observed	Description
Type and sequence of class sections and their duration	Sections were determined as having a distinct purpose and boundary. Nevertheless, some of the sections like “timing” and “teacher monitoring and circulation,” are not sections per se, but are included here because they are inherent to the sections described.

Table 7 Continued

Class element	Description
Sequence realization	This includes the resource used, their main features, grouping, type of interaction, questioning strategies, teacher verbal directions, monitoring, timing and debriefing.
Students' reactions to activities	These were described via subjective categories intended to capture the students' promptness, enthusiasm, focus, and general engagement with the class segment. Given their nature, they are based on the impressions of the researcher during class observations.

Participants (teachers and students) were not required to follow any procedure, but to proceed with the class as it would naturally occur if the researcher were not present. To support the researcher's notes and have a more reliable and complete description of what happened in the classroom, all lessons were audio recorded. The decision to observe the classes was motivated by a similar procedure done by Wette (2014) and also the criticism of several researchers on teacher cognition (Borg, 2013b; Xiao, 2014; Yigitoglu, 2011, Yigitoglu and Belcher, 2014) on the lack of corroboration of teacher's principles with actual observations. In addition to that, observation were essential for the purposes of describing and analyzing EAP classes.

With the teacher's permission, the researcher also had access to their course websites, some of their students' in-class writing samples, digital presentations, and digital/paper handouts. The collection of these data was also a feature found in Wette (2014) although in this project there is an explicit analysis of these documents features. This has the double purpose of illustrating the teachers' principles as well as serving as pedagogical guidelines for future EAP writing teachers. To protect the privacy of all participants, any class resource cited in this thesis has been de-identified.

For the purposes of researching into their teaching principles and practices, each teacher was asked to fill out two digital surveys on the course of the observation period, and then, to further inquire into their survey responses, each teacher was interviewed individually three times in total, once a week for 30-40 minute private meetings in their offices. By the end of the observation period the three teachers were interviewed as a group for one hour in a private meeting room. All the interviews were semi structured, audio recorded, and then transcribed for case study analyses (see Appendix G for interview questions). These face-to-face meetings were also complemented with two digital surveys teachers were asked to complete in the course of the data collection period (see Appendix H and I). Even though similar procedures were followed in many of the works consulted, this project's questions aimed to go deeper into the issue of instructional decision-making so that it could offer insights on what elements make a good ESL writing teacher. In that regard, this project intended to go beyond explicit teaching practices and aimed at obtaining a bigger picture of what effective ESL writing teachers do (from their own perspectives, their peers, and their students). In addition, the decision to do a group interview was triggered by Borg's (2003a) call for the study of patterns of teachers' cognition in groups of teachers working in the same context.

Finally, to account for students' perceptions and attitudes towards the class and their teachers, by the end of the course students were asked to fill out a short electronic survey (Appendix J). Students' reaction to class activities (a category in the observation guidelines) and their views on the course and their teachers obtained through the surveys were included in the research design due to the researcher's personal interest and the lack of studies in ESL writing instruction (and for that matter, their scarcity in other ESL areas) concerned with students, as most of those studies focus on what teachers do or should do without accounting for the impact

on students overall learning outcomes other than their level of performance (refer to chapter 2 for a fuller account). All the data collection procedures are shown in Figure 3.

Procedures for teachers

Classroom observations, materials, individual interviews and surveys, group interview

Data collection procedure	Media	When? How long?	How often?
<i>Class observation</i>	Note taking Audio recording	Mid-October One module (4 or 5 weeks)	Every class during that period (5-9 sessions per teacher)
<i>Class Materials (lesson plan, handouts, lecture material, or digital tools such as Google docs, blogs, or forums)</i>	Links to course website and paper handouts	Every class During the whole observation period.	Every class
<i>Individual Interviews (3)</i>	Note taking, audio recording	By the end of each week lasting 30-40 minutes each.	Once a week (3 interviews total)
<i>Group interview</i>	Note taking, audio recording	*date to be arranged. No longer than 30 minutes.	Once
<i>Surveys (digital)</i>	Digital (via email)	During the project's data collection period.	Twice for 3 participating teachers and one for other ESL writing teachers in the program.

Procedures for students

Classroom observations and survey

Data collection procedure	Media	When? How long?	How often?
<i>Class observation</i>	Note taking Audio recording	Mid-October One module (2.5 to 9 sessions)	Every class during that period (5-9 sessions)
<i>Survey (digital)</i>	Digital	At the end of the course.	Once

Figure 3. Data collection procedures. By signing then consent form, both participating teachers and students agreed to take part in every activity detailed in the “Procedures” section, which includes being audio recorded during classroom observations and all interviews.

Data analysis

The data from class observations was analyzed for two purposes: look into class structure and specific in-class features as well as attesting for the principles the teachers said they adhered to. First, to look into class structure and its realization, each teacher’s class was analyzed in detail following the observation chart, but also open for unaccounted emerging categories from the data. Once the individual classes per teacher were analyzed, a pattern appeared which served

to represent the sample class shown in chapter 4 in individual case studies. In addition to that, the sample class used in each teacher's case study was selected also because there was a vast amount of qualitative information from individual interviews that supported the teachers' behaviors and talk in the classroom. In order to obtain as concrete and complete an understanding and representation of their classes (and the subsequent interrelation with their teaching principles) as possible, the sample class structure was complemented with the selective transcription of teacher's talk (and whenever possible students') during each of that class segments. As a result, it was possible to triangulate data from the interviews, their behavior in and out of the class as well as their talk in the class. After the individual analysis, all three teachers' class types (including the talk-related data from sample classes) were compared to see if any pattern emerged. Concerning the second purpose—corroborating teachers' display of the principles they said they adhered to—the class observation data served to support the principles the teachers professed to put into practice and to understand what influenced their pedagogical decisions. Class documents, including students' in-class written work were also considered part of the class observations, so they were also analyzed for the same purposes as the observation notes and audio recordings: to complement the principles articulated by teachers. Three student samples, one student per level observed, was collected upon consultation with the participating teachers at the end the course. Teachers were asked to submit a sample of one of their students major assignment, particularly that of a student that they thought had successfully reached the class and the unit's learning outcomes. The samples collected were from consenting students.

In addition to that data, there were three teacher surveys. The first asked about biographical information and questions regarding teaching in general and the teaching of EAP; the second asked about the extent of various sources of influence on the type of teacher they are

today; the last one was not given to the 3 participating teachers, but was sent via email to any other ESL writing teacher in the program who wanted to respond. The information obtained from the three surveys was both quantitative and qualitative and was used for relevant support in the construction of within or cross-case analyses through data triangulation with class observations, documents and individual and group interviews. Data from the individual and group interviews were transcribed in full. After that, each teacher's set of interviews, including their interventions in the group interview were read multiple times to carry out a content analysis and see what were the concepts and overall themes that appeared frequently. These themes were then compared against their occurrences in the classroom (or out of it, as appropriate) to corroborate their realization.

Finally, student survey results (qualitative and quantitative) were analyzed by looking at majorities and averaging (by calculating the mean). Analysis was done for individual classes, and also across classes, by comparing the two undergraduate classes (ESL 112 and ESL 115) for the emergence of similarities or differences and then by comparing those two as a whole with the only graduate class (ESL 500). To facilitate discussion, responses were grouped by thematic categories instead of being reported as single questions. As an example, the bigger category: "What do students think of the course?" includes responses to questions such as rating the workload and difficulty of the course, the quality of the course, and the usefulness of it for their writing improvement and other skills. Table 8 shows a summary of the data collected, how it was analyzed, along with the rationale for its selection as a data source:

Table 8

Summary of data collected, its analysis and rationale

Data source	Data analysis	Rationale for inclusion
Class observations (observation chart, audio recorded data)	-Content analysis -Search for patterns in individual teachers' classes and across teachers -For audio recorded data: selective transcription of teacher talk	- Look into class structure and specific in-class features - Corroborate the principles the teachers said they adhere to in terms of their in and out class behavior and classroom talk
Course website and other course materials Teacher interviews -3 individual ones -1 group interview	Content and structure analysis Full transcription of every interview. These were read multiple times and content analysis for frequent themes was done	Complement the principles articulated by teachers -Look into teachers' biographies, their principles and practices regarding ESL writing. -The group interview had a similar purpose as the individual one in addition to a comparison of views across teachers
Two teacher surveys: -General -Sources influencing the teacher you are today	- The information was taken directly from the general survey to build individual teacher's profiles, in some cases selective use of it was made to further corroborate and/or support interview information. - Sources survey: mean calculation	-Gather initial biographical information about the teachers -Gather initial information about teachers' perceptions about teaching of and of ESL writing itself -Explore teachers most and least influential sources for their current ESL writing principles and practices
General ESL writing teachers' survey	-Qualitative: content analysis and emergence of themes -Quantitative: mean calculation	-Explore teachers' principles of an ESL writing class -Gather information about their sources of their current teaching principles and practices -Compare findings with those of the three participating teachers
Student survey	-Quantitative results: mean calculation and grouping of percentage majorities -Qualitative results: content analysis of student responses for the emergence of frequent themes	-Collect basic biographical information -Explore students' views of the ESL writing class, their teachers and their learning outcomes
Student samples of in-class work and major unit assignment papers	Only used for illustration purposes; they were read to corroborate claim, but no specific analysis was conducted	To support claim of students' achievement of unit's learning outcomes from their perspective, that of their teachers and their performance as observed in the classroom

CHAPTER 4—FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter will report the findings resulting from the data analysis. First, each individual case will provide background information to understand the sources influencing the teachers' current teaching principles and practices, an analysis of the teachers' main principles and their realization in practice, a sample class that illustrates this interrelation, and a brief description of how they see themselves as teachers. These within-case analyses will help answer the first two main research questions: (1) What is the lesson structure of an ESL writing class at UIUC and how do "best" ESL writing teachers at UIUC realize each part of their lesson to maximize student learning? (2) What are these teachers' principles about teaching/learning and the teaching and learning of ESL writing? How do those principles impact, or are realized in their pedagogical decisions? Second, a cross-case analysis will be carried out to account for similarities and differences found among the three teachers in terms of the aforementioned research questions, which will be described in the group findings section.⁶ Finally, this chapter will include the findings from student surveys in order to answer the third research question: (3) What are the students' views on their EAP classes, teachers and most importantly, what are the learning benefits (in relation to and also beyond ESL writing improvement) of taking a class with their instructors and to what aspect of the class do they attribute the achievement of learning outcomes?

⁶ Because within and cross-case analysis there is extensive use of teacher's quotes, unless indicated in parenthesis by "survey," all quotes included were obtained in individual or group interviews.

Case 1: Bettie: “You should be passionate for what you do”

Her background and sources of teaching principles and practices

She was born and raised in the U.S, so English is her mother tongue although she also knows Spanish. She has a MATESL degree from UIUC, from which she graduated in 2015. She has around 4 years of teaching experience in EFL and ESL contexts. A few years ago she taught English in Costa Rica and Spanish to high school students in the U.S. As for her ESL experience, she has taught a four-skills English course to adults from various cultural backgrounds as well as academic writing at UIUC for a little more than two years: first as a TA and as of fall 2015 as a lecturer in both undergraduate (ESL 112) and graduate courses (ESL 500, 501,505). She is one of those unique teachers who knew that was what they wanted to become very early in life and that is very passionate about their profession. Passion is a feature that she was inspired by her own good teachers when she was a high school student, her father, and later on two specific professors during her master’s studies—Dr. Zola (a psychology professor) and Dr. Dickenson from the MATESL program.

Her influences on L1 and L2 writing principles

Besides the passion for her profession, it was her father—an English major and writer—who instilled in her the love of reading and writing and who also taught her the skills needed to become the highly proficient writer she is today. She fondly remembers how when she was younger she used to spend her summers at “English camp.” She was her father’s only “student” and they used to read and discuss books together or work on writing. She further recalls:

“His influence [was] not only in writing, but in reading for writing styles; [he] showed me how to write concisely and expand my vocabulary. This attention to detail helped me later in academic writing, though at the time it influenced my ability to write creatively”

[survey]. Even though she argues details such as vocabulary and style are important in her L1 writing, to some extent the attention to those details has carried over to her teaching of L2 academic writing, as will be explained later.

Her influences on general teaching and her goals

Another important influence on the teacher she is today have been two professors she had at UIUC. She says she admired their work ethic since they were not only excellent teachers, but great human beings. They were “dedicated” to their disciplines, which they showed in interesting classes where they “asked questions [that] made you think,” and also were dedicated to their students in the way they “cared about [and] connected with” them. She vividly remembers being impressed by “how much time [Dr. Zola] put into the class and what he did.” Even more so, she remembers how almost 4 years after his class was over, he contacted all his former students to “meet up for coffee just to see how they were.” While she admits she has good rapport and a respectful relation with her students, she eventually wants to achieve the same “connection” with them and become the type of teacher they “trust and feel like staying in touch with” even after her course has ended. An additional influence in her teaching, especially at the beginning of her teaching experience, was their fellow teachers: “looking at other teachers in and out of the program and what they did” and also seeking help from more experienced teachers in the writing program when facing difficulties or having questions was very helpful for her.

A glimpse at her class

“I had arranged the groups so that there were some stronger people, some not as strong...I wanted to split those two up, I thought that some people worked really well and did a good job of getting their groupmates into it; that would be Bing and Pan so I kept them together and I put a couple of people with them which hadn’t really been doing much,

which would be Xiaoyu...but then Jessie, Daniel, Omar...Daniel was the only person off task, the whole time...he was in Powerpoint studying the entire time...that group in front, they were all around the computer, they were so good...the group in front of you was the weakest...there wasn't one person in the group that really got everyone going, and I'd expected that to be Mingxuan because she is always in group 1 and working hard, but she just didn't mesh well with the others because they don't know each other so I think she felt uncomfortable, because she mostly did the work... and Qingyi, they were both working on it...but [negotiation with other members] didn't work too much...Guo was on task...but she's struggling in class a little bit...I probably should have kept her with Bing because they're friends and I think he helps her a little"

When she talks about her students she likes to refer to them as "her kids." She is able to remember each student by name, and give detailed accounts of what they are like, how they behave in class, and what their strengths and weaknesses are. As the quote above shows, she knows exactly who the best leaders are, who works best together and who do not, who needs more support and who is doing what the entire time in her class. In the class quoted above, after the presentation of the main class topic and some joint analysis with students, she moved on towards the practice phase. She gave instructions, students started typing immediately, and she moved to the back of the room, observing them attentively, from a distance, quietly, and then paced back to the front, after a minute or two, she paced to the back of the room again and kept watching.

Her EAP teaching principles and examples from practice

"My main goal is to make my students successful outside of my class...I want to prepare them for not being in my class"

The quote above reflects a thought she pointed out several in the interviews and that finds its way into her classroom in multiple ways. First, it shows in how “she is not heavy into discipline;” as an example, she does not tell her students to put her cell phones away in class if they are using them or does not monitor them so closely and tell them to work if they seem not to be doing so. She has made her expectations clear to students from day one: “in the real world you’re not gonna be told, ‘stay on task, stay on task, this is a good place to learn.’” By doing so, she prepares them for the real workplace demands by holding them accountable for their own progress; thus, treating them as adults. She believes that at the college level, students are capable of “making their own decisions, their own mistakes, and they know the rules.” At the same time, she admits that it “frustrates her” to see those students who are not paying attention or working when they could benefit greatly from doing so.

If she wants to prepare them for the academic world out of the classroom, one of her main goals besides a “work ethic” so to speak, is to make them “competitive with their native speaker peers” in their other classes. Here, competitive is defined in the sense of being as capable as their peers to contribute to class discussions, write an academic paper, or read sources critically. Ultimately, she wants her class to be a “safe” place where students do not need to worry about being embarrassed to speak in front of their classmates and most of all, a place where they can boost their confidence and learn useful skills they can apply outside the classroom. In her class these principles are implemented in different ways. She promotes speaking practice through group work and by eliciting thoughts from students; in addition, she seeks to increase students’ confidence by telling them that what they are reading are in fact difficult articles, even for native speakers. She recalls how she had told students how they

“should be proud of who [they] are, how well [they] speak, that [they] were able to come to this university.”

When it comes to materials, she creates and selects materials that are authentic and also useful resources for students outside the class. A case in point is her choosing of scholarly articles for the second lesson on summarizing. When asked about the criteria for selecting them, she argued that although the “accessibility” of vocabulary (as in not excessively technical, but still academic) factored in her decision of which article to choose, she wanted to pick one that was not so easy either, so as to represent what students were actually using in their research paper or reading for other classes. Still, she figured that there were other features that may help students determine the most suitable information for their summaries, such as clear headings and tables. In fact, part of keeping summarizing realistic, she said, was having students summarize different kinds of written pieces: their organization website and a news article besides the scholarly source. In this manner, they were able to apply and try out several of the reading strategies discussed in class. Although these strategies were useful starting points, she wanted to make students aware that the same strategies may not be applicable to every source: “[students] expect to see an abstract and headings, but it is not always like that...I wanted to make sure they understand that it’s easy to read through [news articles], but there are some other strategies they could use.” With this pedagogical decision, she prepares students for the different types of sources that they will be using and thus make them more confident in their ability to do so later on their own. Similarly, when teaching annotated bibliographies, she clarified that the format they had to follow for her class was not the only one and that it was best to ask their professors about the required format. In all, this selection of material and making the connection of the class content with students’ other courses’ shows her concern for making her class useful to students.

“I’ve been able to tailor my lessons better to their needs”

When she referred to her students’ strengths and weaknesses in their writing, Bettie evidenced a keen awareness of her students’ needs. Part of that awareness stems from her teaching the level once before and also from having worked with a majority of Asian students in other courses. Having worked with this population several times, she knows what areas are problematic for them that need to be emphasized upon more strongly or practiced much more. In ESL 112, for instance, she knew one of those problem areas was the transition from argumentative to analytical writing. Because students are first introduced to the basics of academic writing through an argumentative essay and thesis statement, many of them have difficulties to understand and produce an essay that has an analytical purpose instead: “[to get them away from giving their opinion] is hard for them.” Another common issue for this student population is plagiarism, which whether intentional or not, she has seen in summaries of journal articles. As a result, she decided to address the issue by teaching them strategies to “make sure they understand the article” and by telling students that she has seen [students copying the abstract] happen many times before so this time she expected them to use the strategies learnt and not “plagiarize the abstract” in their annotated bibliography summaries. She has learnt and continues to learn about her students’ needs. Earlier in unit 3 she was only planning to teach how to summarize journal articles and the organization website information; however, after reading her students’ possible sources for the unit assignment, she realized many were using news articles. Therefore, she decided to incorporate strategies to read and summarize those sources in her class.

Do students “get it,” are they able to “do their own,” are they “on task,” and is there “meaning negotiation”?

For Bettie there are several goals to gauge the success of a lesson. One that was brought up frequently when she was discussing her lesson was when she believed “students really seemed to get it.” By that, she meant her students were able to reach the class objectives; for example: differentiating between argumentative or analytical thesis statements, or distinguishing a good from a bad relevancy statement. She evaluated that by listening to students’ responses and by looking at their writing practice later in class. The more participation she got from them, the more able she was to see if they could identify a bad from a good example. She was also satisfied with lessons where students were able to do “do their own” work in class. In other words, she wanted her students to be able to practice their writing skills (writing a reliability, relevancy statement or a summary) using the sources for their actual topic for their research paper rather than having them practice only once with the sources related to the class topic. Consequently, this shows that she is looking to provide her students with multiple opportunities to practice and preferably to leave time for them to do so in their actual papers. For her, the more practice, the better products they turn in, so it is key that students stay “on task.” Whether it is individual or group work, she wants them to work. When it comes to group work activities, she wants them to discuss, come to an agreement together, to “negotiate.” In contrast, if an activity does not result in the application to their current assignment or if sufficient negotiation does not occur, she does not consider that class so successful. When asked about her class on rough outlines she said:

“I’ve found that not only do I want them to understand how [the paper] is structured, but I also want them to figure out...what sort of sources they’re gonna need in each area...when they went up there and stuck their [cards] like that [on the board]; I wanted them to get active...but...they didn’t do as much negotiation there as I’d hoped.”

Interestingly, the goals illustrated in the quote above have evolved from the first time she taught the lesson and are the result of a better understanding of the course and unit's overall goals, which are strengthening students' speaking and critical thinking skills (finding and evaluating sources, for example).

Class resources: samples and checklists as sources of support

In the classes observed, as soon as she finished giving the instructions for an individual practice activity almost all students would start typing eagerly and very fast. Given that her later evaluation and feedback of their in-class work was positive, it seems the class objectives were reached. Great part of that success seems to be the amount of support she gives students through her class materials, which she usually creates herself. In the classes observed, these were Google slide presentation of usually no more than 15 slides each which contained all the class information and activities for the day and that was accessible via the course website. Initial and final slides contained class announcements and reminders and the other ones important points or strategies to consider for the main skill to practice. Then, students were asked to evaluate a set of example statements (usually as a class) to end by practicing writing their own based on the class topic and/or their own paper topic. "Having really strong and understandable material is important" she argues. For her, her materials, the practice and the feedback given in class is "enough guidance" for students (see example presentation on relevancy statements in Appendix K).

Ultimately, she wants her students to use the materials as "resources they can go back to and look at," so they can see not only what their work "should look like," but mostly understand the "structure" of each written piece. To facilitate that understanding, key elements in her materials are examples, checklists, and steps. In her view, together they have proved to be very

effective for students' understanding and good quality of written products as students "know what they need to do." Regarding samples she "use[s] them as a way to generate thought about [the written pieces], like "this is what it should look like...and that they can see the structure." They have been the "best way that [she] learnt" and she wants to benefit her students as well.

Similarly, checklists are something she says she has become interested recently and which she really likes: "My main take away tends to be in my checklists...so, academic tone and making sure [they] answer those questions... 'Ok, Did I answer this question? Did I do this? Was it in 3 sentences?'" Thus checklists give students the tools to self-evaluate their work and her as a teacher, an easier way to give them more useful feedback. As part of her feedback procedure, in her local comments she tends to signal the issue and give suggestions on how to improve it by referring the student back to the class material: "[I say] 'go back to this lesson' or 'how does yours look different from what we've done?'" For her, sample analysis and checklists have worked very well in combination: "[Students] can ask themselves those questions [based on the checklist] that we asked about in those six examples and if they pass them, then their relevancy statement is probably good." The purpose of resources is then to help student understand, self-evaluate, and optimize their time as a result so they can focus on how to write most effectively according to the class criteria.

"This is the class for them to feel comfortable talking about culture"

As the classes were observed during the fall, Halloween was a topic all 3 teachers made reference to. Of the three, Bettie was the one who took it "most seriously" as she devoted 20 minutes of her class to discuss interesting facts and terms related to Halloween celebration in the U.S together with personal photographs of her as a child wearing a costume and candies given out at the end of the class. When asked about the reason to leave space for cultural knowledge in

her class, she sees her ESL class as one that differs from other core classes in that students can feel comfortable talking about the U.S culture and they can become “more culturally adept.” Having been abroad herself as a student, she has experienced being away from home and faced cultural differences that she was eager to learn more about. She wants to be that source of cultural support for students and at the same time “built rapport” and “more connection” with students through cultural, non-writing related activities. In all, her class does not offer solely academic support, but also a personal support in the sense that she wants students to “feel comfortable” both in her country and in her class. Despite the “full curriculum” she always “tr[ies] to squeeze some of [U.S cultural elements] in,” regardless of the students’ age, with a positive reception from students. In particular, in previous semesters, she has had students submit questions about the U.S or university life via a Googledoc, to which a couple students replied (with questions such as “what is ‘unofficial’?”).

Time constraints: the tension between teaching a 50 minute and an 80 minute class

When asked about the 112 class I observed, Bettie inevitably compared the degree of success in one section with her other 112 section, which meets three times a week for 50 minutes instead of twice a week for 80 minutes. For her, there are both disadvantages and advantages in teaching the same sections at the same time. Among the disadvantages, although she admits the success of some activities depends on the particular groups of students rather than exclusively on the length of the class, there were also instances when it was clear that time constraints had a negative impact on students’ learning outcomes. When planning summaries, she ideally wanted her students to practice summarizing both news articles and journal articles. While she did so in her 80-minute class, she realized she was not going to have enough time to do so in the other section. As a result, in this lesson and others, that section has typically fewer chances to practice:

“I really wish I didn’t have to cut anything out..., but I looked at [her lesson plan] and said ‘that’s probably going to take 20 minutes, and I just *can’t* dedicate 20 minutes to that.’” On the other hand, if she had devoted that time to teach students how to summarize scholarly articles, they would have been unable to practice writing with their own sources, which was the primary goal she had for students in both sections. Whether a longer or a shorter class, there are always adjustments she needs to make as the challenge is to have both sections learn equally well and relatively at the same pace, especially when the longer class is “a lesson and a half [ahead]:” “sometimes...they could use the 80 minutes and other times, I think 80 minutes is a little bit of an overkill...they are tired by the end, and so my class doesn’t always last the full 80 minutes.” On the positive side, whereas she feels a little sorry for her 50 minutes section having to teach a lesson first to them and having to leave material out, she also sees it as an advantage for her other section as it allows her to adjust:

“the nice thing about teaching two sections...[is] if something doesn’t go quite right, you can change it, see if your change was successful...and then, if you have a lesson that’s really successful you pilot it again...did it still work...? was that just a fluke? is it more adaptable?”

“I did not do [this] this time, but will do it next time:” evolution of her beliefs and practices

Every time she discussed a class she was not entirely pleased with, Bettie immediately pointed out what she thought the problem had been and that she planned to fix it next time she had to teach the class. Whether this may have been so because she had recently reflected on her lesson to complete the retrospective syllabus (mandatory document to be filled out by all teachers), what is remarkable is her easiness to remember with plenty of certainty what did not go as she expected, the most likely causes, the need to address those issues in the future and how

to do so. As the previous section shows, if she needs to adjust her lessons, she does so; in fact, adjustments is a distinguishing component that has helped become the teacher she is today: not so strong on discipline, understanding students' participation, trying new class resources.

Based on her experience with high school students on one extreme and graduates/adult students on the other, she sees her current sections of undergraduates as “the middle,” needing just enough discipline so as to also make them accountable for their class performance. In addition, because previous to being a TA in the service courses she had only had experience with more extroverted and talkative student populations, once she was a TA and realized that students were much quieter, she decided to ask for advice to help them participate more. In turn, over time she has also realized that “quiet” does not mean “not participatory” or “uninterested,” but it may simply signal a students' preference: “Yilan and May...are soft spoken, but they are always providing little answers if I am asking questions...they are quiet, but still it's them participating and I can count on them to be on task.” Finally, while in the service courses she is used to setting up GoogleDocs as resources, her previous teaching an evening class for adult learners lead her to start using print handouts to compensate for the lack of computers and projector and at the same time be able to achieve the class learning outcomes.

A good EAP class

“This class went well”

In each of the individual interviews, she was asked how her classes for the week went. When in her opinion classes went well, she justified it based on whether students “got it,” that is, if they understood (seen via students responses during elicitation) and were able to produce written pieces with the requirements analyzed in class and emphasized through the lesson checklist. In the next section (see Figure 5) is an example of one of her classes which illustrates

many of the principles and practices that have been described in this section. After Figure 5 describing her class comments are made to discuss the practices in that particular lesson along with the specific principles behind the teacher’s pedagogical decisions. Figure 4 illustrates the class setting and teacher circulation and it is followed by the sample lesson (Figure 5). Betty’s lesson on source relevancy. For her, this was “her favorite” lesson as compared to the others observed. The class described is part of unit 3, and the third one of the 6 observed. (The presentation used, other resources and students’ relevancy statements produced in this class are found in Appendix L and M). Following the sample class chart are the researcher’s comments on that lesson to explain its representativeness of the teacher’s principles and practices and conclude this teacher’s individual case study.

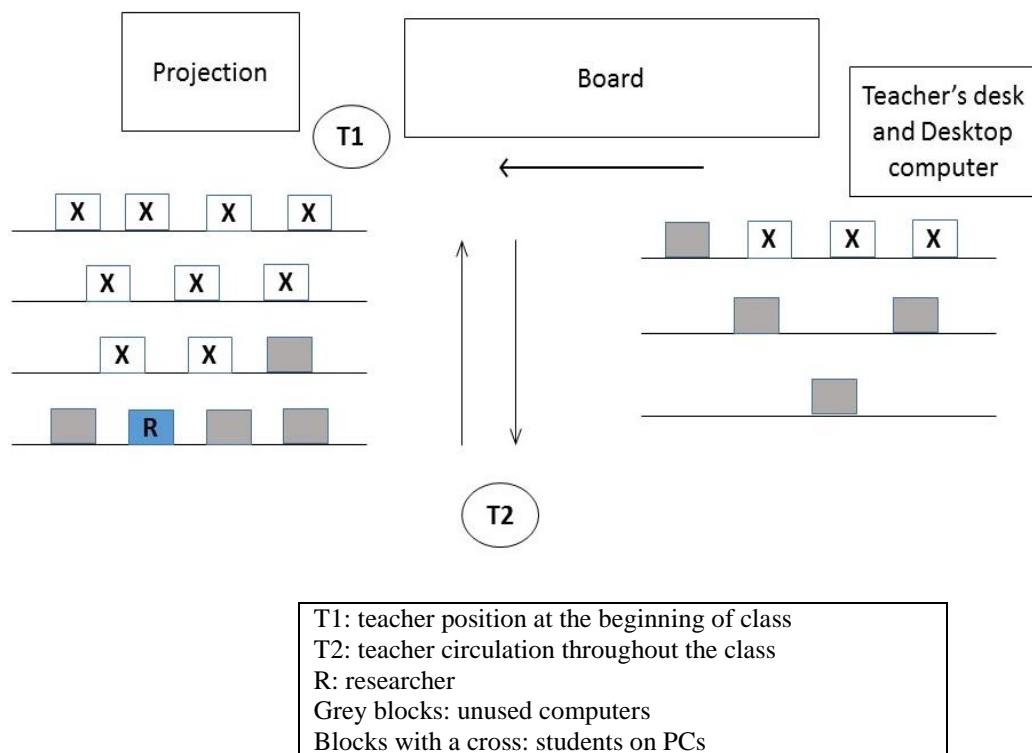


Figure 4. Betty’s classroom setting and circulation. The icons T1 and T2 represent different patterns of this teacher’s circulation at the beginning and during the lesson. As the figure shows at the beginning of the class during the presentation of class content she remained on the front of the class to later circulate up and down the center of the room during class activities. As pattern T2 illustrates, she tended to remain in the center, observing more distantly instead of getting into the groups or monitor individual students more closely.

