

Introduction:

Developing the Academic Writing Abilities of Adults Learning English

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■ The Importance of Academic Writing in Adult Education

The communicative demands of the twenty-first century workplace have led to a fundamental shift in the focus of adult education programs. Whereas basic literacy and life skills were once their sole focus, today's adult education programs must prepare students to understand complex operations, be problem-solvers, have some degree of computer literacy, and attain both oral and written fluency in professional English (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006; Elander, Harrington, Norton, Robinson, & Reddy, 2006; Parrish & Johnson, 2010). Even many minimum wage jobs—such as taking orders in restaurants, parking cars, or providing security in a building—require workers to use computer software, make independent decisions, and find solutions to problems. These tasks involve high-level language skills, critical-thinking skills, computer literacy, and confidence.

To support adult learners' employment and education goals, writing has become more important in the field of adult education. Many adult education practitioners recognize that learners not only need to learn to articulate ideas in a clear and appropriate manner

orally but also in writing (Fernández, Peyton, & Schaetzel, 2017). In the past, programs focused primarily on listening, speaking, and reading. Then, learners were interested in improving their listening and speaking skills to get entry-level jobs and be able to converse in their workplaces and neighborhoods. Learners needed to work on their reading skills to get hired for better jobs and to advance in their adult education classes. Teachers, therefore, focused on these two skills, especially reading, because program assessments and funding often depended on them. When writing skills were taught to adult English language learners, teachers typically focused on transactional writing, such as note-taking, writing narratives, and exercises to teach specific language skills (filling in vocabulary words in cloze exercises, correcting grammar and spelling in sentences) (Fernández, Peyton, & Schaetzel, 2017; Reid, 1993; Shanahan, 2015; Zamel, 1982, 1987). Now, however, with changes in the job market and adult learners moving to two- and four-year degree programs, writing instruction needs to extend beyond narrative genres and equip learners to be rhetorically flexible—that is, be able to write for the multiple audiences, purposes, and contexts of college courses and the workplace.

In the United States, the 2013 College and Career Readiness Standards for Adult Education (U.S. Department of Education, 2013) and the 2016 English Language Proficiency Standards for Adult Education (U.S. Department of Education, 2016) were designed to guide teachers as they prepare adult learners for effective participation in academic and workforce settings and ultimately to attain economic self-sufficiency. These standards explicitly describe academic writing skills that learners need to be successful in these contexts. The new focus on writing is also reflected in the high school equivalency tests that were revised and created in 2014: The GED (General Education Development test, revised), HiSET (High School Equivalency Test, created), and TASC (Test Assessing Secondary Completion, created) now contain writing tasks that are more academic in nature. Now, instead of writing an essay on a given topic using their own experience as support, test takers use two readings to support an opinion on a topic that may or may not be different from their own opinion. (See Chapter 9 for a more detailed discussion of the writing tasks on these tests.)

As with any successful change in curricula, changes in teaching methods, approaches, and allocation of class time must follow. However, in federally and privately funded adult education programs, insufficient funding for professional development and instructional materials can limit teachers' ability to teach academic and workplace writing. Furthermore, adult education teachers, unlike their K–12 and post-secondary education counterparts, come from educational and professional backgrounds that may not have prepared them to teach writing to adult English language learners. Crandall, Ingersoll, and Lopez (2008), in their survey of state teaching qualifications, noted that the requirements to teach adult English language learners vary widely, a pattern that continues today (see *Requirements to Teach Adult Education Programs*, https://study.com/how_to_teach_adults.html). Some states require K–12 certification; some require an ESL endorsement; and some do not have any requirements apart from a specific level of education, ranging from an advanced degree to a high school diploma. With respect to writing specifically, Fernández, Peyton, and Schaezel (2017) found that 29 percent of the adult education teachers they surveyed had participated in workshops and short-term professional development on teaching academic writing within the past year, 39 percent within the past three years, and 33 percent more than three years ago or never. It would seem, then, that more can be done to equip teachers to teach writing skills for academic and workplace contexts.

This volume seeks to address these challenges. It is written for teachers and program managers in adult education and college preparatory programs for English language learners at all levels and for instructors in university programs who are preparing practitioners to work with adults learning English. Although it focuses primarily on adult education programs in the United States, colleagues teaching English to immigrants/migrants in other countries will also find it useful. It provides theory, research, and specific instructional strategies and approaches, including structures for classroom activities and assignments, feedback mechanisms to guide teachers as they help their students develop as writers, and information about writing in different modalities, by hand and on a computer. In this volume,

adult education practitioners working with adults learning English will learn about:

- ▣ moving adults into higher education and careers and helping them be college and career ready.
- ▣ enriching and advancing what they are already doing in their classes, based on what they have learned about academic writing.
- ▣ integrating writing into the existing curriculum in adult education programs at all levels, including into content classes.
- ▣ teaching writing in line with national, state, and program educational standards.