Class objectives (not stated as such, but inferred from interview and class resource):					
1. Write a relevancy statement of 3-4 sentences that answers why the source is relevant to your work and is academic in tone. 2. Include what information in the source is relevant to your work 3. Include where that information will be used in your paper					
Time	Type of interaction	Resources	Class segment or activity	Students' behavior	Students' written work
9:30	Teacher to class	N/A	<u>Ice breaker</u> : "I'm excited to say that pretty much everyone is early today...I appreciate it...as a celebration we will have a little Halloween party, we'll look at it as a cultural lesson"	Some students laugh	N/A
9:30-9:34	Teacher to class	N/A	<u>Class objectives and announcement</u> : "So, we talked about source reliability on Tuesday, today we're going to talk about source relevancy, but before that just a little reminder that the PRP is due on Compass tonight...I think a lot of you are pretty much done; we've done a good amount of work on it in class, but do let me know if you have any questions." "For the annotated bibliography....on Tuesday I just want you to give me 5 or 6 of your sources through e-mail and remember that 3 of them, at least 3 of them need to be academic or scholarly...nothing too formal...I'm just checking that you're on track with your sources..."	Most students listen attentively	N/A
9:35	Groupwork (3 groups of 3-4 students)	Class slide 2: "Small group discussion" (PPT Presentation on Appendix L)	<u>Instructions</u> : "So, I want you in small groups for most of today, the last activity will be on your own, but go ahead and get in the groups you were in on Tuesday... (she organizes them by area in the classroom). We have some things to discuss (reads the questions in the slide and explains one of them). Take a few minutes and discuss these with your groups."	Students discuss quietly	
9:42	Teacher to class		<u>Debriefing</u> (around 6 minutes; she goes over the answers to question on the slide) "So what is relevancy? what does it mean?" a student responds and she gives an example: you want to find something that's exactly what you're talking about. So, even it's covering your topic, it may not have the information that you specifically want..." (she transitions to next question). "What else? Let's do this search as an experiment..." (She does that and continues to elicit some questions). "What else is in here that might help you determine the relevancy?... (Points to slide 3: "So those are	Students are a little slow to respond. At the beginning, the same students tend to respond. More students answer as she performs her search and ask specific questions that give some hints at the beginning. Then some	N/A

Figure 5. Bettie's sample lesson

10:23	Teacher to groups and then individual students as they respond.		<p>used. So, you'll decide, or I'm gonna ask you about 6 examples and I'm gonna ask you, are they good or bad?"</p> <p><u>Elicitation and debriefing:</u> She reads example 1 and says "is that good or bad?" (A student responds "good"). Teacher: "Good. Why? Does it answer the two questions?... (she asks each of these questions at a time and a student responds "yeah." She supports the answer by showing where it is in the example statement). "So it is good, it's got the 3 to 4 sentences and I don't see any samples of informal language. Example 2..."</p> <p>(About example 3): "Let's see hands for good. Hands for bad?" Two hands for bad. Why?" After students responses show that they are having difficulty deciding on their answer, she helps them by going question per question in her check list and asking students if they are answered in the example statement. She clarifies that is not a perfect one and that they should be careful not to include info about reliability here.</p> <p>(Same procedure for example 4,5 and 6) About example 5 she says: "why some of you think it's bad?... You wanna use that specific vocabulary... I want you to focus on academic tone because it will be for the rest of your paper."</p> <p>*Teacher's thinking behind how to conduct this segment: "if I see <i>all</i> the hands go up for good and that's supposed to be good, I'm like 'ok, they pretty much get it' I'll touch on what's good about it, but I can then move on. But... a couple of the examples are almost even... so I'm like: 'ok, I have to focus on what the difference is here, so that they understand.'"</p>	<p>Most students pay attention.</p> <p>A few students reply, some of the rest raise their hands timidly to show their answer.</p> <p>Student responds a few seconds after.</p>	
10:11	Teacher to class Groupwork (same groups as before)	Class slide 13: "In your groups"	<u>Instructions:</u> "So, in your groups, you're going to write a relevancy statement for the following article. So you need to go to the article and decide where will it be useful in our paper. So, go back to then outline and see where it might be used. Remember to describe what areas will be relevant (brief example and restatement of points in relevancy statement checklist requirements).	After students read the article for about 2 minutes, they type eagerly and fast. Class is quite silent a very few students are heard discussing.	Article and students' relevancy statements are on Appendix L.

Figure 5 (cont.)

Researcher's comments on this lesson and the teacher's principles it illustrates

For this teacher, this was her favorite lesson in terms of how well it went. As was commented in a previous section, for this teacher the success of this lesson (and her other lessons) depends on students' understanding exactly what they need to do and demonstrating that understanding through participation during the debriefing and elicitation phases. In this lesson, students were able to identify good and bad relevancy statements and later, to produce two of them, in groups and then individually. The class started with a brief hint at the upcoming cultural lesson as well as short class announcements for future assignments, which shows clarity and organization. Then, the teacher introduced the class topic and explored students' knowledge through short, small group discussions. Instructions were delivered orally and were also described on the course slides. Once she gave the instructions students discussed rather quietly. During the discussion she circulated back and forth, calmly down the center of the classroom observing and listening, as it happened during all class activities. She started the debriefing and elicitation a few minutes later, directly asking a question to the class. In the first and other activities students were rather slow in responding, so she resorted to a practical demonstration (through a library search) and formulated specific questions. These seemed to work well because students began to respond more and the same time allowed her to emulate what students would have to do on their own. By the end of this activity, she had students practice determining relevancy with set of authentic articles on the class topic: food waste, which students did in groups (shows concern for fostering practice with authentic material and prepare them for the "real world").

When it came to debriefing and elicitation she asked the specific groups to justify their answers, to which students responded immediately. She praised student work as usual after all

activities in this and her other classes. After that, she presented the required information for relevancy statements, explained and had students evaluate 6 examples of good and bad ones as a class. To evaluate them, she consistently used the checklist (shows support and clarity) that had been introduced so she was able to elicit specific answers from students. In addition, to stimulate analysis, she asked some students to justify their answers (“making students think”). Seeing they had understood, she moved on to a group practice writing a statement with an authentic source.

During the debriefing for this and the last activity she reiterated the points in the checklist to evaluate how good there were. While for her such reinforcement throughout makes it easier for students to know what to do, another reason for it was that she “did [not] want [students] to make it a summary. I did not want them to mix it up with summary.” This lesson was a representative example of her concern and emphasis on the use of academic tone, a topic that students had been briefly introduced to in unit 1. For her, teaching her students to maintain an academic tone “is in most of [her] classes a main take away.” From her knowledge of the student population, she asserts it is something “[students] struggle with” especially in terms of their use of “indescriptive words,” she argues.

Regarding students’ reactions to the activities, they were rather quiet at first, but provided answers to specific questions. While in general they were rather quiet, during the practice sections in groups and individually most students seemed on task and typed very eagerly and fast throughout. Timing was not a concern, so activity instructions did not specify time restrictions; still, regardless of the non-rushed pace, the class seemed very productive. As usual in her other lessons observed, students always had more than one opportunity to practice in class and as it was the teacher’s goal that they “did their own work.” In fact, she told them that the last activity was part of their work for the unit assignment. Finally, as the lesson plan shows, a single source

was used as support to conduct the whole class which was supported by Google docs set up by the teacher for students' practice in all activities.

How does this teacher see herself as an EAP writing teacher?

Based on her survey rating on this question, she rated herself with a 5 in a 6 point Likert scale, which shows she thinks of herself as a good EAP writing teacher. Although it was not possible to know her exact reasons, it is possible to infer that some of the elements she values in good teachers are also those that she displays in her own teaching. In addition, she admit that experience has made her better. For instance, she declares to be more familiar now with academic writing and how to teach it as a result of her teaching of several ESL writing service courses (some more than once) and also a better understanding of the ESL student population and their needs. In terms of personal characteristics, she claims to be passionate about teaching and to care about her students. That caring attitude shows at many levels, ranging from how she refers to them as her “kids,” treating them with respect by always being available for them to finding “creative ways to teach the unfamiliar.” For her, good teachers invest themselves in their students, which she demonstrates in her teaching. Indeed, the observation and analysis of her teaching practices show that she is a very good teacher, as she displays many—if not all of the characteristics of a good teacher as described in the literature (see chapter 2 and the last section in this chapter). Similarly, as a sign of the reflective attitude of best teachers, she has a critical stance towards her lessons: if an activity did not go as planned or other class-decisions turned out not to be the best, she analyzes the possible reasons for that and then tries again. In fact, when asked what she needed to do become an even better teacher than at present, she said it was important to be “open to failure and to embarrass yourself...always being invested in what to improve and how, no matter the scores, keep yourself passionate about it and trying new things.”

Case 2: George: “I know I can make a class better by being an energetic facilitator”

His background and sources of teaching principles and practices

He was born and raised in the U.S, so English is his mother tongue although he also knows Spanish and some French. He has a TESL certificate and a MATESL degree from UIUC, from which he graduated in 2014. He has around 7 years of teaching experience at university level classes, both in EFL and ESL contexts. He has taught EFL in Quito for 3.5 years and then in Moscow for a year. As for his ESL experience, he was an ESL writing teaching assistant for 2 years while he was in the MATESL program, and a course leader for 4 semesters. By the time of this project, he was a course leader and had become a lecturer for ESL 115. He did not always know that he wanted to be a teacher, but his learning experiences with good (and bad) teachers inspired him to become one:

“I would say both are equally as valuable and influential, because you’re like “I wanna be like that teacher.” I didn’t know that I wanted to be a teacher...but I’d had enough good teachers in my life to realize that is a worthwhile way of spending your time and they’d provided a good example of how I should spend my time, but I’ve also had really bad teachers and I don’t wanna be like *that*, at all.”

The most influential teachers were his mother and later on, Dr. Dickerson in MATESL.

His influences on L1 and L2 writing principles and on general teaching

He has always enjoyed writing, which he sees as “sharing a secret” and as a vehicle that allows him to express himself exactly in the way he wants. For that reason, as a student he would ask his mother, a communications major, for help. For him that was “the best writing training [he] received” as she “held his hand” and they worked together. He loves how clearly she expressed herself, values her patience and encouragement, and also her teaching of grammar and

style, which in his opinion was more useful than “any book or ...rules” have helped him become the good writer he considers himself to be as well as the patient and supporting teacher he is with his students. From Dr. Dickerson, his former Phonology professor, he seems to have learnt the most, as he has had the greatest impact in the way he currently teaches: “I consciously try to model the way I teach writing to the way he teaches pronunciation.” Such modeling transcends the classroom towards a type of work ethic; what he values the most is that this professor showed that he “genuinely cared” about his students, something that he said he has come to admire. In the case of this class, it was very demanding, but he remembers how the teacher was always encouraging and willing to support students. Today, he tries to emulate the same relationship with his students, one of collaboration and support. In addition to that, in terms of materials, he says he remembers how full of resources and links this professor’s course website was, and therefore, how useful those resources were for him out of class where the majority of learning occurred. Currently, his website has also similar features. Overtime, experience teaching the same course a few times, and the “support for professional growth” (and even as an “emotional support system”) received from peers in the ESL writing program has helped him become a better teacher than before.

A glimpse at his class

“All right. So... that’s it, for summaries. You guys crushed it! So, for homework, I want you to start working on the summary for the annotated bibliography. The final annotated bibliography is due next Tuesday at 11:55 pm. Do you have any questions?...You guys can do it! I know you can! Believe in yourselves!”

Being in George’s class is like a roller coaster ride. It is class thirty one in the semester and the deadline for a major research paper is due in a few weeks for students by the end of the

semester, along with students' finals for their other courses. It is just 10 am and there is 50 minutes for class. By this time in the semester, students are tired and overwhelmed, but in his class that does not seem to show. As soon as instructions are given, students start discussing and other times, typing. When they are called on, they respond quickly, too. By the end of the class in the excerpt above, students had worked on day three of summaries and had been working hard in that class and the previous ones.

His EAP teaching principles and examples from practice

Clarity ensures success

For him, this class is a “typical class,” and he enjoys working with his students. As the opening quote shows, he believes in them and their ability to do “really good work” (a written assignment or “product”), which is achieved if they “get clear instructions and understand the purpose [of what they are doing].” Thus, he shows that for his students to do good work, an important element is his responsibility as a teacher to convey instructions and the aim of the assignments clearly. For him the success of an L2 writing class, more than in any other class perhaps, depends on clarity. In his view, such clarity ranges from a program, curricular level, to an individual class:

“a program with clear learning outcomes and a way to evaluate whether your students were able to reach those outcomes...I think a class should be a smaller version of that; [it] should have some clear outcomes, objectives and a way to see if you achieve those outcomes.”

At a class level, such clarity translates into both how this teacher conveys the aims of and directions for major written assignments as well as for in-class activities (written and oral) so that students understand. Below are some examples of how he does this in practice: “Using that

link (see “assignment description” in blue in the figure below) discuss the answers to these 6 questions with someone sitting next to you. You don’t have to write them down, I just want you to discuss and you’re only going to have 4 minutes to come up with the answers.” This shows that he gives very specific instructions: where to go, what to do, how (alone, pairs or in groups, just talking), and the time limit. For greater clarity, he has similar instructions written on the course website in addition to the questions students need to discuss as shown in Figure 6:

III. Overview of the Annotated Bibliography Assignment

Take a minute to read through the overview [assignment description](#) for the Annotated Bibliography assignment. Once you have finished, answer the following questions with your partners:

1. How is an Annotated Bibliography different from a normal bibliography? [Check here](#) for a hint.
2. How is the Annotated Bibliography connected with the Pre-Research Portfolio?
3. How many sources are you expected to use? What kinds of sources will they be?
4. Each Annotated Bibliography entry will have four parts. What are these four parts?
5. What is a “relevancy statement”? Can you think of an example?
6. How is the Annotated Bibliography connected with the final research paper (IRP)?

Figure 6. Example of instructions on George’s course website

In addition to the clarity in instructions, as Figure 6 shows, the questions he asks his students to discuss are all aimed at helping them understand what the unit assignment will be about and most importantly, how the assignment connects to their current (Pre-Research Portfolio) and the next unit assignment, the final research paper. It is by asking these questions that he ensures students know what is expected from them and hopefully find a purpose to what they have been doing, what they are doing in the class that day and how all of those steps count towards a final product.

For him, there are too many considerations when writing, so “extra considerations like classroom assignment information should be made as simple as possible because they are just additional complications.” Therefore, he seems to be putting himself in the students’ shoes and

facilitating their writing process. In terms of evaluation and to ensure understanding on the part of students, he prefers an inductive approach, which is illustrated by the questions in the table above. Instead of the teacher giving the assignment description and requirements, it is through those questions that students themselves are providing the answers.

“Show v/s tell” and the role of questions for noticing

While he admits that “telling” students can be helpful, his teaching experience has made him shift towards an inductive approach. Under that approach, students’ discovering the answers, rather than being given the answers is key: “taking an assignment, deconstructing it, and [that students] tell *you* [the teacher] what the purpose is as opposed to you [the teacher] telling them; then they’ve shown you they understand.” Indeed, deconstruction was a term frequently brought up by him during the interviews as part of the inductive approach as seen in his lesson plans. As the term “inductive” suggests, he wants his students to analyze the parts of an assignment or a topic and have them figure out how those work to make sense of a whole. In practice, he does this through asking questions very often in every class. Through his carefully thought out questions he is able to see if students understand well and most importantly, he wants to make students think. Ultimately, he says, having students think is “the mark of a good teacher.” The following is an example where students are reviewing the parts of an annotated bibliography: (After a student mentions one of the parts) Teacher: “Relevant statement, ok. What’s that mean? (the student elaborates) and the teacher says: “Ok. So, can you give me an example? It’s a great definition...“how a source is specifically relevant, connected, so...what does that mean?” For him, that students tell him the correct term is not enough to show understanding, so he probes further so that students know the usefulness of this information and how to apply it later. In this

case, this clarification may help students better select and explain the suitability of their sources for their research paper.

Scaffolding, “pushing” and “producing”

As attested during the observations, a further role of questions and as important as that of making students think is that of scaffolding, drawing from social constructivist theory and its extension to task based language teaching. Questions (either delivered verbally or in printed form in class handouts) are a way to show students what they need to focus on to reach the class outcomes and provide a solid foundation of understanding for each in-class activity, each of which builds up on the other and increases in difficulty or “challenge,” as he puts it. In his class, scaffolding takes different shapes. Besides tasks sequencing and teacher-initiated questions scaffolding shows by always encouraging students to ask questions for clarification and providing assistance if they request it while they are on task. In addition to that, scaffolding is a distinctive characteristic of his class materials (whether digital or printed handouts or powerpoint presentations). In this excerpt about why he chose to teach summarizing by having students answer guiding questions, he argues that,

“everybody has a pretty similar idea of what a summary is, but like nobody does a good job of explaining how you do that, so with the guiding questions...that was my idea of trying to lead them and...scaffold them...towards telling me what kind of information needs to go there [in the summary].”

The purpose was helping people “identify the important content” [which is] for him more important than the language in summary writing. Interestingly, he is not the sole promoter of scaffolding; in fact, he places a lot of emphasis on student to student interaction and group collaboration among students themselves, which is seen in the regularity of pair and group work

activities. In all, the role of scaffolding in his class is to help students learn more easily and effectively, be it via his lead or that of the students themselves. For him a good example of scaffolding was the class on annotated bibliography, as there was a chance for students to get familiar with the term (by looking for the answers), with the assignment, and then through a sample analysis of an annotated bibliography entry discover its features and the purpose of each of its parts.

“Let’s keep moving!”

Through scaffolding, he assists and at the same time “pushes them [students]” either to think or do. Over time, seeing that they are capable of “keeping up [with class activities]” and do good work has made him “keep pushing them.” He states, “if I am *not* pushing them, then they won’t work as hard as they can and then they won’t get as much done.” This pushing transcends the content level to dictating the pace of the class, which in all classes observed, was very quick (around 3 to 4 minutes per activity and an average of 3 or 4 activities per class). In addition, a quick pace shows in how he elicits questions during debrief sections, how explicit he is about time constraints for each activity, how he times each activity with an alarm, and even in how frequently he uses the phrase “keep moving.” He admits that a quick pace is a core element of his teaching style, although for him, the amount and type of pushing is determined by the class time (early morning), the environment (if students look too tired or are more enthusiastic), or how familiar students are with the material. As the excerpt above shows, constantly reminding students to move forward is a way “to get as much done,” which reveals that time constraints—at the class and curricular level—are one of the main reasons behind the class pace and the subsequent pedagogical choices that display it. In addition, it highlights the role of practice as

essential for writing improvement, as students have multiple opportunities to do so in every class.

Time constraints: a short class and complex skills to teach

In relation to the unit observed, he felt the pressure of having to teach complex skills in a short period of time to keep up and stay on schedule with the course syllabus, so finding practical ways (such as saying “let’s keep moving”) to motivate his students and himself is key:

“In two classes we are supposed to teach people how to summarize well or teach people how to paraphrase well...it’s too much so ...I do it for myself and I think I also do it for students so that mentally they’re used to “ok, we’ve done something and we’re gonna keep moving.”

He later adds: “Trying to teach someone how to write a summary in two days is a really, really, really tall order” which seems to suggest that although he has tried to do as best as he can, the program curriculum may be too ambitious. In particular, even though in his opinion the second summary lesson went well, he wished “we’d had a little bit of time for practice [working on style by tailoring sentences so that they make more cohesive summary paragraphs with the proper punctuation].” Even when as a teacher he is pleased with the increase in quantity and quality of students’ written work (see Appendix M for a sample of students’ work in the summary class referred to in the quote above), he wishes there was more room in the curriculum and the syllabus for a deeper treatment of each topic. Ideally he argues, students would get familiar with a single topic each of the 16 weeks of the semester and be asked to produce a written piece by the end of each week. Similarly, if his class lasted 80 minutes like that of the other two participating teachers, he would like to make some space for style in the form of a

“language focus workshop where students can make their work their own [by looking at] what are the parts that can be put in a different order and why. If I had more time, I would incorporate a style point into every lesson, but that’s not a priority.”

Building trust: good teacher-student communication and consistency

While in terms of oral and written proficiency and amount of student participation, he considers this class to be a “pretty typical group,” he acknowledges that the fact that they are all first semester freshmen is “a big deal” in that besides being sometimes a little overwhelmed by their other core classes, for many of them, he says, “this is kind of a new...class” where the teacher-student interaction may be quite different from that of their other classes (which he says may be larger, more lecture based, or more practical, for example). In fact, he says that at the beginning of the semester students seemed to not know how to “interact with [him],” but once he clarified that they could come to office hours and talk to him where they would “work things through,” or that he would “respond to emails and questions promptly,” communication with them became better. As an example, he says, students began asking clarification questions in class. By following through on those actions consistently throughout the course, he has earned students’ trust and created a class environment that is non-threatening and comfortable enough for students to not only answer but also ask questions, even when those questions signal that the teacher’s instructions were not as clear. In all, students know that as a teacher he will be there to support them throughout their learning process.

A key principle behind many aspects of his teaching, in and out of class, is consistency (a term he uses often as well). While he did not explain exactly what the reason was behind it, it is possible to connect it to his stated idea of a certain amount of routine needed in a class. He argues that it is through routine that students learn about their teachers and also what their

teachers expect from them. For instance, in his classes, a consistent feature is the class quick pace and a short time to do activities. By implementing all the actions (timing and the language in the instructions) previously described and always eliciting answers immediately when the time is up, his students had gotten used to work efficiently. Similarly, it was observed that pair and group work discussions were very frequent, so students generally started discussing among them almost immediately after the instructions, which is another way of behaving in class they have gotten used to. Other aspects where this teacher shows consistency—especially in the layout, sections and type of questions with the same terminology in each—are in the course website and class materials (digital and printed).

“Making connections” as a sign of students’ learning

“Connection” was a term frequently brought up by this teacher in the interview. For him, it is what he aims with every activity he creates because it signals that students learn. In practice, the meanings of that connection vary. Sometimes it refers to connections between previous and new knowledge (whether of terms or skills); others, it refers to connections between class content and activities to the class assignment or their usefulness outside the class; lastly, class sections may be considered connected in a more literal sense as a result of their sequencing. Regardless of the form, ultimately what “connections” seem to do is to help students make sense of what they are learning. In this respect, following educational theory, this principle and its practices resemble meaningful learning.

The role of pair and group work

Pair and group work occurred in almost all the classes observed. Although the educational background of his students made it hard for some of them to feel comfortable working with their peers, the teacher says that in the course of the semester the fact that they are

more comfortable with him and among themselves has made almost every student more receptive to it—so much so that through informal feedback most students have said they like it and “they want more.” For this teacher, there are several advantages of group work: it “builds relationships among classmates,” it gives students “four-skill language practice,” and fosters learning, collaboration, and interaction. This is possible because the leader (who “understands better” he says) can help their classmates and those classmates can turn to the leader or to any other classmate for help rather than towards the teacher. In this manner, they can learn from each other and sometimes “see new perspectives” that neither they nor the teacher had thought about, the teacher argues.

“If a picture is worth a thousand words, a writing sample is invaluable.”

As the quote indicates, writing samples are George’s most preferred ways to teach writing, especially when through group work students have to deconstruct it for further analysis, he says. His preference for samples arises from different sources: one of them is his own experience having to write (or teach the writing of) pieces from unfamiliar academic and non-academic genres. In those occasions, he has turned to samples as a way to familiarize himself with their styles and their discourse conventions so that he can convey his message effectively. Another is the use of them by Dr. Dickerson, whom he admires, and the last source, his teaching experience in Moscow. Unlike his UIUC classes, there he was not able to teach using Power Point or Google docs, so he found himself forced to come up with ways in which to teach writing effectively without those resources. Samples were a successful tool; therefore, now he frequently uses sample analysis to teach his students and thus facilitate their understanding of what they need to produce. He argues that while a rubric can serve that purpose, it is just the “skeleton”

whereas a sample may be the “body” that complements it and allows the students to see a fuller picture of what they are being asked to do.

A good EAP writing class

“This was a good class”

In each of the individual interviews, he was asked how his classes for the week went. When in his opinion classes went well, he justified it based on the accomplishment of the class objectives (stated explicitly on his course website in every lesson), the amount and quality of student interaction as well as that of written products in class. On the other hand, an unsatisfactory class is such when he is not able to reach the class objectives, particularly the ones he is concerned the most about. While the class in Figure 8 illustrates a good class, a class he did not like much was the one that followed, rough outlining. First, he thought he was “overambitious and tried to do too much.” As a result, he was not able to achieve the last of the class objectives, which he was very interested in. Ideally, he says, instead of students’ spending time on language “details,” he would have liked to have the students “share their main points in front of the class, [and subsequently forced them] to tailor their message differently,” which was his main goal.

His L2 writing principles and a sample class illustrating them

While the course goals are determined at a curricular level, when he tailors and phrases these to his class they all reflect the underlying principle of L2 writing (in this context) as functional and the belief that what his students learn will be useful for them out of the class. He defines functional in the following manner: “Using language to accomplish a purpose and doing so in a way that meets the audience expectation about how that purpose should be accomplished;” for him meeting those expectations translates into “get[ting] your message across

Class objectives (as stated on the course website):					
1. Differentiate the thesis statement of an argumentative essay and a problem-solution essay with respect to purpose 2. Describe the three-fold purpose of the problem-solution research paper (describe solutions, critique solutions, and offer improvements) 3. Build a tentative thesis statement that includes the three-fold purpose of their research paper					
Time	Type of interaction	Resources	Class segment or activity	Students' behavior	Students' written work
10 am	Teacher to class	N/A	<u>Ice breaker</u> : "How are you (student's name)?" "Is anybody gonna dress up for Halloween?"	Students responds right away enthusiastically	N/A
10:02	Teacher to class	Course website and teacher explaining "we got a lot to do today, so I'd like to get started...If everybody could go to the course website on day 22"	Class announcements (assignment deadlines, feedback available, library day)	Most students listen attentively	N/A
	Teacher to class	Course website (all three class objectives are stated here in full)	Class objectives: "today we're gonna keep talking about everybody's favorite topic: thesis statement"		
10:08-10:10	Groupwork (3)	Printed Handout (see Appendix N)	<u>Instructions</u> : "As I'm passing these out, I would like you to start discussing the question in Part 1. I'm gonna give you about 3 minutes and then we'll talk about the answers together." <u>Monitoring and assisting</u> (those students who are not discussing): "What do you think?" (helps students come up with the answer). <u>Timing</u> : "Ok, so you guys got about a minute left"	Almost all students start discussing right away (unintelligible from the audio recording)	N/A
10:13		Board to collect some of students' answers	<u>Debriefing</u> : (Timer goes off). "Ok, let's talk about this. So, where do you find an argumentative thesis statement (student name)? (Then he calls on a few more students to check the other answers. When he gets to the last one "What is the goal of an argumentative essay?" he congratulates a student for the answer and uses her idea to reinforce the point on the board).	Students respond to all his questions almost immediately as they are called on individually and their answers show that they understand.	

Figure 8. George's sample lesson

<p>10:29</p> <p>10:32</p>	<p>Teacher to class</p> <p>Groupwork (3)</p> <p>Teacher to class and individual students</p> <p>Teacher to the class</p>	<p>Printed Handout (Part 3) (see Appendix N)</p> <p>Board:</p> <p>Problem/population: describe</p> <p>Organization: describe</p> <p>Solution: critique and improvement</p>	<p><u>Instructions</u>: "Look at Part 3: Look at the prompt and with your partner and then tell me what 3 things have to happen before and during the paper. I'll give you 3 minutes."</p> <p><u>Monitoring and assisting</u>: He circulates and gives a hint to several groups to focus on the verbs in the prompt.</p> <p><u>Debriefing and elicitation</u>: (to class) "So, let's see how you did. Before you start writing, based on the prompt, what 3 things will you do?" (17 secs. silence). As nobody responds, he calls on a few students: "(name), what are you gonna do?" and they respond. While he listens, he collects the answers on the board to eventually make the connection between the components of the paper they will write with the skills they will apply in each. What he comes up with on the board is the result of the ongoing conversation between the teacher and the students (through the teachers' questions).</p> <p><u>Transition and sample analysis</u>: "So let's keep going. Let's look at an example." He elicits answers to check understanding of ideas in the sample thesis.</p>	<p>Students discuss, but they seem to have difficulty to come up with the answers as they ask George for help.</p>	<p>N/A</p>
<p>10:37</p> <p>10:40</p>	<p>Teacher to class</p> <p>Groupwork (3)</p> <p>Teacher to class</p>	<p>Printed Handout (Part 4) (see Appendix N)</p>	<p><u>Instructions</u>: "Time to do part 4. What I want you to do is deconstruct them. For each thesis st you are going to find what is the problem, the organization, and the solutions. I'll give you 4 minutes. Work on your same groups and if you have questions ask your partner"</p> <p><u>Timing</u>: "You got to finish it up, you got about 30 seconds" (Timer goes off).</p> <p><u>Debriefing and elicitation</u>: he elicits answers from individual students by calling on individual students.</p> <p><u>Closing and transition</u>: "The thing with writing these thesis statements, you guys will have all information you need...and the verbs that you need (points at the board). It's just like a puzzle, fitting these in one or two sentences."</p>	<p>Students start discussing immediately rather quietly.</p> <p>Students respond very quickly.</p>	

Figure 8 (cont.)

10:45	Teacher to class	Printed Handout (Part 5)	<p><u>Transition:</u> “All right. Last part. So you deconstructed thesis statements, now I want you to construct one, ok?” He checks the understanding of the topic and tells them to use the information given.</p> <p><u>Instructions:</u> “Come up with a thesis statement with this information. I will give you 3 minutes to do so. Good luck!”</p> <p><u>Monitoring and assisting:</u> he circulates around the room.</p>	Students start typing immediately. They are quick and look quite focused.	See Appendix N for document with students’ answers.
	Teacher and groups	Course website link to a Googledoc (see Appendix N for document and students’ answers).	<p><u>Timing:</u> timer goes off “when you finish, I want 1 person from each group to go to the course website and upload a thesis statement. Just one for each group” (He shows where to upload them).</p>		
10:49	Teacher to class			<p><u>Praise and closing:</u> “I really like what I am seeing” (reads some samples) “So everybody was able to construct a thesis statement in 4 minutes for a problem that you had no idea about before class.” He connects it to their filling out of a part of the PRP, hopefully [writing the thesis statement] won’t be a problem for you.”</p>	

Figure 8 (cont.)

Researcher's comments on this lesson and the teacher's principles it illustrates

For this teacher, this is one lesson he thought went well. First, he said all the objectives had been achieved and was particularly pleased students were able to achieve the last one, which for him was the ultimate proof that students understood the difference between argumentative and analytical thesis statements. The lesson activities and the material align with those objectives. In addition, the sequencing of activities increases in difficulty, moving from a review and presentation, towards analysis and application, in the form of mini practices. Throughout the class, there is practice of the four language skills and various forms of interaction, with learner-centered and collaborative work being predominant. Students participated enthusiastically during the class and showed understanding of the content through their answers and their written work at the end of the class, which may have been a result of their group work together with the teacher's debriefing at the end of each segment for reinforcement. Such good participation and work may also have been possible thanks to the careful sequencing of activities for scaffolding purposes, as it was frequently observed in this teacher's classes. On the other hand, the teacher conducted the class in an organized manner, gave clear instructions, circulated, assisted, and praised students for their work. The pace of the class was quick (less than 5 minutes in each activity), but students responded accordingly, and as a result, the teacher was able to achieve all the objectives for this lesson. The class atmosphere was friendly and students looked comfortable working in every section. Finally, the lesson shows the use of different class resources as it was often the case in the other classes observed (all materials and a sample of students' work is on Appendix O).

How does teacher see himself as an EAP writing teacher?

Based on his survey rating on this question, he rated himself with a 4 in a 6 point Likert scale. Although it was not possible to ask him why, from his ideas in the individual and group interviews it seems safe to assume that this score is because he believes there is always room for professional improvement. Such reflective behavior is to be expected based on his account of how specific practices have changed as a result of his diverse teaching experiences and how he keeps evaluating the success of every class and what needs to be modified for better reaching of the objectives when that is not the case. One characteristic he considered a unique strength in his teaching and that he was very proud of was being what he called “an energetic facilitator.” Whether by consistently using phrases such as “keep moving” or by actions as unconscious as fidgeting with the marker while circulating during activities, he does it “for himself and for students.” He knows that as there is plenty to teach in a morning class when students may not be quite awake and they need to be “pushed” in order to get activities done: “...if I come in with some energy and I can try and keep that going throughout class, I think people would either feed off that or at least be like ‘ok, if he’s acting like that, I’ll follow his lead’.” Despite his self-rating, the observation and analysis of his teaching practices shows that he is a very effective teacher, as he displays many of the characteristics of an effective teacher as described in the literature (see chapter 2 and later in this chapter).

Case 3: Leslie: “What I do is a big part of who I am. I want to be good at what I do.”

Her background and sources of teaching principles and practices

She was born and raised in Russia, but is currently a U.S citizen. She is highly proficient in English (in fact, to many of those who meet her, they wonder whether she is a native speaker of English) and speaks some German. She has B.A in TESOL, and a MATESL degree from UIUC, from which she graduated in 2014. She has around ten years of teaching experience of which five have been in EFL and other 5 in ESL contexts. This is her fourth year teaching academic writing at UIUC. Now a lecturer, ever since she started as a TA she has taught a wide range of courses in the ESL writing service program, all for graduate students—ESL 500, 501, ESL 502, ESL 503, ESL 505. The course observed has been her fifth time teaching the same level, which she said that had helped her have a better understanding of the curriculum, its goals, the lesson objectives as well as the student population. In addition, she admits that although teaching other non-writing related courses has been rather challenging at the time (such as ESL 508: pronunciation for ITAs) it has helped her understand and to some extent assist students with pronunciation issues in her other writing classes.

Her influences on L1 and L2 writing principles and general teaching

When it comes to her teaching, she is modest, yet confident in her teaching: “I mean...I do think that I am a good teacher...I mean it’s important to me to be a good teacher and what I do is a big part of who I am. I wanna be good at what I do.” For her being a good teacher has to do with what she has come to value herself as a student and the “teacher [she] would like to have.” In particular, she values those teachers who know their field very well, want to keep learning about it, and who are “able to relate complex concepts and...high level material to their students’ level...communication skills, be clear with expectations for the class...the structure of

the class, and each lesson.” Back in her home country, classes she was in were teacher-fronted, with a deductive approach. She recalls she learnt English through an audiolingual method, and that there was plenty of reading and mostly grammar practice, which is according to her one of her biggest strengths as an English teacher compared to native-speaker teachers. Even though she received formal writing instruction in her native language, it was focused on structure and rules, unlike the teaching style at UIUC. As for writing in English in her major, she did not do much of it, so it was only until she began the MATESL program that she became familiar with academic writing in English and had a chance to practice it.

She learnt most of it in ESL 507, the academic writing course for international writing TAs, but also from other sources such as the writing TA website, and other academic writing materials from the TESL library. In addition, she was able to put that knowledge and skills to the test in her master thesis. Today, she feels proud and confident in her academic writing skills in English: “I believe that my English writing skills are fairly good based on the feedback I received from my professors while I was in the MATESL program.” Thanks to the program, she has shaped her idea of what good writing (L1 and L2) should be and set her expectations for what she wants her students to learn. In her opinion, good writing occurs when one is “able to clearly and concisely relate the results of [their] primary or secondary research in compliance with writing conventions of that language.” Later sections will show the execution of those principles in her classroom.

As her writing has improved, so has her teaching. She has benefited from the TA website, attended mandatory professional development seminars, discussed with her colleagues in level meetings and observed other teachers. Most importantly, she is always eager to improve her teaching and keep learning about writing, regardless of the scale of the change. In her opinion,

no matter how perfect she thinks a lesson is, she “still usually reworks.” Talking to her during the interviews, one of the positively striking characteristics of her as a teacher was her willingness to find and the openness to try different strategies to make even the smallest detail of her lesson better. In fact, when asked about the features of her materials, after she pointed out she used frames on her worksheets, all of a sudden she said, “maybe I should ask students if they like it...” All the effort and dedication she puts in her teaching has paid off not only through consistent high ICES scores, but more personal comments from students themselves. She remembers how by the end of one of her courses, a student came up to her and told her that her class “had been the most thought out” that student had ever seen.

A glimpse at her class and her goals

“I want my classes to be dynamic...I want a lot to be accomplished in a class, and I want it mostly to be fun, I wouldn't want my students to be bored...I want them to feel that they are learning something that...they can use outside of the class.”

The quote above certainly represents what Leslie's classes are like. In her 80 minute class, there is no time to waste, so she makes sure students engage in a series of activities right after class announcements. Moreover, she makes every connection possible to show students how what she is teaching can be applied by or has implications for them, especially because many of them are researchers themselves, out of the classroom. As for being dynamic, every activity has been carefully designed so that students can maximize their participation and oral communication skills practice, which they do easily in small group work and to some degree when they are asked questions as a class. These features are the ones she uses to distinguish between a satisfactory and an unsatisfactory class. As for the latter, it is one with little practice and little participation. In the case of the particular class observed, it was described as a “pretty

typical ESL class” that is, one comparable to her previous classes “in terms of the composition,” proficiency, and “level of engagement.”

Her EAP teaching principles and examples from practice

“A lot of times in [ESL] classes [students] have problems being as active as we would want them to be”

So far in the semester, Leslie was pleased in terms of the writing progress her students had made and how responsible they had been in turning assignments on time. Nevertheless, her main concern with this particular group of students was little participation when asked questions as a whole class. Unlike her previous classes, this was the first where the majority of students (11 out of 13) were from the same cultural background (Chinese), so they tended to be more timid than previous students, especially when asked whole class questions. What frequently occurred in the lessons observed was that even if those that responded seemed quite confident, it was often the same students who volunteered to speak. For her, the ideal scenario would be one where students asked more questions or where she “asked a question and [she did not] have to call names.” She perceived it as something to improve and was thinking on ways to solve it, as she often does with any other aspect she wants to improve (she mentioned participation sticks as a possible strategy). Despite that, she readily admits that they talk much more when they are in small groups, which was attested to during the observation period. For her, participation in class, either individually or in groups is an additional goal to the writing component since it shows understanding and mostly “that that they are getting comfortable speaking English in front of an audience...and getting used to cultural standards of what participation is in a US university.” Thus, she makes every effort to foster it in her classes as the following sections will show.

“What can students get out of it? ... I want them to be able to apply the skills that we [see in class]; that’s the whole idea, right?”

For this teacher, the extent to which a class topic can be useful, that is, applied by students outside the class is a decisive criterion when it comes to discriminating between satisfactory lessons and those parts of it that need to be reworked. A case in point was her comment on the class segment on evaluative language. While she admitted that as it was it gave students the basic features of it, some examples and a little practice, she argued that some parts were insufficiently illustrated and practiced. In particular, she referred to the concept of “over hedging,” which is taught as “not recommended;” however, she said there were no examples of how this appears in an academic article so that students are able to identify it in those sources and in their own writing if needed. Similarly, she commented on the academic vocabulary analysis that was part of a bigger vocabulary piloting program and reported that although it was somehow useful (she saw the students’ interest in it in class) at this stage, it seemed incomplete as it was not clear how students were expected to use it out of the class. She thought of both of these to-be-reworked activities as being more of an “awareness-raising” type rather than having a direct outcome or application for students. In contrast, for the rest of her classroom tasks, she always wanted to make sure there was a specific outcome which students can directly connect to at least some of their work in their own majors or that the class materials were authentic; what can students “get out of it” seemed the underlying principle behind her lesson planning.

“[Inductive teaching] sticks a little better”

Besides teaching useful knowledge and skills, she does it in a manner that, in her view, ensures long-lasting learning: an inductive, task-based approach. Coming from a deductive educational background, the “shift” towards a more inductive approach to teaching became her

preference as she started the MATESL program and teaching as a TA. By looking at the lessons and observing others first and then through her own teaching experience, she realized that an inductive approach translated into “better quality of work...and what they can produce later on.” In this class, this was carried out by spending the majority of class time in activities where students were encouraged to discuss questions in pairs, come up with critique points, or discuss the quality of a research article rather than the teacher lecturing them on what makes a good article or what and how to critique. Aware that her students also needed to develop their critical thinking skills and that they can also contribute with their own knowledge about research and specific fields to the class discussions, one of her guiding principles is “giving them time to come up with as much of it on their own before I go in and tell them ‘here’s what you can critique.’” In this manner, besides more student engagement and participation, she gives students responsibility for their learning which ultimately turns into good quality of work. An example of this are her classes preparing students to do their own critique of a research article. In these, students spent the majority of class time focusing on discussing the content and possible critique points with each other rather than the teacher giving them a lecture on critiquing. This way of approaching critique was also an example of a focus on meaning before form, as students moved on to “summary critique” structure (which was slightly more teacher-fronted) only later in the unit.

“The work on this has been staged in some many different smaller chunks...so I think that by the end their essays will look pretty great.”

In combination with an inductive approach (as the one illustrated in the previous section), Leslie’s set of lessons were structured in a sequential manner, one building on the other as it is characteristic of task-based language teaching. Not only did tasks moved from meaning to form

focus, but they also were designed in a manner that would make the final summary critique assignment much more manageable to students. For instance, she had them discuss and practice critiquing an academic article in class, and then asked them to do so with the class article they would have to use in their assignment. However, instead of giving them “broad” directions for doing the latter (i.e: “write a draft of your article critique”) she asked them to work on the assignment step by step by submitting their work in smaller “chunks.” For example they had to submit three drafts with her (and sometimes their peers’) feedback between drafts: an outline (with possible critique points) and an introduction, their body paragraphs, and a final draft. In this manner, she said “you are more like to get good quality essays” and students “know what they need to do.” Such scaffolded tasks, each with a particular outcome, are the result of this teacher’s focus on structure. In fact, her preference for structure surfaced in a range of pedagogical aspects, from the way she conducted her classes, pre-formed groups, and designed her course website to all her materials’ features (layout and directions).

“I like structured activities...there’s gotta be an outcome...the more specific the outcome, the better they’re gonna do [the task] and the better their work is gonna be”

As it was mentioned before, structure permeates many aspects of Leslie’s teaching. The quote above shows that the main reasons she prefers structured activities is to ensure students do good work and “make it easier for [students] and for her.” In practice, structure can be seen in her materials by the features illustrated in Figure 9. While she acknowledged her preference for structure comes in part from her personal learning style, she said that she has kept it because overtime she has seen “better results” with it and thinks it is “more guided.” In her view, such guided material can help students “know what [they] need to do” and “what [they] need to come up with.” She added that it also helps students “review elements we saw in other units [such as]

PIE structure;” at the same time, especially for first drafts, very structured handouts as the one in Figure 9 give her “an idea of where they are going.”

“If you don’t provide something [an example], there’s too much room for variation”

In line with scaffolded and smaller structured tasks, another way in which she helps her students reach their learning outcomes is by providing them samples of the kind of writing they need to do. For instance, in the unit observed she gave students a former student’s sample of a

<p>Sample Summary Critique Evaluation</p> <p><u>Title and Introduction</u></p> <p>1. What is the title of the sample critique? Do you think it is a good title for this assignment?</p> <p>2. Underline the sentence in which the writer introduces the topic.</p> <p>3. Underline the sentence in which the writer introduces the source.</p> <p>4. Underline the thesis statement. What formula does the writer use (positive + positive + positive; positive + negative + negative; positive = positive + negative).</p> <p><u>Body of the Critique</u></p> <p>5. What are the main ideas of the three body paragraphs:</p> <p>Paragraph 1: _____</p> <p>Paragraph 2: _____</p> <p>Paragraph 3: _____</p> <p><u>Conclusion:</u></p> <p>6. How does the writer conclude the essay?</p>
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Figure 9. Sample handout showing “structure” in Leslie’s materials.

critique, so that they could “see the structure expected.” The use of samples is what she has adopted over the years with mostly positive results. Because she has had students who had unintentionally plagiarized from the sample critiques given, now she is emphatic in telling students that whereas the structure is good in samples, these are not perfect or to be relied on 100%. Be it student samples or samples from peer-reviewed academic journals, she wants students to have a certain model to follow so that they know at least the structure of what they need to produce; in turn, it ensures that there is so much “variation” in the essays’ structure. In that regard, she admits that some student essays’ structure may be good without examples although it is also likely that others need that support.

“I wanna see effort and progress”

By staging the writing process through multiple drafts and very detailed information in them of what students need to include does not only make the final writing task more manageable to students, but also allows them and herself as a teacher, to “see the progress they’re making” she said. If there is one thing that pleases her as a teacher is to see that students’ progress from draft by either incorporating her feedback or their peers’: “I wanna see effort and progress; I need to know that they care at least a little bit.” Because that has not always happened, she has recently started to ask her students to add a short comment to their submissions about changes they have made. For that progress to actually occur, for her it is important that the nature of the changes aligns with the writing stage. In other words, in the initial stages, after a first draft, surface changes are not sufficient; rather, she wants students to focus on content and bigger structural issues first (see illustration of these principles in Appendix P with student sample).

Unlike the other participating teachers in undergraduate courses, she focused much more on students' understanding and application of APA citation rules and reminding and teaching them ways to avoid plagiarism. Such emphasis was given to address this particular class needs and also as a result of her previous teaching experiences. In the first case, she reported that this was the first time a class had problems following APA style guidelines, which motivated her to devote an entire class period to reinforce them and having them revise their work accordingly in class. As for plagiarism, when sample critiques to the class article have been given, she has had cases of students taking ideas from the samples unintentionally, but still plagiarizing. Consequently, this semester she decided to give students only the article to critique with no sample critique of that particular article, but of another. The focus on both aspects, particularly the first one can also be explained by the fact that they are relevant to her student population since many are or are becoming researchers in their fields. In fact, during the classes observed and in the interviews she pointed out the importance of responsible and well-designed research for credibility or the importance of following style guide rules for publication purposes as well.

“I want to create a learning community”

Besides the academic component, Leslie's goal as a teacher is to “create a learning community.” Sometimes, she said, it strikes her that far into the semester she has asked students to get in groups and realized that students did not know their classmates' names (even if they have worked in groups throughout the semester). “I would like to enter the classroom and see them talk to each other,” she expressed. Therefore, she has done several activities for students to be more comfortable with each other, with her, and for them to “get to know each other” better. She recalls how a few semesters ago she had students do a short five-minute presentation on their countries or culture to share with the class. She remembers that students enjoyed it, were very interested and asked many questions. For her, knowing about her students' cultures was

“fascinating” and it turned out to be a good way to “bring them together.” Due to such positive results, she hopes that she can do it again next time she teaches that level (ESL 501) since this current class level (ESL 500) did not allow her to do so due to time constraints and a tight agenda.

Over the course of her teaching graduate level writing courses, she has realized that giving room for cultural components is something students appreciate and enjoy. Besides their interest in other classmates’ cultures, she argues that many of them have manifested their desire to “learn more about American culture.” She thinks it would be “nice to incorporate [cultural] mini lessons.” Although time constraints may make it difficult to do it in shorter classes or in lower levels, the advantage would be that they help create that sense of community while also responding to students’ interests. In this particular class, she did just that. Taking advantage of the class being after Halloween, she had an ice-breaker activity in which students had to ask each other how they had celebrated it. Students seemed to like it as they talked enthusiastically to each other around the room for a couple of minutes, sharing their experiences, laughing and relaxing even for a short time.

As much as she wants her students to be comfortable and “build a relationship” with each other, she also wants them to have that connection with her as a teacher. In that respect, she would like to be perceived as a “peer” and “approachable;” as someone they can “come to” if they need help. Nevertheless, she is careful to clarify that she wants to be a peer, not a “friend [or] buddy,” in the sense that there needs to a certain “distance” between teacher and student, she argues. For her, what is essential for building that teacher-student connection is mutual respect, which she believes has to be “earned” by demonstrating it through a series of behaviors: “the

way you [as a teacher] conduct yourself in the classroom, the way you talk to them...how fast you respond to their emails and grade their papers, and what kind of feedback [you give].”

“Even things I thought went well I still usually rework”

Changes, both from one semester to another and from lesson to lesson is a consistent feature of Leslie’s teaching principles and practices. As the quote suggests, change is something she values highly in her teaching. Even if she has taught the same level several times, she “has never taught any class exactly the same [way].” She says there is always an element that can be improved, be it an entire activity that did not work well and that needs to be changed or eliminated, “confusing examples,” or better grouping strategies. At a deeper level, such an attitude reflects her desire to continuously improve her teaching. In her own words:

“one of the things that is important in teaching is your ability to recognize your own mistakes and things that didn’t go well...and constantly reevaluate your teaching and hopefully...move up a little, grow professionally with every semester you teach, so I think it’s ok to make mistakes...learn from them and incorporate the feedback that you receive or just your own reflection into the next time you teach it.”

From this excerpt, interesting concepts that she brought up were “learning from mistakes,” “incorporate feedback or reflection” and “move up and grow professionally.” They were presented as if growth were dependent on those two first ones. When associating teaching with growth she seems to give it a sense of continuity and an endless process; in turn, learning from mistakes and make changes based on feedback or reflection as a way to achieve that is reminiscent of her own expectations from his students. As it was pointed out previously, she wants to see students making efforts to improve and to see that they are making progress in the exact same manner: recognize mistakes and incorporate feedback to eventually improve. Thus,

judging by the quote above, she seems to replicate the same expectations and demands from herself as a teacher.

Those changes and consequent improvement would be impossible if it were not for self-evaluation as well as those of student needs and wants. Whether it is something students' need or something they want, discussing and observing her lessons and her concerns for the classes she teaches showed that she has a keen eye for what her students' need (in a general sense and from lesson to lesson) and that she is also quite open to try new strategies or activities either to meet those needs (more participation and interaction, more guidance with formatting issues) or to respond to her students' concerns (incorporating the cultural aspects). The lesson described in Figure 11—part of unit 3 and the second one of the 5 classes observed—is an example of these and other of her teaching principles in action. Figure 10 shows the class setting and teacher circulation in the class illustrated and Figure 11 the complete class described. After the figure describing her class, researcher's comments are made to discuss the practices in that particular lesson along with the specific principles behind the teacher's pedagogical decisions. (Resources are found in Appendix Q).

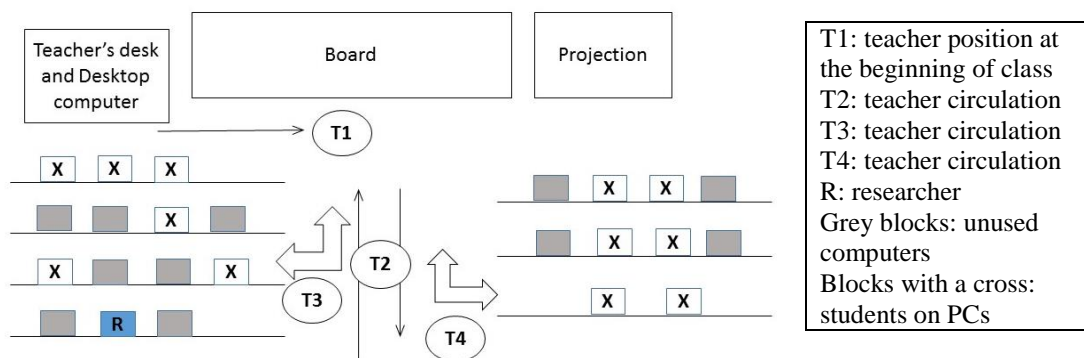


Figure 10. Leslie's classroom setting and circulation. The icons T1 through T4 represent different patterns of this teacher's circulation at the beginning and during the lesson. As the figure shows, at the beginning of the class the teacher was in the front to later circulate up and down the center of the room, and then getting into different groups on both sides of the classroom (intently, not necessarily due to being called by students) in every activity in that class. Whenever the teacher approached groups it was to hear what they were discussing and sometimes ask them follow-questions to keep their discussions going (she even took part in some of the conversations). In comparison to the undergraduate teachers, she did not approach students to see if they were on task; in this case, this was because all students were always on task so her monitoring on individual students was not necessary. This circulation pattern was common in all classes observed.

Class objective (stated verbally in class):					
1. Evaluating the reliability of sources					
2. Discussing the class article for potential critique points					
Time	Type of interaction	Resources	Class segment or activity	Students' behavior	Students' written work
3:30	Teacher to class	Course website	<p><u>Greeting</u>: "Ok, why don't we get started. How are you doing today?"</p> <p><u>Class announcements</u>: tells them they should have received her feedback on draft and praises them on progress, but tells them they have several APA issues to revise for next draft. Then she shows them the class calendar for upcoming content and activities for the week.</p>	Some students answer her greeting	N/A
3:34	Teacher to class	Course website (see Appendix P for survey given to students in this section)	<p><u>Objective and warm-up</u>: "So we're going to start today, you know, talk a little about how...when we're doing research we need to evaluate our sources, right? And we started talking a little about evaluating sources last time and we'll do a lot more of that today, but before we get to that I wanted to know YOUR opinion about how you work with sources and how YOU select sources"</p>	After instructions are given, students start typing immediately. During debriefing, students seem very engaged and give answers with ease. These are more extensive than those of undergraduate students and those who respond seem much more confident than the undergraduate group.	N/A
3:35	Teacher to class	<p>(She gives some directions to access the survey) "I would like you to share your experience finding sources." She goes through the questions, and then says:</p> <p><u>Timing</u>: "Go ahead, take a couple of minutes and respond to the survey"</p> <p><u>Debriefing</u>: (after around 2 minutes, she pulls up the responses summary and goes over some answers eliciting from students) "Whoever said "other," can you tell us what you use? What's a peer-reviewed journal? How reliable are the sources that you can find through the library database?"</p>			
3:40		<p><u>Praise</u>: I think those are all really good criteria. Great!</p> <p><u>Transition</u>: so let's talk about the reliability of the sources...(she goes over some questions about the reliability of some sources: library database, google, Wikipedia and elicits answers from students depending on their answers for further</p>			

Figure 11. Leslie's sample class.

			discussion). "What do you think about it? How do you use it?" * she takes what students said to keep discussion going		
3:44	Pairwork	Course website link to "Scholarly v/s popular sources" and a printed handout (handout on Appendix O continued)	<u>End of transition and instructions for next activity:</u> "So, a lot of the times... we come across scholarly sources, like research articles, but also we'll talk about some popular sources, so let's talk about the differences between those two. We have two articles linked here... (shows link to access them) Very briefly look through those two...and list some of the differences that you see between academic sources and popular sources."	Students discuss enthusiastically after a few minutes.	N/A
3:45			"I will have you work in pairs and together you'll have to fill out this table" (She forms groups quickly). <u>Monitoring and assisting:</u> she circulates around the room listening closely to the group's discussions, but trying not to interrupt. She also offers clarification and what can be useful for them to look at. Sometimes she continues the conversation with individual students and praises them "that's a good point."		
3:50			<u>Praise and debriefing:</u> "you guys made some really good points" She elicits a few answers from students that focus on the main differences between the articles. She also makes reference to what students commented while she circulated: "W and H brought up a really good point about language, can you share it with us?"		
3:55	First individual work, then in pairs.	Course website link to an article from "The Onion"	<u>Transition to next activity:</u> Before we move on to the article, I want to do one quick practice and look at one website. <u>Instructions:</u> Go ahead and look through the article and decide if you think this is a reliable source. Would you consider looking up more information and then using this information in your research. Go ahead and discuss this with your partner again. <u>Monitoring and assisting:</u> She circulates around the room and listens closely to groups, asking some what they think.	Students start talking enthusiastically immediately after instructions are given.	
3:59			<u>Debriefing:</u> Ok, so you all agree that this is not reliable, for different reasons, right? You said, the results are not		

Figure 11 (cont.)

			<p>stated...those are good reasons...google the source...it's all fake news...on the surface it looks reliable, but it's not.</p> <p><u>Praise:</u> good job!</p>		
4:01	Pairwork (same groups as before)	-Printed copy of "Beauty Sleep" article -Googledoc with reading questions in preparation for the activity.	<p><u>Transition:</u> "I want to spend most of the time...discussing 'The beauty sleep' article that you read"</p> <p><u>Instructions:</u> "Let me tell you who you're going to be working with and how we're gonna do that. I broke down the article into sections. Let's get in pairs (makes pairs, each for a different section: Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion). "So let me explain to you what I want you to do. Whatever part you are responsible for I would like you to do a bulleted list...of the most important aspects of that section. For instance...(shows some possible information to include)." H you're the statistics expert, right? So you can focus in...if you can explain that..."</p> <p><u>Monitoring and assisting:</u> "So go ahead, get started and I'll come around and help." She circulates, listens to the group discussions and clarifies some students' questions about the article.</p> <p><u>Timing:</u> "Ok, one more minute, if you haven't finished"</p> <p><u>Instructions:</u> what we're gonna do next...right now there are 12 people here, two people worked in each section. Now I'm gonna put you in groups of 6, so half and half, in each group you're gonna have one person from each section. What you will need to do in your group is present the brief summary of your section to just 5 people in your group and then we'll go an identify the critique points. One group on this side and then the other will be on this side (forms groups).</p> <p>"Go ahead and get started, you only get like one minute to talk about your section..."</p> <p><u>Monitoring and assisting:</u> she listens to the students and clarifies if they have questions.</p> <p><u>Timing:</u> Ok, we're almost running out of time, we only have like 10 minutes left so let's just very briefly sum up.</p>	<p>First, students discuss and take notes quietly as they examine the article carefully.</p> <p>Around 15 minutes into the activity, students everybody in the class is discussing animatedly.</p>	<p>Students list of points (not available)</p>
4:05					
4:21-4:24	Groupwork				
4:34	Teacher to groups and then individual students as they respond.				
4:40				<p>Students switch sides. They start discussing right away. One of the groups seems more cohesive than the other. Students pay attention to each other as they keep eye contact throughout the activity.</p>	

Figure 11 (cont.)

			<p><u>Elicitation and debriefing:</u> I think all of us got a good understanding of what the general research was about, right? (she summarizes main points of the study) “What was the main result? Let’s talk about some of the critique points (she elicits some answers from students) Some positive points? Negative points? (She elicits one positive and negative point per group, asks follow-up questions and debriefs clarifying some ideas interspersed with students’ answers).</p>	<p>Students answer questions enthusiastically and all seemed engaged in the discussion (they pay attention and laugh at some critique of the research).</p>	
4:50			<p><u>Closing:</u> Do you have any questions about this article? Ok, so on Thursday we’ll talk about more of the language of the critique and we’ll start talking about the structure, like how you’re gonna put this together on paper, now that you have an idea of what...so keep thinking about the points that you wanna bring up...no homework for Thursday so I will see you in class then.”</p>	<p>N/A</p>	

Figure 11 (cont.)

Researcher's comments on the class and the teacher's principles it illustrates

As usual in the classes observed, the teacher started the class with a quick greeting, brief feedback about submitted assignments and a short preview of upcoming lessons in the week by showing the course calendar on the course website home page. After that, she continued by stating the class topic and a warm-up. Usually in the classes observed this segment was done in pairs; however, in this one she decided to do it individually. Still, the nature of the activity demonstrates her focus on having students share and make use of their expertise and experience with research as graduates. This is seen not only in the types of questions she asks in the survey, but also in the way she debriefs after students have completed it. To start the debrief, she uses phrases such as “Let’s talk about this together,” which prepared students for the discussion by establishing that her expectations are that they share their knowledge and have a sort of “conversation” with the teacher about their answers. Throughout the debrief, in that segment and later in the lesson, she goes over some of the answers with the class interspersing praises with elicitation from students, especially to ask follow up questions for students to elaborate more. A particular feature that stands out in this segment is how it seems a conversation with students by her use of phrases that refer to their contributions, such as: “Along the lines of what you said,” or in this class “Wenyulin and Hanzhi brought up a really good point about language, can you share it with us?” Throughout this class and others, conversations such as those would not have been possible without elicitation from students and even more so thanks to the teacher circulation during activities. Her circulation was key since listening closely to students discussions and sometimes directly joining the conversation when consulted allowed her to include useful comments from students during debriefing.

Previous to this class, the teacher's perception was that students had not been as "active" as she wanted them to be during class discussions, so in this lesson she deliberately included a jigsaw activity to have them participate more. She decided it was a good strategy because she had seen that they were more comfortable speaking in small groups to each other than speaking up individually in whole class discussions. Ultimately, the design and execution of the jigsaw activity shows her principle of addressing students' needs and also her preference for structure in several levels. First, in asking students to read the article in preparation for the class following guiding reading questions, then, in how she had pre-formed groups (according to students' abilities) and gave very specific instructions about what they needed to do. As seen in this lesson and the others observed, her instructions consistently included what to do, how or where to access the materials, what to fill out, the grouping, a time limit and some expectation ("you don't need to read the whole article," "you don't have to give so many details"). Additionally, the activity also shows her use of scaffolding and primary focus on the content of the article before moving on to structure. In this case she explicitly told students she wanted to spend most of the class discussing the article so that they understood it well and had a chance to think about possible critique points they wanted to make later on their own critiques.

Unlike the other classes observed, there was no homework assigned, but there was still a clear closing section that briefly stated the upcoming class topic, thus making connections between lessons (also a feature at the beginning of class). Concerning students' reception and participation in the class, in this class and the others they there were engaged from the beginning of the lesson, paying attention and sharing their ideas. In whole class discussions some students gave extended answers and seemed confident and at ease talking, while in small groups every student worked with one another as soon as instructions were given. They seemed to be very

focused on their tasks and discussed enthusiastically throughout. Class atmosphere was friendly, but also seemed very productive in terms of how much the teacher was able to do in the class period. Her class then reflects her principles of an ideal class in the sense of “accomplishing a lot,” being very dynamic and most of all, demonstrating a clear understanding of “where the class is going and relat[ing] that to students.”

How does this teacher see herself as an EAP writing teacher?

Based on her survey rating on this question, she rated herself with a 5 in a 6 point Likert scale, which shows she thinks of herself as a good EAP writing teacher. As it was previously discussed at the beginning of the section, she believes she displays many of the characteristics described in the literature of effective teaching, which were corroborated during class observations. Among these are thorough knowledge of the subject, a clear understanding and communication of class learning outcomes to students, desire to keep learning and improving her classes, availability and concern about students, and consistent organization and structure across and within lessons, just to mention a few.

In spite of her positive self-evaluation, aligned with her teaching principles of “constantly reevaluating [it] and move up a little” she reported that with every class she teaches she “becomes more critical.” In part, she says, this critical element is possible because over time she has gotten to know the student population and also achieved a clearer understanding of what the course and lesson goals are. By having a clearer idea of what learning outcomes and performance is expected from students as well as what are her students’ strengths and weaknesses she can come up with better pedagogical decisions to reach those outcomes. As it was also apparent in the interviews, she admits that those decisions may not turn out in the way that it was expected, but in that case, she adopts a positive attitude towards “mistakes:” rather than being discouraged,

she learns from them, readjusts what needs to be readjusted and tries again. Ultimately, her principles and actions in the classroom demonstrate that her students' learning is in her best interests and that accordingly, she will do her best in helping them learn—time and again. The observation and analysis of her practices show that she is an effective teacher, as she displays many of the characteristics described in the literature.

Within-cases summary

The within-case analysis of the each of the teacher's sources of their current principles shows these sources are several and mostly shared by all of them. In addition, they all see themselves as very effective EAP writing teachers although none of them rates themselves as “perfect” due to their principle that there is always room for improvement. To that aim, they all engage in reflective practices. In terms of the interplay between principles and practices in their EAP classes, there was consistency between the principles they said they adhered to and their observed teaching practices (general and specific to writing instruction).

Group findings

Data analysis revealed interesting similarities and differences among the participating teachers. Findings have been divided into those pertaining to all three teachers as a group and those only applied to the two undergraduate teachers, Bettie and George.

Similarities and differences found among the three teachers

Shared principles and practices among the three participating teachers. The three participating teachers shared many pedagogical principles and practices and also had similar concerns about their students. This section will briefly describe these similarities, which have been divided into the following themes:

Shared pedagogical principles and challenges. These refer to principles about what they

thought made a good teacher, a good writing class, and also what they thought the goals of an ESL writing class were (in connection and also beyond academic writing). For the purpose of analysis, their principles about their teaching of ESL writing and lesson preparation were derived from the individual and group interviews.

Shared practices. These were based on the interviews and class observations and they encompass the following: practices before the lesson, in the classroom, and after and out of the classroom. These are illustrated in Table 9 below:

Table 9

Types of practices analyzed

Type of practice	Operationalization
Practices before the lesson	- Criteria for lesson planning: objectives and creation of materials
Practices in the classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Type and sequence of class sections, their duration. - How each segment was realized in terms of the material used, grouping strategy, type of interaction - Teacher monitoring and circulation - Students’ reactions to class activities
Practices after and out of classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -After-class reflection - Written feedback - Student conferences - Teacher-student contact

Findings

Findings revealed that the three teachers shared many principles related to the teaching of L2 writing as well as practices when preparing lessons, in their classes, and engaging in after and out of the classroom practices. Specifically, regarding an EAP class overall structure and components these were quite similar across teachers although they differed in priority given to each. In the case of the two undergraduate teachers, despite the similarities in principles, there

was a more apparent difference in how these were realized in the classroom (see point 2 below). Both phenomena are described in more detail below:

Shared principles about the teaching of L2 writing and common challenges. These are grouped by themes.

A good ESL writing class. A good ESL writing class is made up by several components ranging from a macro to a micro level. At a macro level the class should be part of a program whose curricular goals are aligned with a level's unit and module objectives and with relevant evaluation of the achievement of learning outcomes. At a micro (class) level, the teachers argued that a good ESL Writing class results from a teacher's experience and understanding of the curriculum added to student participation and interaction. All three teachers agreed that a good class happens when besides being organized, there are "some clear outcomes, objectives and a way to see if [teachers] achieve those outcomes," which occurs when thanks to experience, teachers can have a clear understanding not only of the class outcomes, but in turn, of how these align with the module, unit and ultimately, curricular goals.

The goal of an ESL writing class. The goal of an ESL writing class in the UIUC context is to help students succeed academically by giving them the tools and necessary practice in the four language skills.

Evaluating a class success. While more emphasis is given to academic writing, the success of an ESL writing class goes beyond the improvement of their students' academic writing and reading skills towards oral ones. These teachers expect their students to get involved and participate actively in class, which includes, but is not limited to students frequently asking questions or contributing with their knowledge and opinions to the class on their own initiative.

Teachers' expectations. The teachers' expectations of their students such as the ones above is a great part of what they consider a good ESL writing class. While student participation is key, they also expect students to “care” about the class, attend regularly and “do the work.” In order for those expectations to be met by students, all three said they made their expectations clear, early in the course and throughout.

Teachers' perceptions of their students and the challenges they face as teachers. They all enjoy teaching their classes and working with their students. They all described their classes as a “typical” ESL class, regarding both writing proficiency and degree of participation. Since the majority of their students come from East Asian cultural backgrounds, where students are not usually as participatory and outgoing as those from other cultures, all of them commented on the fact that finding ways to promote more student participation and interaction was a constant challenge. Another issue brought up was the concern with plagiarism, as many of their students have difficulties integrating sources appropriately in their papers and are new to this academic practice.

The purpose of L2 writing. L2 writing should be functional and useful for students out of the classroom. While stylistic concerns are important to teach and be practiced, they are not the main focus; in contrast, priority is given to students being able to convey their message effectively according to the conventions of academic writing in an American university.

Teachers' perceptions of good teacher characteristics. When asked about the features of good teachers, they indicated that more than disciplinary features, these were applicable to any discipline. When asked about any good teacher that had had a positive impact on them as students and future teachers, they unanimously referred to the former UIUC Phonology professor, Dr. Dickerson as an exemplary and inspiring teacher. As for specific features of good

teaching, they conceptualized them from the perspective of what they value in teachers themselves as students. Among the features brought up as a group were that (1) good teachers know and understand their subject, which includes a willingness to stay up to date in their discipline and always be open to learning, researching and improving their teaching; (2) it is not enough for teachers to be experts in their field if they are not able to communicate or express themselves well; (3) in the same way they expect their students to care about their classes, they believe good teachers should “care” about their students (e.g: replying promptly to their emails, giving feedback promptly, and being “creative” in class). The survey administered to their ESL writing colleagues showed that these three teachers’ perceptions are echoed by some of their peers; however, their peers’ views vary widely ranging from knowing how to give written feedback to being passionate about the profession, among many other topics. Just to mention a few of the most frequent ones these were: being able to motivate or engage students, being empathetic, patient and caring for students, having knowledge of academic writing and being a good writer, knowing how to teach (i.e. making complex explanations clear to students and giving them opportunities to practice, scaffolding writing skills, having effective questioning strategies), being well-prepared and helpful for students, and being able to identify and meet students’ needs (by adapting materials to make them useful for them, by giving them useful grammar and vocabulary resources, or by teaching them strategies to improve their writing). A comparison with the literature on effective teaching as well as the guidelines for second language writing instruction discussed in chapter 2 show that these teachers (the main participants and the 18 surveyed fellow teachers) have very accurate ideas of what constitutes an effective teacher in general and an ESL writing one in particular.

Teachers' views on the role of technology in the classroom. All teachers agreed on the idea that the use of technology (course websites, Google docs, and online surveys, among other virtual resources) had an important role in their class although it was not indispensable to their teaching. Since they all teach in a computer laboratory, they felt the need to take advantage of it, always provided that it enhances learning. Among some of its advantages, they said, is their helpfulness for students to access various class resources and for teachers to keep track of their submissions or class work. An additional advantage mentioned was the immediacy of informal assessment of in class work during debrief thanks to online editing tools.

Shared practices before the lesson. All teachers consider the level's objectives from the curriculum to determine and outline their lesson objectives. As for class materials, they create the majority of their class materials themselves. If they use a resource from the course website, they adapt it to suit their teaching style and students' needs. Although they reported that when they started teaching academic writing as TAs they tended to use many materials available in the TA website with minor adaptations, with increasing teaching experience they started—and still do—to create their own materials. The analysis of these resources showed that in most cases they were drastically different from those available on the TA website. In the few occasions when adaptations were minor, these were done to suit teachers' teaching styles (often inductive) and their preferences in formatting, content type and sequence. Besides personal reasons, among the principles behind their own material creation, they pointed out that it allowed them to customize the content to meet the needs of their particular groups of students (which also meant these materials varied even slightly from one semester to another) and to make it more interactive and more student-centered than other materials available in the TA website.

Shared class structure and practices in the classroom. These findings answer the first research question about whether there was a particular lesson structure characterizing EAP writing classes and how these set of effective teachers realized each segment of it.

Lesson components and overall structure. The great majority of the lessons observed had similar components and overall a similar lesson structure, which is outlined in table 10:

Table 10

ESL writing class overall structure

Usual order in the sequence	Lesson component
1	Greetings and announcements
2	Objectives
3	Warm-up: review or discussion for schema activation
4	Presentation of day’s main content
5	Writing sample analysis as a class, in pairs or groups
6	Practice analyzing in pairs or groups
7	Debriefing as a whole class
8	Writing practice (individual, in pairs, or in groups)
9	Short debriefing, praise and reiteration of class reminders

Even though the lesson structure was quite similar among the three teachers, there were some slight differences in how they realized each section, how much time they devoted for each and in a few cases the order in which each section was carried out. What follows is a description of the similarities and differences among the three teachers in each class section, with an illustration of the principles they represent based on the teachers’ interview and survey data in table 4.10.

1. Greetings and announcements: All participating teachers started with even a brief “hello” or asking students how they were. For example, one of the teachers took a few minutes at the beginning of almost every class asking students how they were and also additional ice-breaker questions by calling on a few students. Another consistent component was class announcements which consisted of 1) upcoming deadline reminders

(date and submission channel for homework and/or assignments) and upcoming class-related events (library day) or 2) teacher feedback. In all, this section took around 5 minutes of class time. In the first category, all necessary information was posted in the corresponding course websites in conjunction with a brief verbal reminder from the teachers. An interesting similarity was the teachers' use of this time to let students know (often verbally and sometimes also visually through course websites or PowerPoint slides) how far they are in the semester, where they are in terms of content and where the class is going next. This illustrates their value of an organized class, of increasing students' confidence, and of being able to clearly communicate their expectations to students. One observed example of these is that when an assignment (homework, draft or major assignment) had been turned in, there was always an instance of feedback from the teachers, both positive and negative. For positive comments, they often congratulated students on their work, while for negative comments, these often were phrased as elements that needed improvement and consideration for good results in the unit assignment.

2. Objectives: all teachers followed announcements by stating the class plan for the day, either by stating the topic that would be "talked about" that day or showing/stating the objectives via their course websites or Power Point presentations. In the majority of cases these were accompanied by a brief indication of how these connected to the unit major assignment; that is, students were told about the purpose and usefulness of the topic, not just to succeed in the unit assignments, but most of the time to improve as writers and researchers.

3. Warm-up: review or discussion for schema activation: All teachers frequently carried out schema activation activities, though individual preferences differed. In the case of new content, the purpose was to explore students' knowledge of key terms for the unit (e.g: "annotated," "bibliography," "reliability"); for content that students had already seen, teachers did short review activities in the form of short pair work discussion, short online surveys, whole class elicitation, or peer assessment of written assignments.

4. Presentation of day's main content: they all frequently used Power Point presentations accessible through their course websites to present the day's main topic. One of the teachers used it more extensively than others as the teacher used it to outline all class main content, activities, instructions and reminders. The other two used it for a shorter time in class to provide important definitions and examples and interspersed it with activities in printed handouts. In all cases, their presentations were interactive, that is, they engaged in a conversation with students while they explained by asking them questions and online monitoring of their understanding.

5. Writing-sample analysis as a class, in pairs or groups: samples were considered as an essential feature of their classes as well as of their idea of an effective ESL writing class. Accordingly, whenever new content was introduced there was a sample analysis activity before practice stages. The way the analysis was done (class, pairs or small groups) varied among teachers and so did the type of samples. Some wrote the samples themselves including good and bad examples while others used student samples which were considered if not excellent, acceptable. In those cases, teachers pointed out that these were good, but they were not to be imitated. The use of samples supports their

belief in the need to provide some guidance and structure to students of what they need to do as well as “avoiding too much variation” as they said.

6. Practice analyzing in pairs or groups: in all classes the writing practice was preceded by activities focused on meaning. For that reason all of the involved the application of reading and critical thinking skills. For example, in undergraduate courses students practiced determining the reliability and relevancy of sources while graduates practiced discussing positive and negative critique points of an IMRD article. These analyses were always done in pairs or groups to foster student collaboration, participation and to have a more fluid discussion during the activities’ debrief (although that did not always turn out to be the case).

7. Debriefing as a whole class: these instances were always present and their purpose was to check students’ answers as a class. They were often initiated by teachers’ praise of students’ work followed by elicitation from students. When eliciting responses, they called on students for them to explain their answers further. Sometimes students’ contributions were used to clarify or more often to reinforce a particular aspect of the content practiced with the whole class.

8. Writing practice (individual, in pairs, or in groups): after some form of praise and transition, all teachers moved on to one of the class sections they valued the most: writing practice. This could be individual, in pairs or groups although the last two were more frequent during classes preceding “workshop” activities in which students worked on their own writing assignments. For the three teachers, these group writing activities had a scaffolding function that prepared students for what they would have to do on their own in their major writing assignments. Regardless of the grouping strategy, all teachers had

students do these via Google docs, which they had set up with specific instructions and layout for students to type up their work.

9. Short debriefing, praise and reiteration of class reminders: Similar to the first practice activity, teachers debriefed in the same manner for the same purposes. The three teachers ended the segment with general praise on students work, sometimes accompanied by words of encouragement and often by class reminders such as deadlines.

Summary of teachers’ principles as realized in each class segment

Table 11 shows the teachers’ principles behind each class segment. They have not been explained further as they have been discussed extensively in the individual case studies.

Table 11

Class segments and principles they represent

Class segment	Principles behind these
Greetings and announcements	Build rapport and convey sense of organization
Objectives	Provide clarity/Sign of organized class/ Express sense of purpose, progress and connection between classes to students.
Warm-up: review or discussion for schema activation	Provide clarity/ Learner-centered educational theory/ Promote student participation
Presentation of day’s main content	Provide clear and useful content / Learner-centered/ Promote student participation through interaction.
Writing sample analysis as a class, in pairs or groups	Clear expectations (content and form) of what they need to do / Prevent too much variation from expected product
Practice analyzing in pairs or groups	Promote other academic skills such as reading, critical thinking, speaking through discussion between peers/ Encourage collaboration and participation
Debriefing as a whole class	Assess progress and make adjustments depending on students’ understanding/ Chance for positive feedback to boost students’ confidence/Make students think and practice oral skills in an academic setting.
Writing practice (individual, in pairs, or in groups)	Scaffolds later independent work/ Makes the class useful to students / L2 writing improvement depends on writing practice.
Short debriefing, praise and reiteration of class reminders	Promote clarity/Chance for positive feedback to boost students’ confidence/Convey sense of organization

Shared practices after and out of the classroom. These have been divided in four categories, each of which is briefly explained below.

After-class reflection. All teachers engaged in this practice through the filling out of the retrospective syllabus after each of their classes. In it, they keep records of what went well and also what did not go so well and needs to be changed.

Written feedback. All three are constantly looking for ways to offer good feedback in the most time effective manner as possible due to the number of student essays they need to read (15 to 30 students if they are teaching two sections). Similar to the teachers in Lee (2009), they agreed it was a time-consuming task. Two of the participating teachers reported they had tried to have their students make comments of the revisions they do as a result of the feedback received; however, their tight teaching schedules make it hard for them to implement this properly (follow up on students' reflections on revisions). As for how they provide feedback, they all comment on global and local errors. They do so on the side margins, highlighting, and with a summary paragraph at the end. On the side margins they give students suggestions to improve or sometimes ask for clarification (to signal lack of clarity). They all highlight local errors and generally do not provide students with the correction. At the end, they write a summary feedback paragraph which always contains positive comments along with negative feedback. All of them deliver feedback promptly.

Student conferences. When they began teaching in the ESL writing program, they used to spend a long time discussing the papers with their students and they felt this was not productive, as they often times ended up going through the same comments that they already had given written feedback on. As a result, for the last semester all three of them have been asking their students to come to the conference with specific questions they want to discuss. In spite of

this, one of the teachers said that although she encourages students to ask questions, she has a tendency to end up conducting most of the conferences herself because students are “pretty quiet” and also as a way to make sure students “understand what they need to do.”

Teacher-student contact. The three teachers frequently showed that they were “available” for their students. They encouraged them to clarify doubts or ask for help by coming to office hours or by sending them e-mails. In the case of the latter, all teachers reported they replied as promptly as they could. They also kept contact with students by sending them even a short message acknowledging they had read their students’ homework and giving them some positive feedback. For them, these practices demonstrate that a teacher cares about their students.

Comparison between teachers of the undergraduate level courses: ESL 112 and ESL 115

As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, the units and objectives observed in ESL 112 and ESL 115 were similar. This allowed for a comparison and contrast of the two teachers’ principles and practices while teaching the same content as well as of how their students’ reacted to their pedagogical decisions. An examination across and within lessons showed that despite sharing the most fundamental principles about the teaching of ESL writing, there were a number of differences in how they realized those principles in the classroom with diverse students’ reactions to class sections (some were similar and others differed slightly).

Similar principles, but different classroom practices. Differences were found across and within lessons. Each category is described below.

Differences across lessons. These refer to differences in the distribution of main contents within the units observed and the class time devoted to each. Below is the sequence of lessons in the order they were taught by the two teachers:

Table 12

Lesson sequence of both undergraduate teachers

Class number	Main content: Bettie	George
Class 1	Thesis statements and rough outlining	Thesis statements
Class 2	Source reliability	Rough outlining
Class 3	Source relevancy	Introduction to the annotated bibliography
Class 4	Summarizing sources	Source reliability
Class 5	Introduction to the annotated bibliography + “Halloween” segment	Source reliability review + Source relevancy+ Skim and scan
Class 6	Annotated bibliography (workshop)	Skim and scan and source relevancy
Class 7	N/A	Source relevancy review and summarizing 1 (Video in class, HW: short newspaper article)
Class 8	N/A	Summarizing 1 review + Summarizing 2 (a journal (IMRD) article).
Class 9	N/A	Summarizing 2 (IMRD) article: review, practice. Summary language.

As the Table 12 shows one of the most noticeable difference is that while George decided to teach the introduction to the annotated bibliography in the first class of unit 3, Bettie taught it almost at the end of the unit. In addition, possibly due to time constraints, instead of devoting an entire class period to only one topic like Bettie, sometimes George used some of the time in a class period to finish or review a previous topic, so there were two topics in one lesson. An interesting difference is the amount of lessons focused on summarizing. Bettie decided to teach the summarizing of all 3 types of articles in one 80-minute period, yet George did so over almost double the time by spreading it across three class periods. Besides, he did not teach summarizing the organization website information, but first approached summary through a video featuring a

short story. While a possible explanation for the differences across lessons may be differences in students' proficiency levels, this seems unlikely. Judging by students' TOEFL scores, the cut-off scores for placement in both ESL 112 and ESL 115 are the same; in addition, class objectives in both levels were similar and based on class observations and analysis of class materials, both teachers designed equally demanding written assignments for their students. In turn, students in both classes seemed to perform well in those tasks, showing that proficiency may not be a problem. On the other hand, a more likely explanation based on observations and these teachers' comments on interviews is both individual teacher preferences and also time constraints due to a "packed" curriculum, tight schedules and in the case of George, the time constraint of a 50-minute class period for teaching what he said was a "complex skill."

Differences within lessons. These refer to several elements. Each of them is briefly described below. An important caveat that needs to be made is that these differences are presented as options to achieve similar learning outcomes and are both equally reliable and valid.

1. The type and sequence of class sections: sections were determined as having a distinct purpose and boundary. Nevertheless, some of the sections like "timing" and "teacher monitoring and circulation," are not sections per se, but have been included here for an easier presentation of the table and also because they are inherent to the sections described.
2. How the sequence is realized: this includes the resource used, their main features, grouping, type of interaction, questioning strategies, teacher verbal directions, monitoring, timing and debriefing. Some pedagogical choices were seen as optional. They were not observed all the time, but whether they were present or not did not affect the outcome.

3. Students' reactions to activities: these were described via subjective categories intended to capture the students' promptness, enthusiasm, focus, and general engagement with the class segment. Given their nature, they are based on the impressions of the researcher during class observations.
4. Teachers' principles: To the far right side of the table are the two teachers' principles that emerged from the individual and group interviews as being behind their classroom practices. They have been included to have an encompassing view of how what these teachers do in the classroom is rooted in specific—and in this case, also shared—set of teaching and learning principles.

Findings

As Figure 12 shows, in each section there are different practices that have in many cases similar results in students' reactions and which in turn, are rooted in similar underlying principles. The only practices that seemed to bear different results were elicitation strategies during review or debriefing and monitoring and assisting. In the former, when eliciting answers as a class students took longer to respond than when there was a previous pair/groupwork activity or when students were called on directly. In the latter, approaching groups more closely and asking them how they were doing seemed to encourage them to ask questions more often than monitoring from a greater distance.

A final interesting finding was that the examination of these two teachers' practices showed that although the majority of their students reach the learning outcomes (in their view at least), they help them to do so in every single pedagogical decision they make. In addition, however small, these decisions can ultimately be traced back to each teacher's personal learning and teaching styles. A case in point is how Bettie's approach seems to be more practical, mostly

deductive whereas George's is more analytical and inductive. In the first case, this is apparent in her "giving" students the key information they need to know, especially via checklists, and then quickly move on to sample analysis and practice. On the other hand, although George also favored checklists, typically "constructed" them with students (through elicitation) and then spend much longer periods of class time with mini practice activities with questions that forced students to think, analyze, find connections. Although he also left room for sample analysis and student practice, most of their class time was devoted to "building" understanding rather than mostly on getting students to produce. Such differences may help explain why for example he took three class periods for summarizing while his colleague did so in one (besides the time constraint). Similarly, it may help understand why George decided to devote an entire class period, at the beginning of the unit to introduce the annotated bibliography, while Bettie did it in half a class and at the end of the unit where all that students had to do was putting the statements they already know how to write together. Figure 13 shows each teachers' materials with the preferences just described.

Class segment type	Teachers' principles	Ways it is done	Student reactions
Class opening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ice breakers can create rapport with students, showing that the teacher cares about them and also can get them to feel more comfortable. - Announcements can give students a sense of where they are, where they are going, and how they are doing so far. They guide them, give them a sense of progress and of connections between lessons. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ice breaker • Class announcements: positive or negative feedback on assignments, upcoming deadlines, other reminders (cultural: time change, holidays, upcoming break) 	Students who respond are at ease sharing some of their personal information and engage in a short conversation with the teacher. This catches the attention of most classmates who seem to enjoy listening (e.g: they laugh if something funny is said)
Review	Reinforcing previous content allows the teacher to evaluate students' understanding and address areas of confusion. It helps create connection between old/new knowledge. When done in pairs or groups it promotes student interaction and collaboration.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole class question • Calling on students • Pair or small group work discussion 	With whole class questions, students may take long to respond. Calling on them may either encourage them to respond or make them uncomfortable having to speak up in front of others. When guided, most students tended to discuss immediately and enthusiastically. Their responses during debriefing are faster.
Main content presentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -If a checklist is given it is to help students understand exactly what they need to do. -Showing samples and having students analyze them gives them a more concrete structure of what they need to do and how it needs to look like. - For more student participation and interaction, group work analysis or teacher student interaction during the presentation is useful. -It fosters clarity and immediate evaluation of understanding 	<p>Content can be presented via different channels:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power Point: checklist with key information to consider and also examples (good or bad ones). Intersperse with elicitation from students. • Board: checklist with key information is constructed with students' elicited responses. 	With both channels, most students seemed to have a good grasp of the main content as reflected in their answers and the quality of their written work in class or in drafts (according to the teacher reports for both in class work and drafts and the observer's impressions in the case of in-class work).

Figure 12. Summary of shared principles realized in different practices and students' reactions to these practices. Although this figure was done in relation to the two undergraduate teachers, they also apply to a great extent Leslie's graduate class in terms of how the class looks like and the principles behind it (for more discussion of each section and principle see findings on shared class structure on pages 146 through 150).

Instructions	<p>-Effective instructions ensure clarity on the activity to be done.</p> <p>-The more specific the outcome, the better results.</p> <p>-To address different learning styles, instructions should be verbalized, but also written out for students to refer to.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In both cases instructions were in written form in advance and were projected for students along with the verbal instructions. • Instructions' content: where and how to access materials, grouping, timing 	The majority of students in the two classes were quick to start working and usually did not ask many questions (the observer's impression).
Timing	<p>- Making a certain time frame explicit gets students to get on task as soon as possible. As they may be pushed to finish in the time allotted, they are forced to focus and do their best in a relatively short time. Done consistently, they get used to that pace.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open: general time frame. Example "a few minutes" • Closed: specific time frame and reminder that time is up. Examples: "I'll give you 3 minutes" "You have a minute left." 	In the two groups observed, students adapted to the time allotted and most of the time they were able to finish their discussions or written work in the time frame indicated.
Monitoring and assisting	<p>-Availability to students, scaffolding their learning in a personalized manner, evaluating their understanding and meeting their individual or class needs. When asked something you [the teacher] do not know, do not be afraid to admit it (say you will get back to them).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observe from a distance, move around the room and assist only when called by students. • Move around the room, take some distance, assist when called by students, but also approach those who do not seem on task to check if they need help. 	<p>If the first option is preferred, students do not tend to ask questions. They do this occasionally for very specific reasons.</p> <p>If the second option is preferred, students ask questions more frequently and seem "at ease" asking the teacher (not their peers') questions.</p>
Evaluation	<p>Evaluation of understanding is done through higher-order skills: application and evaluation. The first one makes the content useful for students in that it prepares them for what they will need to do on their own later. When evaluation is done through elicitation (how or why) it forces students to participate and explain themselves, thus showing understanding.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In pairs or small groups, apply the criteria to determine the effectiveness/relevancy/ reliability... • As a class, pairs or small groups, distinguish between a good/bad.... 	When there is strong previous scaffolding (main content presentation), students are quick and quite successful in the completion of this activity, showing they understand.
Practice	<p>Practice is key for writing improvement and ensures students are better prepared for later doing their work on their own. It also gives the teacher the opportunity to see students' strengths, praise them to boost their</p>	<p>This segment tended to be prioritized over other skills and class sections, as long as there was "sufficient" support for students to move on to the application phase.</p>	In both classes the majority of students started working as soon as instructions were given. They remained focused (they typed fast and throughout the activity), as if they had

Figure 12 (cont.)

	confidence, and identify areas that need improvement which can be addressed in a future lesson.	<p>Prioritizing can be done by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Omitting previous part(s) of the lesson to make it fit in the class. 2) Moving the practice phase to the next class for better results. <p>What the segment looks like: “Write...” (twice or three times: pairs or small groups using class topic sources, other sources on another topic to end with individual practice.</p>	been waiting to be given the opportunity to write and show what they knew.
Debriefing	Allows for evaluation of understanding and student participation. It ensures clarity and leaves room for clarification if students have questions. It also helps students see the connection between activities, and how these will be useful to their unit’s major assignment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calling on the class as a whole, groups or individual students for follow-up questions on their work. • Reinforcing or clarifying an important point, especially when it is one that the teacher has seen or anticipated that students may have problems with. It may serve the purpose of connection to the class assignment. 	Group leaders responded immediately and generally gave elaborate answers. When students are comfortable being called on, most are quick to respond. If prompted by the teacher, they elaborate more. When asked as a class, students may take longer to speak up, but they tend to do so the more “hints” they are given by the teacher.
Class closing	Giving positive feedback boosts students’ confidence and encourages them to keep doing the class work.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General praise • Encouragement to keep working • Reiteration of class announcements: homework, upcoming deadlines and events (library day) 	As students are getting ready to leave, it was not easy to get their attention. Some of them did pay attention. Others approached the teacher for questions.

Figure 12 (cont.)

Bettie (single PPT used in 1 class)

4 **From Unit 1...**
What is a bibliography?

What kind of information does it include?

What does it mean if something is annotated (you may want to look this up)?

5 **Annotated Bibliographies**

There are many ways to do annotated bibliographies--if you are assigned an annotated bibliography for another class, you will want to be sure to ask your professor what information they would like you to include. Some may just want an overall summary, others might want only a description of the relevant information to your paper.

For our Unit 3 assignment, you should include 3 pieces of information:

6 **Our Annotated Bibliography**
Just like your reference page from Unit 1, but with three paragraphs of an annotation:

Summary (4-5 sentences)
Reliability Statement (2-4 sentences)
Relevancy Statement (3-4 sentences)

7 **Why is this important for the research process?**

8 **What it looks like:**

11 **Tuesday in class...**

Workshop: we will use your sources and start putting together the three paragraphs for each source you will use in your paper.

George (course website screenshot accessed in 1 class)

III. Overview of the Annotated Bibliography Assignment

Take a minute to read through the overview [assignment description](#) for the Annotated Bibliography assignment. Once you have finished, answer the following questions with your partners:

1. How is an Annotated Bibliography different from a normal bibliography? [Check here](#) for a hint.
2. How is the Annotated Bibliography connected with the Pre-Research Portfolio?
3. How many sources are you expected to use? What kinds of sources will they be?
4. Each Annotated Bibliography entry will have four parts. What are these four parts?
5. What is a "relevancy statement"? Can you think of an example?
6. How is the Annotated Bibliography connected with the final research paper (IRP)?

IV. The Parts of an Annotated Bibliography (and Their Purpose)

You will be given an example, annotated bibliography entry. With a partner, fill out the chart that asks you to identify each component of the annotated bibliography and provide some basic information about it. When you are finished, compare your answers. **Be prepared to upload information to THIS CHART.**

Figure 13. Bettie and George's teaching styles for the Annotated Bibliography module.

Discussion of individual and group findings

Teachers' sources of teaching and learning principles and practices. In preparation for the group interview, teachers were asked to answer a short survey to select the most influential sources for the type of teacher they currently are. The categories are shown in Table 13 they had to rate from a scale of 1 to 6 (not influential at all to very influential). On average, the most influential category was "previous learning experiences" with a mean of 5.6, followed closely by "subject knowledge of academic writing" with 5.3. Other categories rated with 5 were "formal teaching education," "a mentor," "learning a foreign language," and "continuous reflection on your teaching." The remaining 4 are shown in Table 13.

Table 13

What has made you the teacher you are today?

Category	Average rating
• Previous general learning experiences (positive or negative)	5.6
• Subject knowledge of academic writing	5.3
• Formal teaching education	5
• One mentor (or more)	5
• Having learned a foreign language	5
• Continuous reflection on your teaching	5
• Contextual factors (target population, curricula, classroom type and time constraints)	4
• Collaboration with peers (TAs, lecturers, course leaders, those ESL writing program coordinators who also teach)	4

For all three teachers, having had really good or bad teachers has shaped to a great extent the kind of teacher they are today; this correlates with what all three expressed in individual interviews (see individual case studies at the beginning of the chapter for details). In regards to category 2, they interpreted it as always willing to expand your knowledge on the subject and being able to convey that knowledge clearly and effectively to students. They agreed that having been language learners has helped them better empathize with students and also realize that there is plenty that students can contribute to the class drawing from their majors and other experiences. George highlighted that his experience as a language learner has made him see students as “more delicate” in that he knows “how humiliating it can be to speak the language you are learning.” Similarly, they agreed that the opportunity to collaborate with peers was very helpful when they started teaching because they got many ideas. While today they still believe it is important, its function changes from helping professional growth to “a moral, personal support system,” as George calls it, where teachers can share the issues they are having in class on a regular basis and exchange suggestions or simply a word of encouragement. Finally, they commented that contextual factors themselves were not as important as the other factors, but

rather, as Leslie put it have forced them to “make adjustments, while our fundamental values and practices are probably the same.” On the same topic, George also added that “good teachers are good independent of context” which is seen in their ability to adapt to different situations, being passionate about their teaching and being open to making mistakes along the way.

The fact that there was agreement on “previous learning experiences” as the most influential source provides additional evidence to general education and also language teacher cognition literature where this source has been found to be the most influential across studies (see Borg, 2003a; Casanave, 2004; Street, 2003). Thus, by drawing on their experiences with teachers for their own ideas of how to teach they are applying the concept of “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975). Moreover, findings show that belief sources can vary from learning experiences (Borg, 2003a), formal second language teaching education (Busch, 2010), peer-observation, collaboration and self-reflection (Buehl & Fives, 2009). Finally, while their self-confidence in their writing skills in English were not part of the categories, all three teachers, including Leslie who is not a native speaker of English, reported in the individual interviews that they felt very confident in their writing abilities. In turn, this finding supports Street, 2003; Xiao, 2014; Yigitoglu’s, 2011 own findings on self-confidence as highly influential in the quality of their teaching. More elaboration on some of these sources was done in the individual case studies.

The participating teachers’ influences compared to those of their ESL writing colleagues. In order to see if the participating teachers’ sources of influences extended to other teachers, a brief digital survey was administered to ESL writing teachers in the department, 18 of which responded. Table 14 shows the results. All of them said “teaching experience” had been quite influential, followed by “good teacher model,” which is similar to the responses of the

three participating teachers. In contrast, collaboration with peers was rated much higher by the 18 teachers whereas it was the opposite with “formal teaching education” (4.16). “A bad teacher model” was the least influential with an average of 2.38 out of 6. Finally, in “other” responses varied and included sources such as a teacher in the family and ideal teacher models from literature and the media.

Table 14

Influences in current teaching practices and beliefs (ESL writing program level)

What influenced you the most to be the teacher you are today?	Average and percentage of responses in ratings 4 through 6
Teaching experience	5.55 - 100%
Good teacher model as a learner	4.88 - 88.2%
Collaboration with fellow teachers	4.55 - 83.3%
Formal teaching education	4.16 - 66.7%
Bad teacher model as a learner	2.38 - 16.7%
Other	2.22 - 16.8%

Interplay between teaching principles and practices. The findings in this section are similar to those reported by several studies on general or writing specific ESL instruction. Similar to Breen et al. (2001), this study found that this group of teachers with similar formal education experience and teaching in the same setting share many teaching principles although these were realized “through a set of favoured practices” (p.495). In addition, the findings lend support to Breen et al.’s (2001) conclusion that one principle may be executed in different practices by individual teachers whereas a particular practice may reflect one or more principles (Breen et al, 2001). Unlike Pennington et al.’s study (1997) this study showed there was a closer, although not perfect match between the teacher’s principles of ideal practices in the teaching and how they put into practice. In this respect, some of the principles—such as meeting students’ needs more satisfactorily by providing them with more practice in more complex skills such as

summarizing, paraphrasing or addressing stylistic issues—were according to the teachers realized to the best of their abilities in practice, but they admitted they were heavily constrained by the need to cover a content-heavy predetermined syllabus in a relatively short amount of time (such constrain was in fact attested to during class observations).

Class structure and content. Regarding the writing class structure and main function of class sections, all the classes observed illustrated the consistent alternation and embedding of both proactive (or teacher directed roles: assign tasks, state objectives, establish roles, completion criteria and extended discussion with students collaboration during debriefing) and responsive routines (unprepared interactions between teacher and students) characterizing experienced teachers as found in Cumming (1992). Additionally, there was also consistency of these routines across classes for individual teachers. However, findings in the present study differed from Cumming (1992) in some of the specific subtypes of routines he identified in those categories. For instance, he identified the assigning of tasks right after objectives and included provision of individual feedback while in the classes observed in this study task directions were given after some presentation of the class content and feedback was given to the whole class. The difference may lie in that as Cummings (1992) points out, the classes he observed were of a “workshop” type rather than a presentation and practice of content type of class (as defined by Rosenshine and Stevens, 1986, p. 379). Workshop here is defined as a lesson where students are given a specific task at the beginning of class and then devote their class time to work in a specific piece of written production both in groups and then individually with the chance of teacher’s assistance. Despite Cumming’s (1992) differing findings with most classes observed, these do align with two of the classes observed which were considered as “workshops” done by the end of the units. Other differences found are based on his subsequent study with Riazi et al.

(1996). Unlike the present study, it was found that teachers devoted more time to collaborative construction of language paradigms, gave more individual than whole class feedback, and also that handouts were not used very often.

Despite these differences, what this study's findings and Riazi et al's (1996) have in common in terms of class structure is the teachers' attracting students attention, providing task assistance to individual students or groups, a debriefing section for clarification which was a type of sequence reiterated several times during a class. Another similarity is the more frequent occurrence of textual and social modeling than their cognitive counterpart. The latter aligns with Wette's (2014) findings which indicate that in the group of EAP teachers she observed, textual modeling was more common than the other modeling types and in the same way as the teachers in this study used both good and bad examples with the purpose of their students knowing what to produce while also reminding their students not to imitate those models blindly. Nevertheless, an important difference with Wette (2014) was that textual modeling in the present study was not entirely teacher-led as students were asked to evaluate the quality of a sample in pairs or groups before a whole class discussion or evaluation by the teacher. Moreover, cognitive (or focusing on composing processes) and collaborative modeling (joint construction between teacher and students) were not observed in this group of teachers. Instead, the most frequently observed practice across classes was social modeling, which as it may be recalled involves text construction among students in pairs or groups with some teacher assistance. In spite of being less frequent, some of the principles behind their use of social modeling expressed by the teachers in Wette (2014) are similar to those of the teachers in this study. In particular, teachers in both studies pointed out that pair or group work was chosen to increase students' confidence in doing complex task and also in seeking clarification through their peers rather than with the

teacher. A few of the concerns regarding this type of modeling brought up by both groups as well (though apparently less frequently in the present study) was the possibility of some students being off task and that some may prefer to work individually. In sum, while teachers in Wette's (2014) resorted to all four types of modeling, the ones in the present study only applied two of them. In addition, the presentation-practice-production pattern which was rare (1 teacher out of 7) in Wette (2014) was the most common in the present study.

What can make them better teachers than today? A common theme mentioned by the three teachers was continuous improvement. For Bettie it meant “keeping passionate about [teaching] and trying new things” and even being “open to failure and to embarrass yourself;” Leslie highlighted it in connection to reflection, reevaluation and more learning; for George (and agreed on by the other two teachers) it was “figuring out what it takes for you to be successful, independent of context” (Group interview).

Their advice to novice teachers. One of the main purposes of this project is that its findings can serve as a resource that new ESL writing teachers can turn into for help to both understand the UIUC teaching context (expectations, support and constraints), and most importantly, how teachers deal with that context in practice so that their students can reach the learning outcomes. For this reason, participating teachers were asked for advice to novice teachers, which is shown below in Table 15 in the form of meaningful quotes and a short explanation of some of them:

Table 15

Advice to novice ESL writing teachers

Teacher	Teacher's advice
From George	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Examples are your best friend:” Having students analyze them saves more time and it is more effective than (in time and how well they learn) telling them how their piece of writing should look like. • “Pick your battles:” do not try to do too much; prioritize. Pick the objective you are able to achieve best given the time constraints and the limits of yourself and your students.
From Bettie	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “do a lot of observation...pick the people that have been there a while and go and see what they are doing” • “make the most of level meetings, not every program has that possibility” • “find a mentor, someone experienced to go to for support”
From Leslie	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “At the beginning it is easy to be overwhelmed, so be receptive to new ideas and learn as much as you can from everyone” • “Always move up a little, grow professionally with every semester you teach” • “Recognize your own mistakes, what didn't go well and constantly reevaluate your teaching”

Student findings

The final findings section is devoted to the reporting and discussion of students' views on their EAP classes, that is, their attitude toward the class, their teachers and most importantly, their own perceptions about their learning outcomes thanks to the class. As the background information of students has been provided in chapter 3, it will be omitted in this section. The first section will show findings from the three classes observed as a whole and the second, a comparison of both undergraduate classes.

Student views on the ESL writing classes

Some of the aspects students were asked about in this respect were their opinions about the amount of course workload and the difficulty of the course. The majority of undergraduate

students (87%) reported it was the right amount while the remaining 13% said it was too much for a pass/fail course. In contrast, only a little more than half (54.5%) of the graduate group reported the workload was the right amount while 45.5% said it was too much. The differences may be explained by the expected heavy workload characteristic of graduate students. As for the course difficulty, 65.2% undergraduate responses were “neither difficult nor easy” while the remaining 34.8% found it “easy.” On the other hand, a rather similar number of graduates (63.6%) found the course “neither difficult nor easy” although responses were more varied, with a group average of 2.4 out of 5 (1 being “too hard” and 5 “too easy”). Students were also asked to rate the quality of the course on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 (exceptionally low to exceptionally high). In both groups all responses were equal or higher than 3. The average rating for the quality of the course was 4.6 for undergraduates and 4 for graduates. Interestingly, most undergraduate students (73.9%) rated the course with the highest score, 5: "exceptionally high," while the majority of graduate students (63.6%) seemed a little bit more critical by rating it with 4 and only 18.1% with 5. Thus, students seem to consider the course as a being of high quality.

This quantitative data on their quality of the course was complemented with qualitative data by asking students what elements make a good and a bad ESL writing class. It was hoped that those responses helped to characterize one of the aspects of the quality of the course. Unfortunately, the rate of responses was not 100%. Out of 34 students, only 23 students responded (12 undergraduates and the 11 graduate students) and out of all these only 21 were considered valid (two from the undergraduate group were discarded because they were irrelevant to the question). Categories were obtained according to emerging themes.

In the undergraduate group, some of the most common responses centered on the usefulness and organization of the course content and how helpful it had been for their writing

improvement, especially in class through practice (an “interesting” course was mentioned once). A second very important theme was “the teacher,” who was characterized in several ways: “good, tolerant, nice, caring, clear speaking and instructions.” A couple of students mentioned the theme of interaction, whether with the teacher or between students, which was interesting because it matches the expectations of their teachers and also supports the idea that many students liked group work, as expressed in one of the teacher’s informal early feedback survey. While those students may have liked a more interactive class from the start, coming from a culture where students do not interact much among them and with the teacher in class, it seems likely that they have embraced and adapted to the American class participation expectations; in turn, these match the expectation of their teachers.

In the graduate group, the 11 respondents gave answers relevant to the question, so all of them were considered. Similar to undergraduate responses, themes varied although a few were mentioned 3 or 4 times. One of the most frequent themes was that a good ESL writing class should be useful, that is, teach skills or content that can be applicable in assignments outside the class, in students’ own disciplines as well as help students improve their writing. Another theme as frequent as the previous one was a class where there is discussion and interaction among students and them and their teacher. Two themes mentioned 3 times each was a class with plenty of practice and that it was “structured,” and “organized.” To have a more accurate representation of what undergraduate and graduate students think is a good ESL writing class, they were also asked about the opposite, that is, what a bad ESL writing class is. It was hoped that their answers were consistent with the views of a good class. The total valid responses were 17. For undergraduate students, a bad class meant work overload with no clear purpose and few, or unclear directions. Other views, but just expressed by one person each were “no actual work

done” and inapplicable material to other writing tasks outside the class. In the graduate group there were a total of 8 valid responses. Responses covered a variety of themes, with “too much work” and content that is “too academic or hard to understand” mentioned by two students each. Other topics mentioned by single students were “excessive group discussion,” “a boring class,” “lack of preparation and no prompt feedback,” “no teaching, just assignments.” Responses from both levels shows that what they value in a class is consistent with many of the characteristics of effective teaching dimensions reported by Feldman (2007). They value the usefulness and organization of the content, the clarity it is delivered with, its purposefulness, and personal characteristics of the teacher (as in “caring, friendly, delivering prompt feedback”).

Helpfulness of the course. Concerning the helpfulness of the course, on a 1 to 5 point Likert scale (not helpful at all to essential), the average rating for undergraduates was 4.6 while for graduates it was 3.7. Unlike graduates, most undergraduates (73.9%) reported the course had been essential or helpful or very helpful (for the remaining 26%). In contrast, graduate students responses were more spread from 2 to 5. 63.5% rated the course with 4 and 5 (very helpful and essential).

Confidence and transferability. The possible helpfulness of the course was thought in terms of greater confidence in writing and the skills transferability to other courses, both of which were considered beneficial besides a measured, observable writing improvement. Results are shown in Table 16.

Table 16

Transferability and confidence in writing skills

How much did this class help you to...?				
Item	Undergraduate group			Graduate group
	ESL 112	ESL 115	Average for undergraduates	Average for graduates
Learn skills that you can use in other courses	4.18	4.58	4.39	3.90
Become more confident in your writing skills	4.09	4.58	4.34	3.81

As the table shows, in assessing how much the course had helped them learn skills transferrable to other courses, in a scale of 1 to 5 (Nothing at all to a lot), ratings in all groups were 3 or higher. In the undergraduate group, more than half of students (60.8%) reported the course had helped them “a lot” and the rest (39.2%) said it had helped (ratings 3 and 4 combined). In terms of helping them become more confident in their writing skills, results were quite similar, with more than half of them (52.1%) reporting it had helped them “a lot” and the rest (48%) saying it had helped (ratings 3 and 4 combined). In the graduate group, all responses also fell within 3 and 5, and in regards to transferability, a little more than half (54.5%) reported 4 out of 5, followed by 27.2% who said 3 and only 18.1% who said 5. As for confidence in writing, results were rather similar, with more than half students (63.6%) reporting 4 out of 5, followed by 27.2% who said 3 and only 9.09% who said 5. Results seem to indicate that the courses meet the needs of students’ satisfactorily and that their teachers’ goals for the class (increase their writing confidence and that students transfer skills) are being reached as well, as they wanted it to be for their students.

Other areas of improvement. In order to account for any other learning benefit as a result of the course, students were asked the following open question: “In what other areas besides writing have you improved thanks to this class?” Because this was not a required question, the number of responses was much smaller than the total number of students. In the undergraduate group there were only 16 responses, and of these only 12 were considered, since 4 of them did not answer the question properly. In the graduate group, all responses were relevant to the question, so all 11 were included. Thus, the total number of responses was 23. One limitation in the reliability of the results is that although the question required students to type openly, they were still given some ideas of possible responses to help them think about possible answers but not restricted to these). Still, not all answers obtained used the terms in the prompt, which may indicate that they did not limit students’ responses. Results were obtained calculating the frequency of the item mentioned, since sometimes there was more than one item per student response. These are summarized in Table 17:

Table 17

Other areas of improvement due to the course

Undergraduate group		Graduate group	
Area of improvement	Frequency	Area of improvement	Frequency
Reading	5	Vocabulary	10
Speaking or oral skills	4	Speaking	3
Vocabulary	3	Other (how to use the library, confidence)	1
Research skills	2		
Other (grammar, teamwork and leadership skills, make friends)	1		

Looking at differences between the groups, reading was not mentioned by graduate students, possibly because unlike undergraduates, they already have an undergraduate degree, so

they may feel more prepared and more confident to read academic materials, even if they are in English. In other words, they may already have a repertoire of reading skills to transfer to the class. In contrast, reading could have been mentioned more often by undergraduates since as freshmen and new to college studies they may not be used to reading academic material in English and also because they had extensive practice in reading throughout the course for writing the research paper (IRP, for units 3 and 4's major assignments). Speaking improvement in both courses may have been expected in both groups as a result of their teachers' constant effort to make them speak in class. However, it seems interesting that some students mention it as a benefit as it signals that they took advantage of their teachers' deliberate efforts to have them improve their oral skills. Speaking may not have been mentioned often in the graduate group because from the observations, these students did not seem to have problems to speak up in class (nevertheless, this assumption contradicts the view of their teacher, who said it was difficult to have them speak). The results may also mean that they thought their speaking skills have remained the same as before taking the class. Finally, the fact that many pointed out the improvement in vocabulary may be the direct result of specific course activities such as the "vocabulary journal," or getting familiar with tools such as "word and phrase" to assess and increase their use of academic vocabulary. In all, the findings on non-writing related learning outcomes are similar to those of Cumming (1995) on the variety of learning outcomes perceived in a set of general purpose writing classes, specifically "gains in expressive abilities and self-confidence" (Cumming, 1995, p. 84).

Students' self-assessment of their writing improvement through unit 3's learning outcomes. Although there was no pre and post-test to assert students' writing improvement more accurately, after operationalizing "improvement" as "how much they thought they had learnt"

(from 1: nothing to 5: a lot) students were asked to indicate this in relation to each of unit 3’s learning outcomes for more objective measures (the learning outcome related to thesis statements in the undergraduate group was omitted by mistake, but it should have been included). Outcomes for both ESL 112 and 115 were the same (shown in Table 18 below) while they differed for the graduate class (Table 19) so results are presented separately:

Table 18

Undergraduate students views of how much they learned

Question: This question refers to what you learnt in unit 3. How much do you feel you learnt about...? Likert scale: 1: Nothing at all. I still do not know how to do this to 5: A lot. I am very confident doing this.

Learning outcome	ESL 112	ESL 115	Undergraduate group total
Using the library for research	4.18	4.33	4.26
Evaluating sources: reliability	4.36	4.58	4.47
Evaluating sources: relevancy	4.45	4.41	4.43
Writing a reliability statement	4.27	4.5	4.39
Writing a relevancy statement	4.27	4.25	4.26
Writing a summary	4.09	4.25	4.17

A look at the average totals shows that overall, undergraduate students think they have learnt the units’ skills quite well as all average ratings are very close to 5. Interestingly, a look at the rating percentages distribution revealed that the objectives the majority of students (52.2%) were the most confident in were “determining source reliability and relevancy.” While their assessment of their writing skills was still high, it was lower than the aforementioned ones (except for writing a reliability statement, which was 52.2% as well). Only 43.5% felt very confident in writing a relevancy statement while 34.8% said they were confident summarizing sources. The results can be explained by the fact that these two skills require the application of more complex critical skills in combination with writing skills which may make it harder, and possible take longer for students to master. Alternatively, these may also mean that the amount

of practice provided by the class was not enough (which could be supported by the slight higher average in ESL 115 on summarizing than in ESL 112 explained by more class period devoted to practicing this skill). Student samples of their final annotated bibliographies for both ESL 112 and ESL 115 are shown in Appendix P and Q with a short commentary on the teacher's opinions about the quality of the students' sample and how it reflects their achievement of their level's learning outcomes.

Below are the results for the graduate group. As table 4.20 shows, similarly to the undergraduate group, students feel they have learnt the skills of unit 3 quite well as the average is 4 or higher in all skills (except for using appropriate critique language whose average is slightly lower). In terms of percentages, a large number of students felt the confident in summarizing (90.9%) followed by evaluating a study's research validity (72.7%) and organizing critique points with 63.6%. For critique language only 45.4% reported being confident and only 18.1% said they felt very confident, which can be explained by having insufficient practice in this in terms of time and type of practice. They did some exercises during a short period of class time, and the type of activity may not have had enough application or transferability. Such inference can be supported by the teacher's (Leslie) comment on her dissatisfaction with the activity which she considered as "awareness raising," not too useful as it was for students, and needing improvement.

Table 19

Graduate students' views of how much they learned

Question: This question refers to what you learnt in unit 3. How much do you feel you learnt about...? Likert scale: 1: Nothing at all. I still do not know how to do this to 5: A lot. I am very confident doing this.

Learning outcome	ESL 500
Summarizing a study	4.09
Evaluating a study's research validity	4
Organizing critique points in coherent paragraphs	4.09
Using the appropriate academic language to critique	3.81

A student's drafts and final summary critique sample for ESL 500 is shown in Appendix R and S with the teacher's feedback and a short commentary on the teacher's opinions about the quality of the student draft samples, his final paper and how it reflects his achievement of their level's learning outcomes.

The figures above as well as the student samples provided on the appendix section seem so far to indicate that the learning outcomes have been achieved to a high degree according to students. Such positive results correlate with the average scores in the unit 3 major assignment obtained in the three courses: in ESL 112 average scores were 93, in ESL 115: 87.5, and in ESL 500: 94.8 (all scores out of 100). While the average score was below 90 in ESL 115, via private communication with the teacher, he said that it was due to many cases where students used the abstracts to create their summaries instead of demonstrating their own summarizing skill and understanding of the sources. As a result, he deducted a significant number of points from the total score. That note aside, these findings can further support the claim of the validity of student ratings in the sense that similar to the findings of Benton, Duchon and Pallett (2013) there seems to be a positive correlation between students' perception of achievement of unit 3's core objectives and their major assignment scores. Unfortunately, the correlation could not be

calculated and confirmed due to the lack of access to students' identity in the survey answers so as to correlate it with their individual scores.

Specific class aspects influencing writing improvement. Because this study aims to investigate specific teacher practices in the teaching of writing and their impact on student learning, students were asked the question of what aspect of the class had helped them improve their writing the most. They were asked to rate each of 9 categories below on a 1 to 5 Likert scale (1: not important at all to 5: essential). Table 20 shows the average results for undergraduate and graduate students respectively:

Table 20

Class aspects influencing writing improvement

Question: Please say how important the elements below are. What has helped me improve my writing the most in this course has been:

Category	Undergraduate Group (23)	Graduate Group (11)
The quality of the teaching	4.78	3.90
Sample analyses of written assignments	4.78	3.90
Checklists	4.78	3.45
The teacher's written feedback	4.73	3.81
Class website content	4.69	3.36
In-class writing practice in Googledoc	4.60	3
Teacher-student conferences	4.56	3.54
In-class pair or group work	4.26	3.54
Your peers' feedback	4.04	3.36

Although ratings are higher in the undergraduate group, for both groups the quality of teaching and the sample analyses of written assignments are the elements that students report helped them improve their writing the most. Taken as a whole group, the third most important category for undergraduates was the use of checklists, which was judged as important as the first two aspects, with an average rating of 4.78. This was closely followed by the teacher's written feedback with an average of 4.73 and class website content with 4.69. In fact, sample analyses of written

assignments and checklists (both separate categories) were considered “essential” for their writing improvement by almost all students (82.6%) and "very important" by the remaining 13%. The results suggest first and foremost the quality of teaching, that is, their teachers themselves and all their decisions have helped them improved their writing. If we add their positive rating of both groups on the quality of teaching (5.56 out of 6 for undergraduates and 4.9 out of 6 for graduates) it may be safe to say that they consider their teachers as effective; in turn, there is support for the connection between effective teaching and the high achievement of learning outcomes (both from the students’ and their assignment scores’ point of view). Still, this particular conclusion should be taken with care since there is evidence that students “gains” (at least in terms of scores) cannot be solely attributed to the teacher and may be to an extent the result of independent student variables such as motivation and aptitude and students’ previous achievements in other courses (Peterson, 2000). While it is impossible to assert if these variables interfere in students’ perception of improvement, motivation seems an unlikely interference because on average students reported having being neutral on their interest in writing.

Moreover, results suggest that the participating teachers' principles and decisions on the usefulness of samples and checklists were correct and in fact, do prove to be very helpful and effective pedagogical tools for students to improve their writing. While it was not possible to follow up on these choices with students, the reason behind their usefulness may be how frequently they were used by the teacher, and most importantly, how both are concrete examples of the principle of clarity, which they reported they valued highly in a class.

As observed in Table 20, to some extent teacher’s written feedback was also considered influential in all groups, while peer-feedback was among the least influential across groups. These findings could be partly explained by Lee, Mak and Burns (2016). Although students’

perceptions on written feedback were not the main focus of their study, they point out that there is extensive research in EFL settings (particularly in Asian countries like China where the majority of students in this study were from) which corroborates that based on socio cultural norms students' expect their teachers to be the main, if not the only source of written feedback (Lee, Mak and Burns, 2016). Subsequently, they argue that these students have “entrenched beliefs about the teacher and student roles in the EFL writing classroom” (Lee, Mak and Burns, 2016, p.251) which may be modified by raising students' awareness of the benefits of peer feedback as well as training students on how to do so effectively, among others.

Concerning the lower average for checklists and practice with Googledocs in the graduate group this could be the case because their teacher did not use them very often. On the other hand, the least important class elements for undergraduate students were pair or group work (4.26) and their peers' feedback (4.04), the latter being also among the one of the least important for graduates (3.36) together with class website content. When analyzing the average ratings in the undergraduate classes, there was almost no difference as Table 21 shows:

Table 21

Comparison between ESL 112 and ESL 115

Category	ESL 112	ESL 115	Difference
The quality of the teaching	4.72	4.83	.11
Sample analyses of written assignments	4.54	5	.46
Checklists	4.63	4.91	.28
The teacher's written feedback	4.54	4.91	.37
Class website content	4.63	4.75	.12
In-class writing practice in Googledoc	4.63	4.58	.05
Teacher-student conferences	4.54	4.58	.04
In-class pair or group work	4.36	4.16	.2
Your peers' feedback	4	4.08	.08

Students' opinions on the characteristics of a good ESL teacher and the embodiment of those features in their ESL writing teachers

In accordance with the characteristics of good teachers described in teacher evaluation literature, students were asked to assess the importance of 9 characteristics. Of these, most are found to be the most significant in general education literature, while some others (here marked with an asterisk (*)) are ranked lower in the literature but were included here for their particular relevance in writing instruction. Results on table 4.23 show some differences between the elements undergraduate and graduate students prioritize as more characteristic of a good ESL writing teacher. In the undergraduate group, the four most important characteristics of a good teacher were “caring about and respecting students” (4.82 out of 5), followed closely by “being clear and understandable” (4.78), and 3 items with a similar rating of 4.73: well-prepared and organized, clear statement of objectives, frequent and timely feedback. Among the least important were “encourages questions and discussions” (4.43) and “creates intellectually challenging writing practice activities” (4.39).

In terms of the most important characteristics, these correlate with their open responses on what makes a good writing class, in particular, caring about students, clarity, organization and sense of purpose, as discussed earlier in this section. On the other hand, one of the least important elements (pair or group discussions) may be considered so because of the influence of their previous educational experience in their home country. As the great majority comes from China, where classes tend to be teacher-fronted with the student having the role of observer rather than participant (Liu, 2009) it is very likely that they are not used to this form of instruction and that they are still adjusting to it. The other element (creating challenging activities) may be so due to the additional cognitive burden of having to improve their writing skills while at the same

Please say how important the characteristics below are. A good ESL writing teacher:				How well does your teacher demonstrate the characteristics below? My current teacher:				
	Undergraduate group			Graduate group	Undergraduate group			Graduate group
Teaching item	ESL 112	ESL 115	Group total	ESL 500	ESL 112	ESL 115	Group total	ESL 500
Is well-prepared; has a well-organized course	4.54	4.91	4.73	4.36	4.63	5	4.82	4.72
States clear course objectives	4.54	4.91	4.73	4.27	4.63	4.83	4.73	4.81
Is clear and understandable	4.63	4.91	4.78	4.63	4.63	4.91	4.78	4.81
Stimulates interest in the course and in academic writing	4.27	4.75	4.52	4.36	4.54	4.66	4.60	4.27
Encourages questions and discussion	4.09	4.75	4.43	4.36	4.91	4.54	4.73	4.45
Creates intellectually challenging writing practice activities	4.09	4.66	4.39	3.72	4.83	4.45	4.65	4.54
Is available and helpful out of class	4.27	5	4.65	3.90	4.54	4.91	4.73	4.45
Provides timely and frequent feedback to help you improve	4.45	4.5	4.73	4.45	4.54	5	4.78	4.63
Cares about and respects students	4.63	5	4.82	4.27	4.80	5	4.82	4.81

Figure 14. Student views on the characteristics of a good ESL writing teacher and the frequency of their occurrence

time apply critical thinking skills in another language (without considering the fact that some students may not have a strong foundation in both this skills in their mother tongue to begin with).

In the graduate group, results were slightly different. The two most highly valued characteristics are “being clear and understandable” (4.63), and “provides frequent and timely feedback” (4.45). Results show that although both groups value being given frequent and timely feedback as well as being clear and understandable, the graduate group places less importance on availability out of class as well as intellectual challenge than undergraduate students. In addition, contrary to the undergraduate trend, caring for students and stating clear objectives were the least important for them with a similar rating each (4.27).

How often do these teachers display the characteristics of effective teaching? As the results illustrate (Figure 14) the three teachers display all the characteristics of effective teaching very often, as none of the ratings is below 4 (out of a 5 point Likert scale). Looking at it more closely, results show that interestingly in the undergraduate group the same characteristics that are considered as the most important in a good ESL teacher are those that also students reported their teacher displayed the most often: “cares and respects students’ and good preparation and organization” ratings for each was 4.82 out of 5, “is clear and understandable and gives frequents and timely feedback” were rated with 4.78 each. In contrast, while they estimated “encouraging questions and discussion and creating challenging intellectual activities” were the least characteristic of an effective ESL writing teacher, when it came to reporting how frequently their teachers did these, the ratings were much higher for these (4.73 and 4.65 respectively). These results indicate that while there seems to be a match between students’ expectations of a good class, there are two dimensions were these do not match in that are important for the teachers,

they may not be as important to students (perhaps due to the cultural reasons previously discussed). In the case of the graduate group, there was not as strong a match between students' characteristics of a good teacher and their reports of how frequently the teacher did this. There was a strong match of expectations in items such as "is clear and understandable and gives frequent and timely feedback" (4.81 and 4.63 respectively); however, when it came to other items they valued highly such as "availability and intellectually challenging activities," the ratings while still high, were lower than others in the list (4.45 and 4.54). Despite this apparent mismatch, other positive characteristics were considered as done frequently, even if they did not deem them as the most relevant for a good ESL writing teacher. These were: "states clear objectives, cares about and respects students and is well-prepared and organized."

Evidence of the teaching effectiveness of the participating teachers

So far, the results from the student section have shown that from the students' point of view, their teachers are effective ESL writing teachers. The evidence shows that this is so because they are satisfied with the class, rate their teaching highly, report answers that match what makes a good ESL writing class with many of the characteristics of effective teaching, consider that most of their writing improvement has been to the overall quality of teaching, and claim to have reached the learning outcomes successfully (which is to some extent backed up with class average scores on unit 3's assignment). Similarly, their effectiveness is supported by the teaching effectiveness literature from general education as well as from the field of language and second language writing. From a general perspective, the teaching practices observed include the use of the three types of teaching identified as effective by Tharp and Gallimore (1988), that is, didactic, coaching and Socratic teaching respectively. Moreover, in principle and practice, these teachers refer to concepts associated with a Vygotskian approach to teaching and

learning, particularly assisted performance, scaffolding, learner-centered instruction, in addition to the various ways to provide assistance—modeling, contingency management, feeding back, instructing, questioning, and cognitive structuring. Specifically, in line with Harbour et al's (2015) study on ways to increase student engagement, these teachers display the three procedures described there; in addition to modeling and questioning their actions support the authors' suggestions of frequent and specific positive feedback as opposed to negative feedback (which the teachers' "saved" for written feedback). While their classroom decisions foster their students' achievement of curriculum goals, they also display their effectiveness in a broader sense. Using Ko and Sammons (2013) terminology, these teachers collaborate with their peers, search for professional development, and consistently engage in teaching reflection. By engaging in reflection they also embody the ideals stated by Farrell (2015) in what he calls the key competency for 21st teachers. With it, these teachers' concern is to be and also remain effective teachers.

What also makes them effective is the display of many of the characteristics of effective teaching found in both general education (see Appendix T), language and second language writing (see Appendix T and chapter 2 for reiteration) in addition to their ability to adapt their teaching to best meet the needs of their students. In that sense, from the field of second language teaching, these teachers have the necessary "special theoretical and practical preparation for teaching L2 writers" (Silva, 1993, p.670) so that they can "deal positively and effectively with [their] sociocultural, rhetorical, and linguistic differences" (Silva, 1993, p.670) In addition to this, these teachers are aware of the distinct nature of L2 writing and the potential areas of difficulty for their students such as those outlined by Silva, Leki and Carson (1997). Some of these are their awareness of many students' difficulties in avoiding plagiarism, in comprehending

scholarly sources (especially undergraduate students), in familiarizing with and adopting a writer-based approach to writing, among other concerns (see full list of Silva, Leki and Carson, 1997 on Appendix T). Consequently, in terms of how they carry out these consideration into their teaching decisions, they do so in many ways. They “familiarize them with L1 audience expectations” (Silva, 1993, p.671), and provide them with some grammar and vocabulary resources, and writing samples for additional support. They also put into practice Weigle’s (2014) suggestions that to achieve good L2 writing teachers should consider “the context where the writing will be used,” (Weigle, 2014,p.223) and asking students to turn in multiple drafts revised by following feedback, connect reading and writing to promote academic literacy, and teach students to appropriately incorporate sources into their writing. The participating teachers also follow Weigle’s (2014) recommendation of stating learning outcomes with “observable behaviors” that are aligned with assessment criteria, and authentic academic tasks (write summaries, annotated bibliographies, for example). This extends to the structuring of the lesson sequence, specifically “activation of prior learning, preview/warm-up, lesson core (instructions, procedure, and participation), closure, and follow-up reflection” (Weigle, 2014, p.230). Finally, the teacher practices align with the principles of sound writing instruction defined by the CCCC (Appendix T) and most importantly with the CCCC specific statement on second language writing and writers which can be taken as guidelines:

- assignments should have clear instructions and if possible an assessment rubric
- teachers should evaluate students’ texts considering various criteria, but with a greater focus on the text’s rhetorical effectiveness
- students should be given the opportunity to write in a variety of genres
- students’ writing should be evaluated at different stages rather than a single time

- students may need more teacher-student conference time. During this time, if not already given in written form, teachers should focus on the global aspects such as rhetorical effectiveness that has been successfully accomplished by students and then discuss 2 or 3 local (stylistic) issues for the student to work on for the rest of the course (“CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers,” 2014).

Although it is not directly associated with ESL writing, the teachers’ consistent interest in encouraging pair or group work reveals their knowledge of the influence of group work in second language acquisition, which is part of their goals in their classes. In other words, they perceive the need of students to improve their oral and participation skills in class as part of their academic competencies. This coincides with Borg’s (2006) findings of the distinctive features of language teaching.

CHAPTER 5—CONCLUSION

This chapter will be divided into three brief sections: a summary of findings, this project's implications for research, teaching and teacher training, acknowledgement of the limitations and suggestions for future studies.

Summary of findings

This study investigated the teaching principles and practices of three ESL writing teachers, the interplay between the two and their subsequent impact on students' learning outcomes in terms of L2 writing improvement or other learning benefits. The within case analyses showed that the teachers' practices were consistent and aligned with their principles although there are contextual constraints they have to adapt to for the best achievement of their principles. In relation to the first research question: (1) what is the lesson structure of an ESL writing class at UIUC and how do effective ESL writing teachers at UIUC realize each part of their lesson to maximize student learning?, the cross-case analyses showed that despite teaching different levels, the lesson structure (in terms of sections) was similar across teachers although how each of them conducted each section revealed some similarities as well as idiosyncratic differences among them. In addition to in-class practices, findings showed they shared a number of practices before the lesson (such as referring to lesson objectives and creating their own materials) and after or out of the lesson (such as self-reflection or procedures for teacher-student conferences and written feedback).

As for the second research question: (2) what are these teachers' principles about teaching/learning and the teaching and learning of ESL writing? they also shared many views and sources of teacher cognition. For all of them, their former good teachers in and out of the MATESL program have had a positive long-lasting impact on the way they currently teach and

the relation they want to have with their students. Moreover, they coincided in the characteristics of effective teachers, which were also found to be relevant ones in the teaching effectiveness literature and most importantly, were features displayed by the teachers themselves in their classes. Regardless of the discipline, they agreed that learning is best achieved with a learner-centered focus in which students are given the chance to discover by themselves, encouraged to think critically, ask questions, contribute to the class with their knowledge, practice academic skills as much as possible in the classroom, and collaborate with each other. In regards to L2 writing instruction, all three teachers characterized “good L2 writing” as the type of written product that effectively conveys a message that meets the expectations and conventions of academic writing in an American university be it at the lexico-grammatical, rhetorical or sociopragmatic level. In this sense, the type of writing they aim to teach their students is functional, useful for students out of the classroom, and that meets their academic needs in English. Findings also showed that they define a “good ESL writing class” in terms of how well the class aligns with curricular goals, goals with module and lesson objectives, and objectives with specific decisions within a lesson. In turn, a “good ESL lesson” is such when the objectives have been reached as a product of informal classroom assessment and always when there has been a substantial amount of student participation. The latter was in fact a constant problem the teachers faced and they had to always devise strategies to encourage student participation. Ultimately, the teachers reported that their goals for their students extend beyond writing, to the range of language skills suitable for academic success.

Finally, concerning the last research question: (3) what are the students’ views on their EAP classes, teachers and most importantly, what are the learning benefits (in relation to and also beyond ESL writing improvement) of taking a class with their instructors and to what aspect

of the class they attributed the achievement of learning outcomes, findings showed that students held a positive view of their writing classes as they found them useful for their L2 writing improvement and also for developing other skills they could transfer to other academic areas (e.g: reading skills and vocabulary). In addition, they had positive comments and high ratings on the quality of teaching and attributed most of their improvement to the teacher itself over other course aspects such as sample analyses, which was considered the most helpful across groups. Student achievement of the course learning outcomes for the unit observed was supported by their positive self-ratings, the overall class average high-score in the unit's written assignment and the comments from their teachers. Finally, the findings provided substantial support to these teachers' effectiveness from the point of view of the literature as well as their students. On the one hand, their pedagogical practices in and out of the classroom are found in the literature of general education and match the standards of good second language writing instructors. On the other, their teaching quality is supported by consistent ICES scores and by their own students' views, which confirmed that their teachers displayed those effective characteristics on a regular basis. Most importantly, as the teachers said themselves, although they feel they are good teachers, they all believe there is room for improvement, which they are always striving for.

Implications for second language instruction research, teaching and teacher training

The study has a number of implications for the L2 writing instruction research, practice, and teacher training. Each area is discussed below.

Implications for second language instruction research

This study shows that any attempt to examine second language writing instruction is a very complex task since it not only consist of analyzing teacher behaviors in the classroom, but also their practices before, after and out of the class that also have an underestimated impact on

students' learning outcomes (writing-related and others) and the perceptions they have on their teacher's effectiveness. Therefore, any study on effective teaching practices should take a broader perspective by taking into account more than teachers observable behaviors; for example, by including an analysis of teacher principles behind their practices and the students' reactions, perceptions, learning outcomes resulting from those practices. In turn, from a methodological perspective, L2 writing instruction studies would benefit from an agreement on certain class elements that need to be considered in class observations to capture the complexity of what goes on in the classroom. Furthermore, more studies of a qualitative nature can be done with students in writing classes in addition to objective measures of their writing improvement to look into the specific aspects of instruction that are most beneficial for them. Finally, efforts should be made to define the concept of "effective ESL writing teacher." While this definition may be context-dependent, the existence of L2 writing instruction guidelines and the study findings suggest that it is possible to find a set of features applicable to any context.

Implications for second language writing pedagogy

Since this study focuses on the teaching of L2 writing, implications in this area are many. As most of them were explained in the findings and discussion section, what follows are only some of them. The study has shown a specific class structure, tasks, materials along with specific principles that all together can make classes focusing on those same topics quite effective, that is, classes that can have greater chances to help students reach the module's learning outcomes successfully. In particular, the study suggested students' L2 writing improvement is facilitated greatly by sample analyses. In contrast, even if teachers are aware of the benefit of group work for second language acquisition as well as to stimulate student participation, their students did not seem to perceive their value for learning outcomes. Consequently, teachers may need to be

more explicit about the benefits of student to student collaboration or find practical ways for students to see the benefit of working with peers. Suffice it to say that any attempt to implement group work activities should be carefully thought out (specific outcome, role distribution, grouping strategies) for better results. Finally, findings suggest that undergraduate students could benefit from a deeper, longer treatment and practice of complex academic skills such as summarizing, paraphrasing, and explaining the relevancy of sources.

Implications for second language writing teacher training

This is the area with the most implications. Having explored the principles of effective ESL writing teachers and observed them in their classes, and accounted for their effectiveness in their students learning outcomes, many of their practices in, out and after their classes could be adopted by novice ESL writing teachers as a starting—neither unique nor final—point of reference for their teaching in the UIUC context. For instance, they could benefit from the more experienced teacher’s knowledge of the target population needs (awareness and avoidance of plagiarism, common word choice or grammar errors, encourage oral participation).

Along the same lines, once they are aware of these needs new teachers should receive a stronger, consistent training and practice on material preparation so that they are better able to create materials that meet their students’ needs (as much as the effective teachers do). In more practical terms, a seminar/workshop could be offered to new TAs that in a minimum of 3 sessions students get to hear and interact with effective teachers approaches to material creation for specific topics followed by a hands-on practice with topics TAs need to actually teach. Similarly, following the “show v/s tell” reference by one of the teachers and even the usefulness of sample analysis in L2 writing, novice teachers could benefit from the analysis of some recordings of effective classes and their analysis, and more “accountable” peer observations. By “accountable”

what is meant is that, they do peer observations with a specific purpose and that they have an actual impact on their teaching. For instance, that after their first semester they select 2 or 3 areas they want to improve and then in the following semester, they consult with peers and go to peer observations to see how other teachers deal with those aspects as well so that they can get ideas for improvement, all of which could be documented in a reflection, portfolio type of document to keep track of their teaching evolution and fostering their teaching metacognition while they are in the MATESL program. To facilitate the evolution process, it would be best if teachers had the opportunity to teach the same level at least once so with a better understanding of the course they are more comfortable trying new strategies.

In terms of in-class teaching behavior, novice teachers could improve their teaching on a daily basis by taking into account elements shown consistently by effective teachers, which could be discussed further in seminars (even a seminar series on effective teaching of academic writing which collects good practices in teaching ESL writing). Important topics emerging from the findings may be how to deal with time constraints and teaching difficult skills in a short amount of time, maximizing in-class practice for students, how to prioritize objectives, how and the importance of a proper closing section at the end of each class period, what are the most effective circulation and monitoring strategies, how to give written feedback in effective and efficient manner, and how to best assist students in and out of class.

Finally, taking into account general teacher characteristics that students value highly in their writing courses', novice teachers should become familiar with these and try their best to meet student expectations and contribute to a great extent to their achievement of learning outcomes. In the category of personal characteristics, caring for students is something all groups value (even more so undergraduate students). In this case, teachers should try to find ways to

establish rapport with and among students, be available and offer feedback promptly, and even praise with regularity to boost student confidence. Although it may seem obvious, students want and learn better if their teachers are clear and understandable; thus, novice teachers should have solid understanding of English academic writing and try to anticipate what may be problematic areas for their students so that they are better prepared to address those concerns in a way that is clear and understandable to students. Finally, since students value organization and preparedness, novice teachers could receive specific training on how to give instructions effectively (components, channels, timing), how to transition between activities, and how to effectively debrief (considering its content and length).

Acknowledgement of the limitations and suggestions for future research

Despite the valuable insights obtained, this project has several limitations that may be addressed in future research. The first one has to do with the small sample size of teachers observed and students surveyed. Although reports from both groups are valuable, a higher amount of students may provide more substantial evidence for the class and teaching aspects they were asked about. In addition, more qualitative data could have been obtained from students if answering the relevant question had been mandatory (if done digitally, as it was the case in this study, it is possible to do so) and most of all, if they had been interviewed to be able to expand on their quantitative answers. Similarly, future research can conduct a more thorough analysis of students' written work and progress throughout a semester-long course or more to provide more substantial evidence of their learning. At the same time, these students could also be interviewed or be asked to keep a written record of their process to better pinpoint what triggers their writing improvement the most. In addition, given the small sample size and local nature of this research,

these findings may be suitable for this particular context, but may not be generalizable to others. Future research may need to focus on other teaching contexts (ESL/EFL) and how they carry out L2 writing instruction. As program goals may differ from those of this program, it would be interesting to investigate the similarities and/or differences in teaching principles and practices. Finally, it must be acknowledged that ideally there should have been an equal number of graduate level courses for a more fruitful comparison; in addition, the choice of module for observations might not have been the most representative of a regular writing class. In particular, the graduate course module observed did not involve too much in-class writing, and the undergraduate module was very structured and rather formulaic. Such choice of topic may have been the reason behind the striking similarity of practices across teachers; consequently, it would be interesting if future research could explore how other “less formulaic” topics are taught (such as coherence and cohesion and PIE structure) and see if there is more variation in practices and principles that were unaccounted for by this project.

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APPENDIX A

Unit 3 Assignment Description and Rubric for ESL 112

ESL 112, Unit 3: Annotated Bibliography Assignment Prompt (15% of Final Grade)

Purpose: This assignment is designed to help you evaluate and reflect on the sources that you find on your IRP topic. Questions that you might address in your annotations are: What kind of information is found in this source? (short summary) How could I use this source in my paper? How do I know if the source is reliable? These questions should be answered in 200-300 words for each source, following an APA format. This should be done for 5 sources you will choose from the library database to help you refine your research and analysis/evaluation skills.

Type of Assignment: An annotated bibliography is used before writing the research paper. Its purpose is to understand the sources and to consider its relevancy and reliability before deciding whether it is a useful, reliable source. An annotated bibliography may also lessen instances of plagiarism in the final draft of the research paper since students have to fully understand the content of the source in order to write the annotation.

Task: Students write an annotation of 200-300 words for each source that they intend to use for their research paper. The annotation for each source should have the following 4 components:

- (1) APA reference page citation
- (2) a brief summary (4-5 sentences)
- (3) an explanation of its relevancy to the research topic/question (4-5 sentences)
- (4) an evaluation of its reliability (2-3 sentences)

Formatting: Times New Roman, Size 12, Double-spaced, APA Reference page citations; the research topic or question should be included as the title of the document.

Sources Requirements: 5 sources for the Individual Research Paper are chosen by the student. At least 3 of them should be reliable and academic sources and the other two can be reliable but not academic sources. (The annotated bibliography should be used by the instructor as an opportunity to reject any unacademic or unreliable sources before the students begin writing.)

Plagiarism Disclaimer: AVOID PLAGIARISM! You should only need to summarize your sources for the annotations. Quotations should not be necessary, unless you are referring to a newly coined term or special phrase your source uses. APA citation style should be used. ANY copying and pasting in even one of the annotations may result in automatic failure of the assignment.

Deadlines/Timeline: To be announced by instructor.

(*Note: The annotated bibliography should be graded before students begin writing the final drafts of the research papers, if possible, in order to identify problems in comprehension, plagiarism, or source reliability.)

Submission Instructions: To be announced by instructor.

File Name: **112_Annotated_Bibliography_NetID_#orFINAL**

Unit 3. Annotated Bibliography Grading Rubric
(15% of Final Grade)

	Points
<u>Citation</u> Correct APA format	/25
<i>Citation Comments</i>	
<u>Summary</u> Summary is at least 4-5 sentences, does not plagiarize, balances being comprehensive and specific and does not have distracting grammatical errors	/30
<i>Summary Comments</i>	
<u>Explanation of Relevancy</u> Relevancy is 4-5 sentences, makes specific connections to future writing, does not have distracting grammatical errors	/20
<i>Relevancy Comments</i>	
<u>Reliability of Source</u> Reliability demonstrates a proper evaluation of source, does not have distracting grammatical errors	/15
<i>Reliability Comments</i>	
<u>Overall Formatting:</u> Times New Roman/size 12 font, 1 inch margins, nicely spaced sections	/5
<u>Source requirement & Completion:</u> find at least 3 reliable and academic sources out of 5, and write/submit 5 annotated bibliographies including 4 sections—APA citation, Summary, Relevancy and Reliability statements.	/5

FINAL GRADE: /100

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

APPENDIX B

Unit 3 Assignment Description and Rubric for ESL 115

ESL 115, Unit 3: Annotated Bibliography

Student Assignment Prompt (15 % of final grade)

Purpose: In this unit, you will be equipped with the skills to find, document, and justify sources for your IRP based on the criteria of their credibility, ease of reading, and relationship to your topic.

Type of Assignment: You will be compiling an annotated bibliography, a formal “note sheet”, for each source that will help you decide which are the most helpful for your research.

Task: Select 5 sources (not counting the organization website, and at least 3 academic, peer-reviewed) that you would like to use for your IRP.

Include the following 4 elements for each source:

- 1) APA reference page citation
- 2) Summary of the source (4-5 sentences)
- 3) Relevancy statement (3-4 sentences)
Describes how the source is specifically relevant to different parts of your IRP
- 4) Reliability statement (1-2 sentences)
Explains why the source is reliable and credible

Class activities will give you a model for each part of your IRP annotated bibliography.

Formatting: Times New Roman, Size 12, 1-inch margins on all sides, sections nicely divided according to instructor’s directions

Source Requirements: 5 credible sources (not including the organization website, and at least 3 peer-reviewed)

Plagiarism Disclaimer: Both intentional and unintentional plagiarism will be dealt with harshly. Consequences vary from instructor to instructor.

Deadlines/Timeline: To be announced by teacher

Submission Instructors: To be announced by teacher

File Name: 115_Annotated_Bibliography_netid_FINAL

**ESL 115: Independent Problem Solution Research Paper Annotated Bibliography
15% OF FINAL GRADE, 100 Total Points**

Name:

	<u>Points</u>
<u>Citation</u> Correct APA format	/15
<i>Citation Comments</i>	
<u>Summary</u> Summary is at least 4 sentences, does not plagiarize, balances being comprehensive and specific and does not have distracting grammatical errors	/30
<i>Summary Comments</i>	
<u>Explanation of Relevancy</u> Relevancy is 3-4 sentences, makes specific connections to future writing, does not have distracting grammatical errors	/25
<i>Relevancy Comments</i>	
<u>Reliability of Source</u> Reliability demonstrates a proper evaluation of source, does not have distracting grammatical errors	/20
<i>Reliability Comments</i>	
<u>Plagiarism</u> Writing is in student's own words; credit is given to an author anytime a source is used. Plagiarism will result in a deduction of points.	
<u>Overall Formatting:</u> Times New Roman/size 12 font, 1 inch margins, nicely spaced sections, double-spaced as appropriate	/10

FINAL GRADE: /100

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

APPENDIX C

Unit 3 Assignment Description and Rubric for ESL 500

ESL 500, Unit 3: Critique Essay Overview

Student Assignment Prompt (20% of final grade)

Purpose: The purpose of this assignment is to assess students' abilities to both summarize an external source as well as to critique the source's validity, credibility, argumentation, and organization.

Type of Assignment: Critique writing skills are used in *all* fields both informally in research and formally in publications, such as reviews, response papers and reaction papers.

Task: You will read an article (one article for the whole class), and **write a 2-3 page critique essay, working as a class** to come up with critique points to include. The critique essay will consist of an introduction and summary of the article, at least 3 critique points with examples from the text, and a conclusion.

Formatting Requirements: Your assignment should be 2-3 pages long, with a title, not including the cover page. You should use Times New Roman, size 12 font, double-spaced, with 1-inch margins on all sides (Paper size: 8 ½ x 11-inches).

Source Requirements: You are required to write your critique about the assigned article, and you may use the sample critique as a source in your own critique. Other outside sources are not required. You must use citations throughout your paper.

Plagiarism Disclaimer: Intentional or unintentional plagiarism on this final assignment will result in a zero for this assignment and potential failure from the course. Because avoiding plagiarism has been thoroughly covered in Unit 2, students must be able to demonstrate an understanding of these skills in order to pass this assignment and this course.

Deadlines/Timeline:

1st draft of the Critique Essay due Day 20 (peer review)

2nd draft of the Critique Essay due 48 hours before your individual conference

Final draft of the Critique Essay due Day 23

Submission Instructions: Provided here by each teacher based on their course management system.

File Name:

500_Critique_student's netid_#

For the number at the end of the file name, 0 (zero) = outline, 1 = first draft, 2 = second draft, FINAL = final draft

e.g., 500_Diagnostic_Revision_domino3_FINAL

ESL 500, Unit 3 Critique Essay Grading Rubric

(A) ADVANCED (B) DEVELOPED (C) ADEQUATE (D) DEVELOPING (F) ABSENT

INTRODUCTION and SUMMARY	A B C D F	COMMENTS
SOURCE: Introduces the author, title of the article, and topic.		
SUMMARY ORGANIZATION/QUALITY: Briefly summarizes the article, presenting its main ideas and remains objective without personal judgments/opinions.		
THESIS STATEMENT: Defines the purpose of the essay and previews the overall strengths and/or weaknesses of the article.		

CRITIQUE (BODY)	A B C D F	COMMENTS
CRITIQUE ORGANIZATION/QUALITY: Critique evaluates the validity of the article by addressing its 1) significance and contribution to the field; 2) method/approach; 3) arguments and use of evidence; 4) style and organization, etc.		
SUPPORT/ ELABORATION: Opinions and main ideas are reinforced with relevant supporting details such as facts, examples and statistics drawn from the article . Ideas are explained in a detailed and specific manner and not listed (PIE structure for each point).		

CONCLUSION	A B C D F	COMMENTS
CONTENT: Restates overall assessment of the work without a word-to-word repetition, and offers recommendations for improvement.		

GLOBAL CONCERNS	A B C D F	COMMENTS
PLAGIARISM: At this point in the course, all basic principles and methods to avoid plagiarism have been covered. Both unintentional and intentional plagiarism may lead to a failure of this course.		
SOURCE INTEGRATION: Effective summary, paraphrase, and quotation is used to integrate sources. All source usage is appropriately cited in-text and in the reference page.		
COHESIVE DEVICES: Each sentence is logically connected and transitions smoothly into the next sentence.		
LANGUAGE: Formal language and evaluative and hedging language is used to maintain a polite, academic tone.		
CLARITY: Grammar errors/incorrect word choices do not distract the reader from the important points.		
FORMATTING: Font Times New Roman, Size 12, Double-Spaced, Margins 1-inch, Creative Title		
OVERALL: Essay adequately responds to the prompt. Contains an introduction, at least 3 critique points/body paragraphs, and a conclusion.		

FINAL GRADE:

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

APPENDIX D

Teachers' Consent Form

Dear Instructor or Teaching Assistant,

Thank you for your interest in participating in this project. To get this project started it is essential for me to have your informed consent. Before you ensure your participation, I invite you to read a brief description and purposes of the project you will be part of, a description of the research procedures your agreeing to participate will entail and the estimated time commitment for them. Please read carefully and let me know if you have any questions or concerns at sndvlmn2@illinois.edu.

Title of Project: What the best ESL writing teachers do at UIUC: pedagogical practices, teaching beliefs and how these impact their students' learning.

Responsible Principal Investigator: Randall Sadler

Other Investigator(s): Catalina Sandoval

Purpose of the Study: The first objective of this research is to examine the instructional practices of a set of ESL Writing teachers (instructors and TAs) at UIUC who are considered to be the best ones so as to facilitate the learning process of new ESL Writing teachers. While there have been studies investigating ESL writing teachers practices in the classroom, they are still few in number and with differing research foci in the classroom context. So far, there do not seem to be enough comprehensive studies that look into several aspects of the ESL writing class at once (aspects such as teachers' class routines, mode of presentation and practice, teacher and student roles and interaction in discourse, selection and use of materials, among others). Admittedly, new ESL teachers can refer to several books on how to best teach ESL writing; however, many of these rely on advice that may seem too abstract and fail to help new ESL writing teachers cope with—and improve—their daily practices. By means classroom observations (of 3 teachers for the course of an entire module, which tends to be around 4 or 5 weeks), analysis of pedagogical materials and teacher interviews I will attempt to construct a complete picture of specific ESL writing classes. In this way, new teachers can gain knowledge of the ESL writing classroom they can more closely relate to.

A second objective of my research is to go beyond teachers' classroom practice by investigating teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and the teaching of writing. The idea is to see to what extent what they do in the classroom is informed by those beliefs or to put it in another way, how those beliefs are realized in concrete practices. In order to get this information, I will do several teacher interviews over the course of the semester and one survey.

A third and final objective is to explore the impact of these teachers' practices in their students' learning. Most of the studies on ESL writing instruction focus on the teacher, but not so much on the students' learning. While there are studies that do so, they tend to use objective measures such as having students write essays to account for the amount of writing improvement on specific instructional content. However, in this project, learning will be defined in a broader

sense, that is, not necessarily restricted to writing progress, but to any other type of learning that the student has obtained from the course (for example, more confidence in their overall writing ability, a perceived increased of vocabulary, an improvement of their essay quality in their core courses', etc.)

1. **Procedures to be followed:** In order to answer the research questions, the main procedures are described below together with estimated timing.

Data collection procedure	Media	When? How long?	How often?
<i>Class observation</i>	Note taking Audio recording	*Start date to be arranged. One module (4 or 5 weeks)	Every class during that period (8-12 sessions)
<i>Class Materials (lesson plan, handouts, lecture material, or digital tools such as Google docs, blogs, or forums)</i>	Links to course website and paper handouts	Every class During the whole observation period.	Every class or by the end of the week (according to instructor's convenience)
<i>Individual Interviews (3)</i>	Note taking, audio recording	By the end of each week lasting 30-40 minutes each	Once a week (3 interviews total)
<i>Group interview</i>	Note taking, audio recording	*date to be arranged. No longer than 30 minutes.	Once
<i>Surveys (digital)</i>	Digital (via email)	During the project's data collection period. Surveys can take between 30-45 minutes to complete.	Once

2. **Discomforts and Risks:** There are no physical risks associated with any research procedure you will be participating in. Any discomfort or risk is not expected to be any greater than what is experienced in everyday life; for example, there may be some discomfort associated with being observed in class and asked about explanations about your class decisions. There may be some discomfort for your students during the observation period due to the presence of the researcher although this risk will be as minimized as possible so as not to disturb the classroom environment.
3. **Benefits:** On a large scale, this project seeks to contribute to the literature on second language writing instruction by expanding the knowledge on what effective ways are there to teach second language writing. Moreover, it aims to contribute to the discussion of what it means to be a good ESL writing teacher. At a more local level, it gives participating teachers a chance to reflect on their teaching practices and beliefs for potential improvement if needed and to share their views with peers; this, in turn fosters collaborative atmosphere among UIUCs ESL writing teachers, which can further improve their practice and continue benefiting their future students. Finally, while not a personal benefit, the observations and views gathered in this project could benefit future incoming ESL writing TAs with little or no ESL writing teaching experience. Once again participating teachers' views and classroom experiences could serve as guidelines for them to follow and reflect on their own practices.

4. **Statement of Confidentiality:** Confidentiality will be kept throughout the duration of this project. All collected data will be accessed only by the researcher, who also ensures absolute privacy by not discussing any of the collected data for the length of the project until its final submission. The only exception to sharing findings is to discuss these with the researcher’s advisor. Even then, in order to maintain privacy, pseudonyms will be used (as well as in observation notes, interviews and in the final version of the project) so as to preserve anonymity. Some biographical information will be presented in the final version of this thesis in the form of vignettes, although pseudonyms will continue to be used. All notes will be taken in a personal notebook which will be carried at all times exclusively by the researcher. As for all audio recordings, these will be kept secure in a password protected flash drive of access only to the researcher.

Despite ensuring as much confidentiality as possible, since this project includes a group interview the researcher cannot guarantee complete confidentiality as she cannot control what its participants discuss outside the interview. In order to lessen those risks, the researcher will ask all participating teachers to respect each other’s privacy by not discussing other teachers’ opinions.

5. **Whom to contact:** Please contact Randall Sadler at 217-244-2734 or via e-mail at rsadler@illinois.edu with any questions, or concerns about the research. You may also call him if you feel you have been injured or harmed by this research. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study or any concerns or complaints, please contact the University of Illinois Institutional Review Board at 217-333-2670 or via email at irb@illinois.edu.
6. **Compensation:** There is no compensation for participating in this project.
7. **Cost of participating:** There are no monetary costs by participating in this project.
8. **Voluntariness:** Your decision to participate, decline, or withdraw from participation is completely voluntary and will have no effect on your grades at, status at, or future relations with the University of Illinois. You may discontinue your participation from the project at any time by notifying the researcher via e-mail.
9. **Dissemination:** Research results will be disseminated via a thesis that will be publicly available via IDEALS. Due to their potential implications for UIUCs ESL writing service courses’, this project’s findings could be shared with the program directors, teaching coordinator, and even new incoming ESL writing staff (instructors and TAs).

- I have read and understand the above consent form and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.
- I was given a copy of this consent form for my records.

By signing below, I voluntary agree to participate in *all* the activities described under “Procedures to be followed”

Participant Signature

Date

APPENDIX E

Students' Consent Form

Dear Student,

Thank you for your interest in participating in this project. To get this project started it is essential for me to have your informed consent. Before you ensure your participation, I invite you to read a brief description and purposes of the project you will be part of and also a description of the activities that come with your consented participation. Please read carefully and let me know if you have any questions or concerns at sndvlmn2@illinois.edu.

NOTE: You must be 18 years old or older to participate. If you are under 18, please return this form to the researcher.

Title of Project: What the best ESL writing teachers do at UIUC: pedagogical practices, teaching beliefs and how these impact their students' learning.

Purposes of the Study:

1. To examine the teaching practices of a set of ESL Writing teachers (instructors and TAs) at UIUC who are considered to be the best ones. By observing their classes, I can determine what they do when they teach and how (including their interaction with you, the students). In this way, I can collect information that can be useful to share with new ESL writing teachers so that they can be better teachers by helping reach their students' learning goals.
2. To see how teachers beliefs about teaching and learning and the teaching of writing influence what they do in the classroom.
3. To explore the effect of these teachers' classes in their students' learning. This will be measured through your opinions via a survey and a brief interview at the end of the course.

Participation: If you participate, what are you expected to do?

Because this project depends on class observations and the interaction between the teacher and his/her students, I will audio record every class and may need to write down some of your spoken interaction with the teacher or your written responses in a class activity. However, if I do this, the information will always be confidential and only seen by me. It will never be seen or discussed with your instructor. If you decide to participate, you will allow me to quote any class-related contribution you make in class (always using a pseudonym). If you do not agree to participate, I will not take any notes of your contributions in class or use any of the audio recorded data where you appear in my thesis.

By agreeing to participate, you also agree to complete a short electronic survey (no more than 10 minutes) and possibly a short (10-15 mins.) face-to-face, individual interview the last day of the course depending on your schedule availability. All information will be audio recorded, but confidential and only accessed by me. The purpose of the survey is to know your satisfaction with the course, the teacher and in the interview to share a more extended view of some of the questions on ICES forms to better understand your choices.

Confidentiality: Who will see the data I collect?

Confidentiality will be kept throughout the duration of this project. All collected data (in written notes, audio recordings or digitally) will be accessed only by the researcher, who also ensures absolute privacy by using pseudonyms and never discussing any of the collected data with your instructor for the length of

the project until its final submission. The only exception to sharing findings is to discuss these with the researcher's advisor. Even then, in order to maintain privacy, pseudonyms will be used.

Discomforts and Risks: Any discomfort or risk is not expected to be any greater than what is experienced in everyday life; for example, there may be some discomfort for you during the observation period due to the presence of the researcher. I will remain silent and at the back of the room so that I do not distract you from the class.

Benefits: Advancing the knowledge of second language writing instruction, helping new and experienced ESL writing teachers become better teachers, and contributing to a better learning experience for future ESL writing students at UIUC.

Compensation: There is no compensation for participating in this project.

Voluntariness: Your decision to participate, decline, or withdraw from participation is completely voluntary and will have no effect on your grades at, status at, or future relations with the University of Illinois. By agreeing to participate, you authorize me to quote any of your class-related contributions, complete the end-of-course survey, take part in the individual interview at the end of the course (which will be audio recorded). If you decline to participate, that is, you do not sign this consent form, I will not quote any classroom contribution you make, and will neither complete the survey nor participate in the interview. You may discontinue your participation from the project at any time by notifying the researcher via e-mail.

Dissemination: Research results will be disseminated via a thesis that will be publicly available via IDEALS. Due to their potential implications for UIUCs ESL writing service courses', this project's findings could be shared with the program directors, teaching coordinator, and even new incoming ESL writing staff (instructors and TAs).

Whom to contact: Please contact Randall Sadler at 217-244-2734 or via e-mail at rsadler@illinois.edu with any questions, or concerns about the research. You may also call him if you feel you have been injured or harmed by this research. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study or any concerns or complaints, please contact the University of Illinois Institutional Review Board at 217-333-2670 or via email at irb@illinois.edu.

- I am 18 years old or older.
- I have read and understand the above consent form and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.
- I was given a copy of this consent form for my records

By signing below, I voluntarily agree to participate in *all* the activities described under "Participation"

Participant Signature

Date

APPENDIX F

Class Observation Table

Time	Teacher/Class/Date	Topic/Objective

Time	Activity/focus	Activity type	Type of resource	Instructions/Pre-activity	Student reactions
Resources:					

Key:

-activity types: Individual, pairs, group work (number), class

-resource: PPT, Gdoc, printed worksheet, course website

-interaction: teacher to student, student to teacher, student to student

? question

APPENDIX G

Teacher Interview Questions (Semi-Structured) (Some questions are from Yigitoglu, 2011)

Class description and evaluation (every session)

1. How do you think your classes went this week?
2. Describe one of these classes that you think was most successful. Why?
3. Describe one of these classes that you think was not as successful as you had hoped it would be. Why?
4. Open questions about their choice of materials, class interaction, presentation of content, practice activities, among others.

Views on Learning:

1. Is this the first time you are teaching this class? If not, for how many times have you taught it?
2. How do you define learning? How can you tell when a student has learned?
3. What do you want your students learning outcomes to be? In other words, what do you want your students to achieve as a result of your class?

Views on Teaching:

4. How would you characterize your teaching style?
5. How do you prepare to teach? In other words, what is your planning process like?
6. How do you make sure your teaching matches your students' learning outcomes?
7. How would you describe your relationship with students? What aspects of your teaching have contributed to creating that relationship?
8. How do you evaluate students' progress? (besides formal evaluations)
9. Do you have any form of self-evaluation or self-reflection about your teaching practice? If so, which one, and how useful is it? In other words, think of examples for which they have helped you realize and eventually take action in the classroom.

Views on teaching and learning L2 writing

10. Describe what you consider to be a good ESL writing teacher. What should good ESL writing teachers know and do?
11. How can you define learning to write in an L2? How can you tell when a student has learned this?
12. What do you believe is your role as a teacher of L2 writing? (e.g. role model, coach, etc.) How does it influence your teaching choices?
13. How do you make sure your teaching choices match your students' learning outcomes?

Views on teaching and learning L2 writing (Part 2)

14. What kind of resource materials do you usually use? Do you look for ready-made ones or create your own? Why? If you create your own materials, is there a distinct feature in them? (content, design, etc.) *Repeated to inquire further than survey.
15. Does technology play any role in ESL writing instruction? If so, which ones? What role does it play in your class? *Repeated to inquire further than survey.
16. What kind(s) of feedback to student writing do you think are important as a teacher? Why?
17. Personally, what is the purpose of a teacher-student conference? When and how do you conduct one?
18. What overall advice would you give to a novice ESL writing teacher? In other words, what is something you wish you had been told (teaching-wise) when you started teaching ESL writing?

Group session

1. Describe what you consider to be a good ESL writing teacher. What should good ESL writing teachers know and do?
2. How can you define learning to write in an L2? How can you tell when a student has learned this?
3. What do you believe is your role as a teacher of L2 writing? (e.g. role model, coach, etc.) How does it influence your teaching choices?
4. Discuss their ratings on pre-group interview survey

APPENDIX H

Pre-Group Interview Survey

What has made you the teacher you are today?

Please rate each of the categories below from a scale of 1 (not influential at all) to 6 (very influential)

	1 (not influential at all)	2	3	4	5	6 (very influential)
Previous learning experiences (positive or negative)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Subject knowledge of academic writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Formal teaching education	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Contextual factors (target population, curricula, classroom type and time constraints)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collaboration with peers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A mentor (or more)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having learned a foreign language (or more)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Continuous reflection on your teaching	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX I

UIUC ESL Writing Teachers' Electronic Survey

Biographical questions (some questions are from Yigitoglu, 2011 and Bain, 2004)

1. What is your nationality?
2. What is your first language?
3. How long have you been teaching English?
4. How long have you been teaching EAP L2 writing?
5. What are your qualifications (TESOL and other non-related fields)?
6. Do you speak any other language? Which one(s)?
7. How proficient in do you consider yourself in it/them as a speaker? Native-like/highly proficient/Good working knowledge/Basic communication skills
Language 1 - Language 2 - Language 3
8. Which writing classes have you taught at UIUC? Check all that apply
9. Which writing classes are you currently teaching at UIUC? Check all that apply
10. How would you rate your writing skills in your native language?
Basic-good-very good- highly proficient?
11. Did you receive any writing training in your first language or other language? (If yes, answer question 12) Yes/No
12. If yes, did this training influence how you teach writing? If so, how?
13. What does good L1 writing mean to you? How is it similar or different to good L2 writing?
14. How would you rate your English writing skill? Justify your answer. (pp)
15. In a scale of 1-6, how would you rate the quality of your teaching of EAP?
1 (Poor)-6 (Excellent)
16. How can you characterize the type of written feedback you give your students?
Check all that apply:
Global errors, which ones?
Local errors, which ones?
Positive and negative comments
Only positive comments
Only negative comments
Other
17. On a scale of 1 (not important at all) to 6 (extremely important) rate the importance of teacher-student conferences.
18. What kind of resource materials do you usually use? Check all that apply:
Material available on your course website (If yes, which one(s)?)
Powerpoint presentations
Paper handouts
Googledocs
Other
19. Do you look for ready-made materials or do you create your own?
20. If you create your own materials, is there a distinct feature in them? (content, design, etc.)
21. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement below?

“Technology plays an important role in ESL writing instruction”

1(Totally disagree) - 6 (Totally agree)

22. Does technology play any role in your class? If yes, which one(s)?

APPENDIX J

Student Survey

Biographical questions (some questions are from Yigitoglu, 2011 and Bain, 2004)

1. Are you an undergraduate or graduate student
2. What is your home country?
3. What is your first language?
4. Indicate your major
5. How many years have you been studying at UIUC?
6. How long have you been learning English? (even before coming to the U.S)
7. How many English WRITING classes (not counting English classes with SOME writing) have you had (even in your home country)?

Views on learning in the course

1. How interested are you in learning to write academic English?
2. Rate the overall quality of this course
3. How helpful has this course been for you?
4. What do you think about the workload in this course?
5. How difficult was the course?
6. Please say how important are the elements below. What has helped me improve my writing the most in this course has been:

	1 Not important at all	2	3 Important	4	5 Essential
The quality of the teaching	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teacher-student conferences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The teacher's written feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your peers' feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In-class pair or group work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Class website content	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In-class writing practice in GoogleDoc	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sample analyses of written assignments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Checklists	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. To what extent do you agree or disagree with this statement: "Having this class in a computer lab positively influenced my learning"
8. In a scale of 1 (Poor) to 6 (Excellent), how would you rate the quality of the teaching in this class?
9. In your opinion, what should a good ESL writing teacher do? (Open question)
10. Please say how important are the characteristics below. A good ESL writing teacher:

	1 not important at all	2	3 important	4	5 Essential
Is well-prepared; has a well-organized course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
States clear course objectives	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is clear and understandable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stimulates interest in the course and in academic writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Encourages questions and discussion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Creates intellectually challenging writing practice activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is available and helpful out of class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provides timely and frequent feedback to help you improve	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cares about and respects students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. How well does your teacher demonstrate the characteristics below? My current teacher: (Same grid as in question 10)

12. This question refers to what you learnt in unit 3. How much do you feel you learnt about...?

Undergraduate survey:

	1 Nothing at all. I still do not know how to do this.	2	3	4	5 A lot. I am very confident doing this.
Using the library for research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evaluating sources: reliability	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evaluating sources: relevancy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing a reliability statement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing a relevancy statement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing a summary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Graduate Students' Survey:

	1 Nothing at all. I still do not know how to do this.	2	3	4	5 A lot. I am very confident doing this.
Summarizing a study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evaluating a study's research validity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Organizing critique points in coherent paragraphs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using the appropriate academic language to critique	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13. In what other areas besides writing have you improved thanks to this class? (maybe speaking, reading, vocabulary, etc)

14. How much did this class help you to...?

	1 Nothing at all	2	3	4	5 A lot
Learn skills that you can use in other courses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Become more confident in your writing skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. What makes a GOOD ESL writing class? (Open question)

16. What makes a BAD ESL writing class? (Open question)

APPENDIX K

Sample Presentation-Relevancy Statements

(Original color and formatting have been changed for easier presentation, but content is intact)

2 **Small group discussion:**

What is relevancy? (you may want to search online for this)

How is this related to searching for sources?

How do you find out if a source is relevant for your topic? For instance, when you do a search in the library database, what do you do to see which sources fit with your topic?

3 **How to determine relevancy:**

Title

Abstract

Headings

Skimming

Conclusion/Introduction

Keywords

4 **Practice with articles**

With your group, go to the Google doc titled "Practice determining relevancy".

Look at each article (you will not have time to read them all) and determine whether or not these will be relevant for the topic, and where that information will be used.

5 **How did you decide where to use the source?**

6 **Relevancy statements**

A relevancy statement is a short statement (3-4 sentences) where you will show why the source is relevant to your work.

A relevancy statement should answer:

-What information does this source include that is relevant?

-Where will it be used in the paper?

11 **Example 5:**

Since my paper talks about how the solutions can be improved, this source will be really useful for my argument. It talks about stuff that has been successful in reducing, which is what I will argue the organization can do better. This article also talks about ways to help implement policies, which supports my other improvement to the solutions they have proposed.

GOOD or BAD?

13 **In your groups:**

Write a relevancy statement for the following article:

<http://www.nrdc.org/food/wasted-food.asp>

Skim over the article to see what kind of information it has to decide how it would be relevant and where it would be relevant to the class topic.

7 **Example 1:**

This source provides background information about how the organization has implemented its first solution, getting donations of leftover food from restaurants. It details how the organization structures these donations and where they will be distributed. This will be useful in helping to understand the solution, as well as critique it.

GOOD or BAD?

8 **Example 2:**

This article is good for my introduction because it talks about the causes and effects of the problem.

GOOD or BAD?

9 **Example 3:**

The study described in this article examines the best way to implement successful food waste education in schools. In my suggestion for improvement, this article will be key in providing evidence for my outlined improvements. Because this study was done in 2013, the information addresses the current state of food waste in the United States.

GOOD or BAD?

10 **Example 4:**

This article has a lot of information about food waste. Obviously since this is my topic, I will use it in my whole paper. It has some really good background information.

GOOD or BAD?

12 **Example 6:**

This source is relevant to many sections of my paper, as it describes in detail the solutions of the organization. The list of places where the organization has donated is important to evaluating the impact of the organization. In addition to this, the website provides impact stories from people affected by the organization that will aid in my critique.

14 **Your turn:**

Write your own relevancy statement for the source you used Tuesday to write the reliability statement.

Remember to answer:

-What information does it include that will be relevant?

-Where it will be relevant?

APPENDIX L

Class Materials for Determining Relevancy (with students' answers)

Practice Determining Relevancy

Each group has three articles. One of these articles is not relevant to the class paper, while the other two will work for one or more sections of the paper. Decide which source is not relevant. For the two sources that are, decide where they would fit into the paper. To help you, the outline for the paper is below.

Outline

I. Introduction

A. Causes and effects of food waste

B. Thesis statement: *This paper will examine how Waste Not helps to collect food donations from local restaurants and give them out for those people in need to solve the food waste problem, as well as looks at how to expand the impact of this organization through encouraging action on the part of the restaurants and policy-makers.*

II. Solution 1: Getting donations from Darden restaurants

A. Background: info from the organization about how much is donated, how

B. Critique: This is a good way to solve hunger and do something with the food, but restaurants are a main source of the problem.

C. Improvement: Get restaurants to do more: smaller portions, half-orders

III. Solution 2: Giving food to local shelters/schools

A. Background: who receives the food, how much

B. Critique: This helps these particular areas, but what about the rest of the state and country?

C. Improvement: Pass policies that cut down on food waste and increase food

IV. Conclusion

A. Re-state thesis

Group 1:

Article 1:

<http://search.ebscohost.com.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=a9h&AN=99471201&site=ehost-live> Relevant

Article 2:

<http://www.reuters.com/article/2014/05/16/us-eu-food-waste-idUSKBN0DW0OR20140516> Not relevant

Article 3: http://www.nytimes.com/2014/05/17/business/cities-and-companies-tackle-the-food-waste-problem.html?_r=0 Relevant

Group 2:

Article 1:

<http://search.ebscohost.com.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=sph&AN=108295624&site=ehost-live> (Relevant)

Article 2: <http://www.unric.org/en/food-waste> (Not R)

Article 3: <http://wastenotaz.org/recipients.aspx> (Relevant)

Group 3:

Article 1:

<http://search.ebscohost.com.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=87647937&site=ehost-live> Relevant

Article 2: http://switchboard.nrdc.org/blogs/plehner/tackling_food_waste_at_home.html Not relevant

Article 3: http://www.worldfooddayusa.org/food_waste_the_facts Relevant

Student practice relevancy statements

Group 1: This article is relevant to our food waste topic. It provides detailed background information including specific data on the current situation of US food waste problem, which can be used in our cause and effect section of the paper. And also it talks about how the low efficiency of the food chain results in the food waste problem and the solution to improve this, which can be used in our solution and improvement section.

Group 2: Since my paper talks about How Waste Not helps to collect food donations from local restaurant and give them out for people in need to solve the food waste problem, this source will be useful for my argument. It talks about how different organization attempt to be more efficient with the amount of food supplied thus to reduce the amount of food wasted in restaurants. If Waste Not tries to prevent the problem from happening rather than fixing it, this problem could be reduced drastically.

Group 3: This article is related with the topic. First, it has background information of food waste. Some data and facts can be used in the introduction part in paper. Second, this article contains some suggestions, which can be used in the improvement part of solution 2.

Class article for relevancy practice:

LINK: <http://www.nrdc.org/food/wasted-food.asp>

APPENDIX M

Sample of Students' Work in the Summary Class

Journal Article Summaries

Below, please follow the steps below to share the summary that you and your partner wrote for the "Water Fetching" article. Before submitting, be sure it meets the criteria of a good source summary.

1. Get together with your partner from Monday. You will have a couple of minutes to share your section specific, "mini-summaries" with one another.
2. When you are sharing your work, decide what **MUST** be include in your summaries of the article and what **COULD** be included (but might not be due to time constraints).
3. Then, write your summaries below...

Pair #	Source Summary	Summary Language Revision
Pair 1	This article, which aims to investigate the relationship between the walk time to access water and the health of children, is written by Amy J. Pickening and Jennifer Davis with the title "Freshwater Availability and Water Fetching Distance affect child health in Sub-Saharan Africa". It collected datas from 25 countries for over 200000 surveys and uses "two-stage models to estimate the quantity of available freshwater. The findings of this research indicate that by decreasing 15 minutes of walking time could reduce 41% of diarrhea prevalence and 11% of child mortality. Based on such findings, the author concludes that reducing walking time to fetch water would improve children's health and should be considered as a priority of investment.	
Pair 2	The article "Freshwater Availability and Water Fetching Distance Affect Child Health in Sub-Saharan Africa" was written by Amy J. Pickering and Jennifer Davis in January 12, 2012. The purpose is to estimate casual effect of decreased water fetching time on health in order to solve the problem of people leaving their houses to fetch clean water. By using estimating strategy, the decrease of one-way walk time could help improve the health of children. The findings indicate that the developed countries could prevent this problem by building water delivery, but the developing countries could not do so without the large investment.	
Pair 3	The purpose of the article "Freshwater Availability and Water Fetching Distance Affect Child Health in Sub-Saharan Africa" (Amy J. Pickering and Jennifer Davis, 2012) is to investigate how access to water influences under-five child health in South Africa. To do this study, the authors collected the household data in the South Africa and Freshwater availability data and used an IV approach to set up a specific model of the association between the water fetching distance and child health. The study finds the walk time to source gave a great impact on child health. The authors also indicate that the morbidity and mortality of children may keep increasing in the future in the countries which have trouble building water delivery systems.	

<p>Pair 4</p>	<p>In the article, "Freshwater Availability and water Fetching Distance Affect Child health in Sub-Saharan Africa", Pickering and Davis investigate the effect of water fetching distance on child health. The authors collected the household survey data and freshwater availability data using an instrumental variable approach. Based on finding, which indicates a decrease in amount of time walking to the water source will decrease the chance for child to catch disease, lowering the time for distance travelled to get clean water will bring health benefits to children.</p>	
<p>Pair 5</p>	<p>The article "Freshwater Availability and Water Fetching Distance Affect Child Health in Sub-Saharan Africa" written by Amy J. Pickering and Jennifer Davis estimates the resulting effects of reduced water fetching distances on human health. The method used for this estimation includes the collection of household-level data and the freshwater availability using the instrumental variable approach. This research indicating that the long water fetching will impact children's health adversely clarifies that the reduction in fetching time may provide health benefits to people. Importantly, the financial affordance to establish the infrastructure is needed.</p>	<p>This research indicating that the long water fetching will impact children's health adversely clarifies that the reduction in fetching time may provide health benefits to people.</p>
<p>Pair 6</p>	<p>The research Freshwater availability and water fetching distance affect child health in sub-Saharan Africa is conducted by Amy J. Pickering and Jennifer Davis on Jan. 12th 2012. The purpose of the research is to examine the relationship between water fetching distance and the way it affects the child health issue. To conduct the study, data according to the household surveys, coming from academic institution, estimating strategy and Model specification are adopted. Finding indicates, the decrease of walk time to walk source leads to distinct reduction in children diseases. Based on such finding, the time use of priority for water infrastructure investment in Africa is reduced.</p>	<p>To conduct the study, data according to the household surveys, coming from academic institution, estimating strategy and Model specification are adopted, which indicates the decrease of walk time to walk source leads to distinct reduction in children diseases</p>
<p>Pair 7</p>	<p><u>In the research, "Freshwater availability and water fetching distance affect child health in sub-saharan africa", Picker and Davis discuss the relationship between children's health and time of water fetching. The purpose of research is to analyze association between access to water and under-five child morbidity and mortality. The research analyzes data and strategy of household survey, freshwater availability, and model specification. The result indicates a strong connection between water fetching distance and child diseases, like diarrhea, fever and cough. Based on that result, the author reinforces the rising importance of water fetching distance on children health and refers to a suggestion to build water delivery infrastructure and treatment systems.</u></p>	

APPENDIX N

Class Materials for Thesis Statements: Printed Handout (used throughout the class)

ESL 115
Fall 2015

Research Paper Thesis Statements

I. Discussion Questions

With a partner, discuss the following questions

1. Where do you find an argumentative thesis statement?
2. What two goals does an argumentative thesis statement accomplish?
3. What is the goal of an argumentative essay?
4. What is the difference between argumentative and analytic writing?

II. Argumentative vs. Analytical Thesis Statements

In the following examples, tell whether a thesis statement is argumentative (ARG) or analytical (AN). If it is argumentative, tell us 1). the claim/stance and 2). the preview. If it is analytical, tell us 1). the purpose of the paper.

1. Smoking should be banned on the UIUC campus because second hand smoke can hurt others and smokers often litter.
2. This essay will explore the problem of bullying in schools and evaluate two solutions offered by the Peaceful Partners association, namely, councilor mediation and using sports to help promote peaceful competition.
3. This essay argues that Radiohead is the best band in modern times due to the extensive and diverse discography, their award winning collaborations with other artists and their tremendous ticket sales.
4. This paper will describe and critique several solutions provided by FMF to solve gender discrimination around the world, including building closer relationships with the government, stopping gender discrimination on campuses, and offering social services to those affected by discrimination. It will also offer ways to improve them.

III. Prompt Analysis

Read the IRP Prompt below and then answer the questions:

Choose an organization that is actively working towards addressing a problem in society (community, state, region or country) affecting a distinct population (women, animals, children, etc.). Write a problem/solution paper that describes and critiques two current solutions offered by the organization and recommends how to improve them.

1. For an essay to answer this topic completely, what three things does the writer first have to do?

2. After doing these three things, what three actions will the writer take?

IV. Deconstructing Thesis Statements

Below, you will read two research paper thesis statements. With your partner, “deconstruct” these thesis statements into their parts.

1. This paper will describe and critique the efforts of the World Wildlife Fund to protect pandas in China by creating education programs for citizens living near these animals and persuading policy makers to control the decimation of panda populations and protect panda habitats.

Problem	
Organization	
Solutions	

2. This paper will critique and offer improvements of two current solutions from the Paparazzi Initiative Reform to help celebrities protect their privacy: resorting to the legal amendment of anti-paparazzi statute and expanding the current media ethic codes.

Problem	
Organization	
Solutions	

3. This report will describe two solutions offered by the Union of Concerned Scientists to solve the problem of global warming: shifting to green transportation and utilizing alternative, non-fossil fuel based sources of energy. These solutions will be critiqued and improvements will be offered.

Problem	
Organization	
Solutions	

V. Creating a Thesis Statement from Component Parts

Now, you will create your own thesis statement given the following information. Once you finish, you will be asked to share your work (**upload to Google Doc**)

Problem	Human trafficking
Organization	Not For Sale
Solutions	providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training.

Class presentation for thesis statements

Research Paper Thesis Statements

ESL 115N - FA2015

Argumentative Thesis Statements - A Review

With a partner, answer the following questions:

1. Where do you find an argumentative thesis statement?
2. What two goals does an argumentative thesis statement accomplish?
3. What is the goal of an argumentative essay?

Argumentative Thesis Statements - A Review

With a partner, answer the following questions:

1. Where do you find an argumentative thesis statement?
 - a. **At the end of the introduction**
2. What two goals does an argumentative thesis statement accomplish?
 - a. They 1) tell the reader what the author's stance/perspective on an issue is and 2) give the reader a **preview of the supporting reasons** that the author will use to make his/her point.
3. What is the goal of an argumentative essay?
 - a. **To share an opinion**

Argumentative Thesis Statement Examples

Violent video games make young people behave more aggressively...

Claim

...because they reward young people for solving problems through violent means and desensitize young people to the terrible nature of actual violence.

Supporting
Reasons

Analytical vs. Argumentative Writing - Overview

A **problem/solution research paper** is an example of **analytical** writing. Analytical writing is different from argumentative writing because it focuses on answering the question, "why?" and/or **explaining the reason(s)** for something.

Conversely, **argumentative writing** is focused on **convincing the reader** that your perspective is the best, most credible stance to take on an issue.

Analytical vs. Argumentative Writing - Example

Which thesis statement is **analytical**? Which is **argumentative**? Why?

1. Write 10 pages discussing whether the United States should encourage State governments to allow charter schools as another option for public education
2. Write 10 pages explaining how public education has been negatively effected by charter schools in those States who have allowed them to develop in the last 5 years.

Analytical vs. Argumentative Writing - Example

Which thesis statement is **analytical**? Which is **argumentative**? Why?

1. Write 10 pages discussing **whether** the United States should encourage State governments to allow charter schools as another option for public education
Argumentative
2. Write 10 pages explaining **how** public education has been negatively effected by charter schools in those States who have allowed them to develop in the last 5 years.
Analytical


Argumentative Writing Explained

The argumentative research paper consists of an introduction in which the writer clearly introduces the topic and informs his audience exactly which stance he intends to take; this stance is often identified as the thesis statement.


An important goal of the argumentative research paper is **persuasion**, which means the topic chosen should be debatable or controversial.

Write 10 pages discussing whether the United States should encourage State governments to allow charter schools as another option for public education

<h3>Analytical Writing Explained</h3> <p>The analytical research paper often begins with the researcher asking a question (a research question) on which he has taken no stance.</p> <p>Forming a research question is the basis of an analytical research paper. The question is neutral (without a predetermined stance) and provides direction for you to evaluate and explore the topic as it relates to answering the question.</p> <p>Your thesis statement presents the research question, and the remainder of your paper supports your thesis.</p> <p><i>Write 10 pages explaining how public education has been negatively effected by charter schools in those States who have allowed them to develop in the last 5 years.</i></p>	<h3>Analytical vs. Argumentative Writing - Example</h3> <p>Which thesis statement is analytical? Which is argumentative? Why?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. An analysis of the ferruginous hawk reveals two kinds of flight patterns: patterns related to hunting prey and patterns related to courtship. 2. Violence should be banned in movies.
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<h3>Analytical vs. Argumentative Writing - Example</h3> <p>Which thesis statement is analytical? Which is argumentative? Why?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. An study of the ferruginous hawk reveals two kinds of flight patterns: patterns related to hunting prey and patterns related to courtship. <p style="text-align: center;">Analytical</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Violence should be banned in movies. <p style="text-align: center;">Argumentative</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center;"> <h2 style="margin: 0;">Complete Part II of the Worksheet</h2>  </div>
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<h3>Analytical Thesis Statements</h3> <p>Analytical thesis statements...</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Appear in the introduction 2. State the purpose/topic of a paper 3. Give a brief overview of the structure of the paper 4. Are academic in tone 5. DO NOT STATE ANY OPINIONS 	<h3>Problem/Solution Research Paper Prompt</h3> <p>Choose an organization that is actively working towards addressing a problem in society (community, state, region or country) affecting a distinct population (women, animals, children, etc.). Write a problem/solution paper that describes and critiques two current solutions offered by the organization and recommends how to improve them.</p> <p>For an essay to answer this topic completely, what three things does the writer first have to do? After doing these three things, what three actions will the writer take?</p>
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<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center;"> <h2 style="margin: 0;">Complete Part III of the Worksheet</h2>  </div>	<h3>Problem/Solution Research Paper Prompt</h3> <p>Choose an organization that is actively working towards addressing a problem in society (community, state, region or country) affecting a distinct population (women, animals, children, etc.). Write a problem/solution paper that describes and critiques two current solutions offered by the organization and recommends how to improve them.</p> <p>For an essay to answer this topic completely, what three things does the writer first have to do? After doing these three things, what three actions will the writer take?</p>
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Problem/Solution Research Paper Prompt

Choose an organization¹ that is actively working towards addressing a problem² in society (community, state, region or country) affecting a distinct population (women, animals, children, etc.). Write a problem/solution paper that describes³ and critiques⁴ two current solutions⁵ offered by the organization and recommends how to improve them⁶.

For an essay to answer this topic completely, what three things does the writer first have to do? **Describe, Critique, and Offer Improvements**

To Review...

Your research paper will...

1. Describe a problem
2. Describe (two) solutions to that problem (offered by your organization)
3. Critique these solutions (positives AND negatives) using information from sources
4. Offer a way to improve (one of) the solutions (again, using information from sources).

Problem/Solution Paper Thesis Statement Example

This essay will describe, critique, and offer improvements to two solutions provided by the Water Project to address the problem of providing clean drinking water in developing countries: digging wells, and building sand dams and shallow wells.

1. What is the problem?
2. What is the organization?
3. What are the solutions this organization offers

Complete Part IV of
the Worksheet



Problem/Solution Thesis Statement - Answers

Problem: Pandas in China becoming close to extinction

Organization: The World Wildlife Fund (WWF)

Solutions: Educate local populations about the effects of their actions and encourage policies to be implemented that will cut down on actions that harm the Panda population and their habitat.

Thesis: This paper will describe and critique the efforts of the World Wildlife Fund to protect pandas in China by creating education programs for citizens living near these animals and persuading policy makers to control the decimation of panda populations and protect panda habitats.

Problem/Solution Thesis Statement - Answers

Problem: Protect celebrity privacy

Organization: Paparazzi Initiative Reform

Solutions: Creating an anti-paparazzi legal amendment and expanding current media ethic codes.

Thesis: This paper will critique and offer improvements of two current solutions from the Paparazzi Initiative Reform to help celebrities protect their privacy: resorting to the legal amendment of anti-paparazzi statue and expanding the current media ethic codes.

Problem/Solution Thesis Statement - Answers

Problem: Global warming

Organization: the Union of Concerned Scientists

Solutions: shifting to green transportation and using non-fossil fuel energy sources.

Thesis: This report will describe two solutions offered by the Union of Concerned Scientists to solve the problem of global warming: shifting to green transportation and utilizing alternative, non-fossil fuel based sources of energy. These solutions will be critiqued and improvements will be offered.

Problem/Solution Thesis Statement - Answers

Problem: human trafficking

Organization: "Not for Sale"

Solutions: providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training.

Thesis...

Now start
working on your
own IRP thesis
statements



Sample of students' work in this class

Group Names	Proposed Thesis Statement
Group 1	This paper will describe and critique the efforts of the Not For Sale Organization to prevent human trafficking by providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training
Group 2	This paper will critique and improve two solutions offered by Not For Sale to solve the problem of human trafficking: providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training..
Group 3	This paper will describe two solutions offered by Not For Sale to solve the problem of human trafficking: providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training.
Group 4	This paper will describe and critique the two current solutions from the Not For Sale Organization to solve Human trafficking by providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training.
Group 5	This paper will describe and critique the efforts made by the Not For Sale to solve the problem of human trafficking by providing legal assistance, shelter and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training.
Group 6	This paper will describe two solutions from Not For Sale to solve the human trafficking problem: providing legal assistance, shelter, and health care for survivors and people at risk of human trafficking and helping these people find good jobs through education and professional training

APPENDIX O

Some Class Materials from Leslie's Class

Finding and Evaluating Sources (ESL 500 Fall 2015)

* Required

Where do you usually find sources for your papers and other research projects (select all that apply)? *

- I go to the university library.
- I search online resources available through the university library.
- I search google.
- I search Wikipedia.
- Other

What factors do you consider in evaluating sources? *

In your opinion, how reliable are the resources that you can find through the university library databases? *

1 2 3 4 5

Not reliable at all ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Very reliable

In your opinion, how reliable are the resources you can find through Google? *

1 2 3 4 5

Not reliable at all ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Very reliable

In your opinion, how reliable is Wikipedia? *

1 2 3 4 5

Not reliable at all ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Very reliable

APPENDIX P

Student Sample of Annotated Bibliography from ESL 112 (formatting altered, but content intact)

1. Approved by ISAC (2006), Invasive Species Definition Clarification and Guidance White Paper, THE NATIONAL INVASIVE SPECIES COUNCIL. Retrieved from <http://www.invasivespeciesinfo.gov/docs/council/isacdef.pdf>.
In “Invasive Species Definition Clarification and Guidance White Paper”, the Invasive Species Advisory Committee (ISAC) collects massive data from research reports and gives specific definition and clarification of the term “invasive species”. The article also helps to distinguish between alien species and invasive alien species. Then, the article argues about perceptions of relative benefit will define alien species to be invasive. After that, specific examples of the harm caused by invasive species are listed for clarifying the definition.
This article is listed as official definitions white Paper by National Invasive Species Council of U.S. Department of the Interior. This article is approved by a government department and cites many other researchers, so its reliability supported by the U.S. government.
ISAC’s article of definition and clarification of the invasive species helps giving introduction of my paper. I can use this article in the first part of my paper to give better explanation and increase reliability. Also, this article offers some impacts of the invasive species which I can use to add detail of my introduction.
2. Veitch, C. R.; Clout, M. N. and Towns, D. R. (eds.) 2011. Island Invasives: Eradication and Management. Proceedings of the International Conference on Island Invasives. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN and Auckland, New Zealand: CBB. xii + 542pp. Retrieved from <https://portals.iucn.org/library/efiles/documents/ssc-op-042.pdf>.
In “Island Invasives: Eradication and Management “, researchers focus on island invasive species and eradication, and discusses about the work done and achieved results. The conference covers full range in various aspects which offering solutions and possible consequences to the invasive species issue around the globe islands. They are: Gaining political, community, financial, and physical support; Eradication techniques tested and used; the immediate results of eradication operations; the longer-term outcomes seen to the biosphere and the communities on the island and ways of biosecurity for islands which try to implement.
This paper is and outcome of the conference on invasive island species held at Tamaki Campus, University of Auckland, New Zealand, from 8 to 12 February 2010. The article has cited many other researchers and resources which increases its reliability.
This article specifically introduces strategies of solving alien species invasion problems and is highly reliable. I can use this article as the introduction of the solution of my topic and put some improvement to the current methods.
3. Kowalski, K. P., Bacon, C., Bickford, W., Braun, H., Clay, K., Leduc-Lapierre, M., & ... Wilcox, D. A. (2015). Advancing the science of microbial symbiosis to support invasive species management: a case study on Phragmites in the Great Lakes. *Frontiers In Microbiology*, 61-14.
doi:10.3389/fmicb.2015.00095 Retrieved from <http://web.a.ebscohost.com.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/ehost/detail/detail?sid=838b851c-8b1e-4b09-965eef0bebc6b1a7%40sessionmgr4003&vid=0&hid=4212&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWwhvc3QtG1ZlZQ%3d%3d#db=a9h&AN=101827372>.
In “Advancing the science of microbial symbiosis to support invasive species management: a case study on Phragmites in the Great Lakes.” Kurt and his coworkers made explorations about the

relationships between invasive species and their associated microbiomes. They also discovered new possibilities to acquire new perceptions by studying interactions between the microbiomes of native and alien species. The paper mainly focused on the microbial relationships between plants. They specifically choose an invasive plant species Phragmites as example of using the collective impact as an effective approach to control this invasive species with microbial control strategies.

This paper is found through the paper search tool of UIUC library data base and was published in February 2015 on Frontiers in Microbiology. This article is a research paper about microbiological research. There are many cites used which from many other scholars' research thus increase its reliability.

This article introduces many new strategies about controlling and managing the invasive alien species. It talk about using the relationship between native species to control alien species. I can use this as one of the examples of deep research among different projects which interact with each other to get highly effective solutions. I should put it in the paragraph of solution 2.

4. Wittmann, M. E., Cooke, R. M., Rothlisberger, J. D., & Lodge, D. M. (2014). Using Structured Expert Judgment to Assess Invasive Species Prevention: Asian Carp and the Mississippi-Great Lakes Hydrologic Connection. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 48(4), 2150-2156. doi:10.1021/es4043098 Retrieved from <http://web.a.ebscohost.com.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/ehost/detail/detail?sid=652a0046-7a96-4f44-b36a-300b7babb765%40sessionmgr4004&vid=0&hid=4104&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#AN=94812408&db=bsh>

In "Using Structured Expert Judgment to Assess Invasive Species Prevention: Asian Carp and the Mississippi Great Lakes Hydrologic Connection", Wittmann, Cooke, Rothlisberger and Lodge made a systematic collection and detailed discussion of nearly all present strategies about preventing Asian carp invasion of the Laurentian Great Lakes. It is difficult to make experiments at field scales because of fanatical and unreachable reasons, but authors used structured expert judgment to quantify efficiency of different strategies and reach a relative most effective one which results of discussion could help to guide invasive species management in global waterways.

This article was published in January, 2014 on *Environmental Science & Technology* and is under an ACS AuthorChoice License. I found this article by using the paper search tool in UIUC library data base. Also, works of many other scholars' had been cited in this article which increased its reliability. This article is different from other research articles which collects works of various data about a same research project and discusses which one is the most valuable in in terms of efficiency. Sometime newly research findings can be based on the systematically discussion of present discoveries and ideas. I can use this article as one of the improvement of solution 2 in my paper.

5. EPANCHIN-NIELL, R. S., & WILEN, J. E. (2015). INDIVIDUAL AND COOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT OF INVASIVE SPECIES IN HUMAN-MEDIATED LANDSCAPES. *American Journal Of Agricultural Economics*, 97(1), 180-198. doi:10.1093/ajae/aau058 Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/ehost/detail/detail?sid=81a31a40-181a-47a0-a010-669f6d82ce57%40sessionmgr113&vid=0&hid=101&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWhvc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#AN=100205373&db=bsh>

In "INDIVIDUAL AND COOPERATIVEMANAGEMENT OF INVASIVE SPECIES IN HUMAN-MEDIATED LANDSCAPES", Rebecca and James first talks about the importance about immediate discovery about bio-invasion and the limitation of individual property owners' role of preventing potential landscape-scale damages. The authors then discuss about a mechanism to induce early cooperative

contributions to prevent from being invaded. They develop integrated models of invasion spread and human to examine how spatial cooperation can affect patterns of invasion spread and the total costs imposed. They reach a conclusion that even small amounts of cooperation can provide large benefits. I found this article from the UIUC library data base tool. It was published in January, 2015 on American Journal of Agricultural Economics. The author is a distinguished professor, Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics, University of California. The article has a huge reference page which cited works of many scholars and increase the reliability of the paper. Rather talking about some “solid” management of prevent alien species invasions, this article focuses on the cooperation among peoples. Preventive measures and efficiently reflect are vital in this situation. I can use this article as one improvement of the solution 1 of my paper. Also, this article can increase reliability of my paper as well.

Global Feedback: Your annotations were great! Thanks for all of your hard work this semester!
Grade: 99% A+

Commentary on this sample based on private communication with teacher (March, 2016).

The teacher considers this one of her favorite samples of student work on the Annotated Bibliography assignment. When consulted on the specific reasons, besides meeting the grading criteria in the rubric, she really liked this piece of writing because she said as opposed to her other students, this one shows the student “put a lot of thought and effort into it, and went deeper than what we had seen in class.” Specifically, she says that this student applied the points she asked for in checklist, but in fact, went beyond them by adding more details and creative elements as seen in her evaluations of reliability and also of relevancy. In these, she shows deeper understanding of the sources by connecting their usefulness in relation to other sources as well. Finally, the teacher was also pleased because this student mastered the distinction between summarizing and writing a relevancy statement and also because she did not plagiarized from the abstract, which were both her class goals.

APPENDIX Q

Student Sample of Annotated Bibliography from ESL 115 (formatting altered, but content intact)

Mott, T. E. (2010). African refugee resettlement in the US: The role and significance of voluntary agencies. *Journal Of Cultural Geography*, 27(1), 1-31. doi:10.1080/08873631003593190

The article “African Refugee Resettlement in the US: The Role and Significance of Voluntary Agencies” by Mott mainly discusses how voluntary organizations can work for the resettlements, cultural adaptation, employment opportunities and their overall livelihood of the immigrants coming from African countries to the US. It also deals with the reciprocal relationships between the organizations and governmental sectors. Sound and robust systems of such organizations can be effective enough to address the issue of immigration, whereas the framework of organizations that lack effectiveness and sustainability can adversely affect those immigrants. Two cities are raised as example cities to show the positive and negative points about voluntary organizations which are Columbus, Ohio and Providence, Rhode Island.

This article relates to my paper especially because it analyzes the major roles of voluntary agencies working for immigration issues and my paper also deals with solutions and measures provided by the voluntary organization I chose. Through observing the two cities I mentioned above, this article will be helpful for scrutinizing the quality and feasibility of the residential and financial solutions by my organization. At the end, the article includes some suggestions for resettlement and employment for immigrants. Therefore, I will be able to apply the knowledge for improving especially the first solution raised by the organization.

The article is found in the database from UIUC EBSCO. The article was published by a peer-reviewed academic research journal called *Journal of Cultural Geography*. This journal was first established in 1979 and since then, it has provided resources for scholarly research in the field of human activities in an accessible way.

Taylor, J. E., & Martin, P. L. (1997). The immigrant subsidy in US agriculture: Farm employment, poverty, and welfare. *Population & Development Review*, 23(4), 855-874.

The article “the Immigrant Subsidy in US Agriculture: Farm Employment, Poverty, and Welfare” by Taylor and Martin analyzes the effect of the expansion of labor market for immigrants and specifically discusses how such a change affects their welfare and overall income drastically. Moreover, it specifically deals with farm employment in main agricultural areas in the state of California. The holistic socioeconomic movement is scrutinized in terms of agricultural economy, poverty and welfare in this article. This source provides answers to whether the expansion of farm markets really solves the issue of poverty and also to how immigrants are affected by the change in agricultural economy.

This article is related to my research paper in terms of how to enhance the immigrants’ lives in terms of economic and financial aspect. Through utilizing the so-called econometric approach, for the most part, it analyzes the interactions between immigration, employment, poverty and welfare with the use of statistics and graphs. At the end, this article shows the results indicated by this

approach about how the labor market and its policies affect immigrants' welfare. I will be able to integrate the above statistical results into the improvement for the second solution in my research paper and to discuss what specific strategies the society and organizations can implement in order to improve the financial and employment situation for immigrants.

The article is found in the database from UIUC EBSCO. The article was published by a peer-reviewed academic research online publisher called Wiley Blackwell. This was first established in 1922 and since then, it has provided resources globally for scholarly research in the field of social science, biology, technology, medicine and so forth in an accessible way.

Finegan, E., & Rickford, J. R. (2004). *Language in the USA: Themes for the twenty-first century*. Chapter 18. 339-360. Cambridge, UK; Cambridge University Press.

The chapter 18 of the book "Language in the USA: Themes for the Twenty-First Century" by Finegan and Rickford discusses how the policy of bilingual education, which appreciates the culture of both immigrants' native language and English that they learn as a new language at school, can benefit immigrants. It analyzes the effects of each linguistic proposition made by U.S. Government so far, for example the Bilingual Education Act. The chapter 18 also covers some important effects of anti-bilingual or anti-multicultural educational programs or policies such as California's Proposition 227 which prohibits bilingual education for the Limited English Proficient students. In conclusion, it warns the general public especially in the US of the importance of being inclusive in welcoming immigrant children in educational aspect.

This chapter is related to my paper in terms of solutions for immigrants' economic independence. It specifically talks about bilingual education where children or adults can acquire their languages they can use stably. The point of this chapter, which is that the possession of language immigrants can utilize with confidence will help them in social and public spheres, can be used in the discussion for the second solution of my research paper. I discuss how the stable language situation affects their work or job prosperity. Moreover, since it scopes into every aspect of language education and governmental policy for immigrants, I will be able to elaborate how the U.S. Government has reacted to the issue and what consequences immigrants have faced from that measure by the government. At the end of this chapter 18, it is stated that the linguistically supportive instruction at schools and work can drastically change their inherent employability, thereby helping them flourish in the USA. I would like to include these points in the improvement for the second solution in order to clarify the strong correlating relationship between the stable linguistic situations and the resulting financial outcomes that immigrants will be able to gain.

The book is a textbook that I am currently using for one of my linguistics courses'. The book was officially published by Cambridge University Press. This book was first written in 2004. Cambridge University Press has provided resources for especially linguistic scholarly research in an accessible way. The whole book is organized by a number of different researchers and scholars. (This book can be accessed through the following website: <http://ebooks.cambridge.org/chapter.jsf?bid=CBO9780511809880&cid=CBO9780511809880A032&tabName=Chapter>).

Gonzales, R. G. (2008). Left out but not shut down: Political activism and the undocumented student movement. *Northwestern Journal of Law & Social Policy*, 3(2), 219-239.

Retrieved from <http://scholarlycommons.law.northwestern.edu/njls/vol3/iss2/4>

Gonzales's "Left out but Not Shut down: Political Activism and the Undocumented Student Movement" analyzes the real-world adverse situations that the increasing number of undocumented students mainly from Mexico are facing in the US. It explains that the status of being "undocumented" leaves the undocumented children with lack of various legal social opportunities and privileges; the rights to vote, freely choose their occupations, work lawfully, go to school and receive financial assistance. In the last half of the article, the author describes his own community engagement with one Latino immigrant organization in California. Through his own witness, the writer analyzes how people in communities and teachers at schools can assist undocumented students to nurture their organizational skills for being a social leader and becoming a member to shape the society in the US.

This article is especially related to the critique and improvement to the first solution of my research paper. The grassroots level actions discussed in this source for the undocumented students assist me to analyze how communities can work together with immigrants to bring better social protections to them and specifically what kinds of strategies are sustainably effective to make the social benefits come true for the students. The solutions provided in the section of resettlement by my organization USCRI do not deal much with support at educational settings, and the educational aspects should be definitely included because children are certainly a part of an immigrant body. This article by Gonzales works as a catalyst to discuss those points and finally cover the practical and long-term measures to motivate social engagement of immigrant undocumented students in the US and to let their citizenship and ownership flourish.

The article is found in the database from Northwestern University School of Law. The article was published by a journal academic research institution called the Northwestern Journal of Law and Social Policy. The Northwestern University School of Law was first founded in 1859 and since then, through this journal it has provided resources in interdisciplinary areas of research such as race, gender, immigration, juvenile justice, voting rights, civil rights, and poverty.

Batalova, J., & Fix, M. (2015, February). Through an immigrant lens: PIAAC assessment of the competencies of adults in the United States. *Migration Policy Institute*, 1-36.

The article "Through an Immigrant Lens: PIAAC Assessment of the Competencies of Adults in the United States" by Batalova and Fix analyzes how the literacy, numeracy and digital technology skills are helpful for immigrants who try to become financially independent in the US. It narrows its scopes down to the domains of not only an employment but also an access to better health care services and job trainings. The report collects data from the Program for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) done in 2012 through which all ages of immigrants were assessed in terms of their cognitive skills in English. The methodology includes background questionnaires and psychometric tests. Through using the results of this program, it explains the different situations immigrants with and without rich cognitive skills face at their work, educational settings, and hospitals. In conclusion, it provides ideas about how to improve the level of the skills needed for immigrants to broaden their job, educational or health service opportunities.

This report is related especially to the critique and improvement of the second solution of my

research paper. It provides abundant descriptions of how much having a high level of cognitive skills affects the job, educational or health care opportunities of immigrants in the US. It also indicates at the end that there are several different measures to actually improve the level of the literacy and numeracy skills: providing educational support in all circumstances and offering language instruction at work. Through discussing these descriptions and improvement suggestions made in this source, I can effectively point out how the second solution provided by my organization USCRI should be transformed in order for immigrants to be surely economically and financially independent.

The article is found in the database from Migrant Policy Institute which is a nonprofit and nonpartisan think tank based in Washington D.C. This research organization is dedicated to analyze and research into immigrant policies. This institute was first established in 2001 and since then, it has provided resources globally for scholarly research related to issues of immigrants and refugees in an accessible way.

Commentary on this sample based on private communication with teacher (March, 2016).

“To begin, [the student] follows the directions well. The student does not organize the entries alphabetically by author last name, but that is pretty much the only thing the student does not do with respect to the directions. Second, there is obvious effort on the part of the student. I think her summaries do a nice job of providing both general/specific information on the topic, her relevancy statements offer *very specific* ideas about how she is thinking about (possibly) using the source in her final paper and her reliability statements all offer multiple pieces of evidence to help substantiate her claim that each source is reliable. Finally, this student writes very well. She uses complex vocabulary and more creative sentence structure in her writing.”

APPENDIX R

Student Sample Drafts of Summary Critique from ESL 500 (formatting altered, but content intact)

Summary (First Paragraph of the Summary Critique)

<p>Introduce the topic of the research article</p>	<p>Sleep is a crucial part of our daily lives, and the quality of sleep often plays an important role both in an individual's physiological and psychological functionality and even the long term health. However, there is little evidence showing that the quality of sleep also has an effect to one's social perception. <i>(T. Comment: "Nice job introducing the topic!")</i></p>
<p>Summarize the research article (for IMRD articles, it is often a good idea to include one or two sentences from each section of the paper)</p>	<p>In the research article (Axelsson et al. 2010), the researchers <i>(T. Comment: "I would just say "Axelsson et al. (2010) investigated..."")</i> investigated whether other people's judgement to someone's appearance could be influenced by his/herthe quality of sleep. The research usesused an experimental design and comparescompared the different photographs of participants' faces after they havehad different qualities of sleep. The result of this study shows that "compared with the normal sleep condition, perceptions of health and attractiveness in the sleep deprived condition decreased on average by 6% and 4% and tiredness increased by 19%" (p.3), <i>(T. Comment: "I would not recommend including a long quote in the summary. See if you can paraphrase this")</i> which means that the quality of someone's sleep does influence his/her appearance such as attractiveness. Besides that, the article points out that "since attractiveness motivates sexual behavior, collaboration, and superior treatment, sleep lose may have consequences in other social contexts" (p.4). <i>(T. Comment: "Same here")</i></p>
<p>Write your thesis statement Use one of these formulas: Positive + positive + positive positive + negative + negative Positive + positive + negative</p>	<p>Although this study has an explicit experimental design and a series of scientific statistical analysis, the result of this research could still be unconvincing since the sample size of this research seems to be too small and the research data may not be as objective as it stands. <i>(T. Comment: "Good job using hedging!")</i></p>

Hanzhi, great start for your introduction! See my comments above for suggested changes.

Summary Critique Draft of the Body Paragraphs

<p>Thesis statement:</p>	<p>Although this study has an explicit experimental design and a series of scientific statistical analysis, the result of this research could still be unconvincing since the sample size of this research seems to be too small and the research data may not be as objective as it stands. <i>(T. Comment: Good use of hedging ☺)</i></p>
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Body Paragraphs:

<p>Paragraph 1:</p>

Critique point:	This study has an explicit experimental design and a series of scientific statistical analysis.
Illustrations from the article:	Twenty of 44 potentially eligible people were excluded. To avoid the influence of possible order effects we presented the photographs in a balanced order between conditions for each session.
Your analysis (explanation):	The researchers tried their best to avoid the influence of other elements (such as the different physiological conditions of participants, the quality of the photographs and the order of photo presenting) to the final result of this study. Besides that the statistical inferences of this research are mostly based on the mean value of the data. Due to the controlled conditions mentioned above, the analysis in this research is effective and meaningful.
Paragraph 2:	
Critique point:	The sample size of this research seems to be too small . <i>(T.Comment: "You may also add that it is not representative.")</i>
Illustrations from the article:	We advertised for participants at four universities in the Stockholm area. The article also mentions that this research finally enrolled 12 women and 12 men.
Your analysis (explanation):	Although the researchers had selected the participants in order to exclude the influence of other element such as health problem to the final result. The number of participants in this research is too small and they all come from the same area. Thus, these participants may not be as representative as it stands. Chances are that people in the different area could have different results from the same research.
Paragraph 3:	
Critique point:	The research data may not be as objective as it stands.
Illustrations from the article:	The participants slept in their own homes. Sleep times were confirmed with sleep diaries and text messages.
Your analysis (explanation):	The quality of sleep is not recorded by the researchers but by the participants themselves. Besides that the participants sleeps in their own homes. Thus, the quality of sleep is judged by the participants objectively. It is possible that the quality of sleep among the different participants is not always the same, and the participants may become more tired even have longer sleep.

Hanzhi, this is a great start for your summary critique! See a couple of minor suggestions above. I'm looking forward to reading your paper.

P.S. Good job using your knowledge of statistics 😊

Student comments on changes he made from this submission to the final draft seen on the next page (Appendix S continued): "First, I revised some grammar mistakes in the article and

changed some informal words. Second, I paraphrase several sentences which are too close to the original ones. Third, I add some sentences in the conclusion part.”

APPENDIX S

Student Sample of Final Summary Critique from ESL 500 (formatting altered, but content intact)

Believe It or Not: Sleep makes you become beautiful

Sleep is a crucial part of our daily lives, and the quality of sleep often plays an important role both in an individual's physiological and psychological functionality and even the long term health. However, there is little evidence showing that the length of sleep also has an effect to one's social perception. Axelsson et al. (2010) investigated whether other people's judgement on someone's appearance could be influenced by the deprivation of sleep. The research used an experimental design and compared the different photographs of participants' faces after they had different length of sleep. The final result of this study shows that compared with the normal sleep, people who are sleep deprived received higher mean scores on tiredness and lower scores on attractiveness and health. It means that the length of someone's sleep does influence his/her appearance such as attractiveness. Although this study has an explicit experimental design and a series of scientific statistical analysis, the result of this research could still be unconvincing since the sample size of this research seems to be too small and the research data may not be as objective as it stands.

First, this study has an explicit experimental design and a series of scientific statistical analysis. As stated in the method part of the research paper, twenty of 44 potentially eligible people were excluded because of sleep disturbance, abnormal sleep requirement and health problems. The presenting order of these photographs was also designed by the researchers to ensure the final results would not be influenced by the unbalanced order. The researchers attempted to avoid the influence of other elements (such as the different physiological conditions of participants, the quality of the photographs and the order of photo presenting) upon the final result of this study. Besides that the statistical inferences of this research are mostly based on the mean value of the data. Due to the controlled conditions mentioned above, the analysis in this research is effective and meaningful.

Even though the design and the inference of this research are quite scientific, there are still some weaknesses existing in the other parts of this study. One weakness of the research is that the sample size of the study seems to be too small and not to be representative sufficiently. The article mentions that they advertised for participants at four universities in the Stockholm area and the research finally only enrolled 23 adults (mean age 23, range 18-31 years, 11 women). Although the researchers had selected the participants in order to exclude the influence of other element such as health problem to the final result, the only 23 participants from the same area could not be the representative for the people from the whole country. It is possible that the significant correlation between the quality of sleep and the attractiveness of the appearance will disappear when the sample size become larger, and people from the different area or even from different age group could have the different result with the current conclusion. In a word, since the sample of this study is not representative sufficiently, the conclusion of the research seems to not convincing.

The second weakness of this research is that the data may not be as objective as it stands. From the paper we can know that participants were asked to sleep in their own homes. Additionally, the sleep times were confirmed with sleep diaries and text messages by the

participants themselves. This means that the sleep time is not recorded by the researchers objectively. It is possible that the actual sleep time of these participants is not always the same as what is shown on their records. Besides that since every participants slept in their own homes during the research, the sleep time could not be regarded as the only influential factor to the deprivation of sleep anymore. Chances are that the participants may feel even more tired after a longer sleep than the previous nights because of the worse environment during that evening. To sum up, this research has an explicit experimental design and a series of scientific statistical analysis, however the small sample size and subjective research data render the result of this study seems to be not persuasive as it stands. To improve the reliability of the final conclusion of this research, the researchers could choose to enroll more participants from different areas to ensure the diversity of the experimental sample and to ask the participants to sleep in the research center instead in their own homes to guarantee the objectivity of the research data. In a word, although there are some weaknesses existing in this research, the conclusion of this study is still meaningful to the field of medicine.

FINAL GRADE: 96 points/A

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS: Hanzhi, excellent job! The revisions you made improved the overall quality of your paper. Your final draft is more polished and complies with standards of academic writing.

Note: the assignment rubric and detailed feedback have been omitted.

APPENDIX T

Characteristics of Effective Teaching in General Education and (ESL) Writing Instruction

Characteristics of effective teaching (comparison between Feldman's (2007) and Porter and Brophy (1988))

Feldman (2007, p.112)	Porter and Brophy (1988, p.75)
13. Teacher's preparation and course organization (6)	13. are clear about instructional goals (2,8)
14. Clarity and understandableness (also in Benton & Cashin, 2012) (2)	14. are knowledgeable about curriculum content and the strategies for teaching it (4,9)
15. Perceived outcome or impact of instruction (3)	15. communicate to their students what is expected of them – and why (8)
16. Teacher's stimulation of interest in the course and in the subject matter (1)	16. make expert use of existing instructional materials in order to devote more time to practices (5,10)
17. Teacher's encouragement of questions and discussion and openness to opinions (also in Benton & Cashin, 2012) (11)	17. that enrich and clarify the content
18. Teacher's availability and helpfulness (16)	18. are knowledgeable about their students, adapting instruction to their needs and anticipating misconceptions in their existing knowledge (10, 11)
19. Teacher's elocutionary skills (10)	19. teach students meta-cognitive strategies and give them opportunities to master them (10)
20. Clarity of course objectives and requirements (7)	20. address higher- as well as lower-level cognitive objectives
21. Teacher's knowledge of the subject (9)	21. monitor students' understanding by offering regular appropriate feedback (12)
22. Fostering intellectual challenge (4)	22. integrate their instruction with that in other subject areas (3)
23. Teacher's concern and respect for students, teacher's friendliness (also in Benton & Cashin, 2012) (12)	23. accept responsibility for student outcomes (11)
24. Nature, quality and frequency of teacher feedback (17)	24. are thoughtful and reflective about their practice

Note: For Feldman (2007) although there are originally 28 dimensions that are most highly associated with student achievement only almost half of them are presented here for being the most relevant to this project and due to space constraints (for a complete list and analysis see Feldman, 2007). In Porter and Brophy's column, the dimensions have been arranged from high to low correlation. In addition, they do not always match the students' evaluations of overall teaching effectiveness. Student rating order is indicated by the number in parenthesis

Guiding Principles for Sound Writing Instruction

Sound writing instruction:

1. emphasizes the rhetorical nature of writing;
2. considers the needs of real audiences;
3. recognizes writing as a social act;
4. enables students to analyze and practice with a variety of genres;
5. recognizes writing processes as iterative and complex;
6. depends upon frequent, timely, and context-specific feedback from an experienced postsecondary instructor;
7. emphasizes relationships between writing and technologies; and
8. supports learning, engagement, and critical thinking in courses' across the curriculum.

Source: CCCC (2015). Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing section.

CCCCs specific statement on second language writing and writers (updated 2014):

- Assignments should have clear instructions and if possible and assessment rubric
- Teachers should evaluate students' texts considering various criteria, but with a greater focus on the text's rhetorical effectiveness.
- Students should be given the opportunity to write in a variety of genres
- Students' writing should be evaluated at different stages rather than a single time
- Students may need more teacher-student conference time. During this time, if not already given in written form, teachers should focus on the global aspects such as rhetorical effectiveness that has been successfully accomplished by students and then discuss 2 or 3 local (stylistic) issues for the student to work on for the rest of the course.

Source: <http://www.ncte.org/cccc/resources/positions/secondlangwriting>

Silva, Leki and Carson's (1997) statements on the needs of L2 writers:

- Their cultural attitudes to knowledge may be different than that of English speakers (knowledge telling v/s knowledge transforming) and so may be their assumed purposes of writing (demonstrate critical thinking, inform, persuade).
- Some writing topics deemed appropriate in an American context may not be so for other cultural groups and L2 writers may respond or react differently to texts.
- They have more difficulties reading in English than native English speakers.
- They may have a different awareness of audience and purpose and come from cultures whose writing is reader-based instead of writer-based.
- Regarding textual concerns, their rhetorical features may differ to some or a great extent from that of native English speakers.
- In terms of text structure, their beliefs about what is considered good writing may differ.
- Their cultures may view using someone's words without attribution as an acceptable and expected practice as oppose to consider it a case of plagiarism.

APPENDIX U

IRB Approval Letter

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects
528 East Green Street
Suite 209
Champaign, IL 61820



08/18/2015

Randall Sadler
Linguistics
4080 FLB
707 S Mathews Ave
M/C 168

RE: *What the best ESL writing teachers do at UIUC: pedagogical practices teaching beliefs and how these impact their students' learning*
IRB Protocol Number: 16082

EXPIRATION DATE: 08/17/2018

Dear Dr. Sadler:

Thank you for submitting the completed IRB application form for your project entitled *What the best ESL writing teachers do at UIUC: pedagogical practices teaching beliefs and how these impact their students' learning*. Your project was assigned Institutional Review Board (IRB) Protocol Number 16082 and reviewed. It has been determined that the research activities described in this application meet the criteria for exemption at 45CFR46.101(b)(1) and 45CFR46.101(b)(2).

This determination of exemption only applies to the research study as submitted. Please note that additional modifications to your project need to be submitted to the IRB for review and exemption determination or approval before the modifications are initiated.

We appreciate your conscientious adherence to the requirements of human subjects research. If you have any questions about the IRB process, or if you need assistance at any time, please feel free to contact me at the OPRS office, or visit our website at <http://oprs.research.illinois.edu>.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Rose St. Clair".

Rose St. Clair, BA
Assistant Human Subjects Research Specialist, Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

c: Catalina del Pilar Sandoval Munoz