■ Academic Writing Skills That Adult Learners Need

In order to help adult learners acquire academic writing skills, it is important to understand what academic writing involves. Most broadly, *academic writing* is situated in the university discourse community, which is “organized around the production and legitimation of particular forms of knowledge and social practices at the expense of others” (Chase, 1988, p. 13). Examples of academic writing include essays, research papers, reports, laboratory write-ups, and exam answers. Although scholars argue that academic writing is neither uniform nor static (Gee, 1989, p. 7), “Only certain ways of constructing knowledge and expressing opinions are recognized and valued within the academic discourse community, and these privileged ways of meaning-making have to be learned” (Tang, 2013, p. 12). These ways of “meaning-making” or knowing, which vary across academic disciplines, are reflected in academic writing (Zhu, 2004). For instance, whereas writing assignments for the humanities (e.g., history, ethics, philosophy) often require close analysis of and textual evidence from a course reading or an archival document, academic paper assignments for the social sciences (e.g., economics, psychology,

education) tend to expect writers to demonstrate knowledge of previous research and the scientific method.

Although some learners can acquire the academic literacy needed to write appropriately in different rhetorical situations and disciplines merely through exposure and social practice, many others—especially non-traditional and immigrant students—require a more direct approach. Literacy research in the past two decades has found strong support for the explicit teaching of writing skills, processes, and knowledge (Graham & Perin, 2007). Thus, teachers can and should teach adult English language learners to construct and organize knowledge, state and support opinions, and explicate their ideas according to the conventions of the university discourse community. More specifically, to teach English learners, teachers need to know what the features of academic writing are and what skills this writing entails.

The common features of academic writing are confirmed and amplified in a study by Rosenfeld, Courtney, and Fowles (2004), who examined writing requirements in colleges and universities. They surveyed professors in Master's and PhD programs to learn the literacy practices used and skills needed in their fields and institutions. The survey had a list of 39 tasks, and respondents were asked to rank the tasks from *slightly important* to *extremely important*. Respondents rated 36 of the 39 task statements as *important* or *very important* for students entering their programs to be able to perform competently. The following 12 tasks were rated the highest:

- Organize ideas and information coherently.
- Use grammar and syntax that follow the rules of standard written English, avoiding errors that distract the reader or disrupt meaning.
- Avoid errors in mechanics (e.g., spelling and punctuation).
- Abstract or summarize essential information (e.g., from speeches, observations, or texts).
- Analyze and synthesize information from multiple sources.
- Credit sources appropriately.
- Integrate quoted and referenced material appropriately.

- ▣ Develop a well-focused, well-supported discussion, using relevant reasons and examples.
- ▣ Write clearly, with smooth transitions from one thought to the next.
- ▣ Write precisely and concisely, avoiding vague or empty phrases.
- ▣ Revise and edit a text to improve its clarity, coherence, and correctness.
- ▣ Work independently to plan and compose a text.

Although not included in this list, vocabulary knowledge is also critical to becoming an effective writer. In recent years, researchers have emphasized the importance of both comprehending written texts and producing the language used in academic and career-focused contexts, orally and in writing (see, e.g., discussion in Friedberg, Mitchell, & Brook, 2016; McKeown, Crosson, Artz, Sandora, & Beck, 2013; Ucelli & Galloway, 2017). These include morphologically complex words, general academic words, and discipline-specific words. In addition to word lists, writing researchers are increasingly studying and promoting the teaching of lexical bundles—phrases, word chunks, and discourse structures characteristic of academic, disciplinary, and workplace discourse (Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Hyland, 2008). McKeown et al. (2013), focusing on middle and high school students, point out that “the vocabulary demand of texts that students are assigned in school is cited [in research reports] as a major contributor to reading problems” (p. 45) and argue that “... we must do more to help students build a deep, flexible understanding of the kinds of words that are used in academic texts” (p. 45). This observation and claim apply to adult education contexts as well.

Discussions about success in the “emerging workplace” point to the importance of the writing skills listed. As outlined in the College and Career Readiness Standards, “Individuals must be able to engage with complex texts, communicate effectively, think critically, and apply what they learn to novel settings” (Haynes, 2012, p. 16). For example, adult learners studying to be nursing assistants need to be able to write answers to problematic scenarios on class exams,

stating what course of action they would follow in a specific situation and supporting their choices with reasons. Once employed, they may also be asked to write procedures for co-workers to follow on later shifts. To be able to meet the situational demands of each writing task, they will need to develop the appropriate vocabulary, syntax, and discourse style.

In a survey and follow-up interviews conducted in 2015 by the editors of this book (Fernández, Peyton, & Schaetzel, 2017; Peyton & Schaetzel, 2016), adult ESL educators described the writing needs of adult ESL learners in their classes at community college, community-based, and K–12 adult education programs. They reported that the learners in their classes need to be able to:

- ▣ write argumentative, technical, and informative texts.
- ▣ create, argue for, and support a thesis statement.
- ▣ extract and summarize supporting information.
- ▣ write precisely and concisely, using appropriate vocabulary and sentence structure.
- ▣ produce a well-edited piece that is easily understood by a native English speaker.
- ▣ use and credit sources.

These features, which characterize traditional academic writing, are also present to varying degrees in professional and workplace writing, as shown in Figure I.1 (first identified by Agnew, 1992). By *professional writing*, we mean the kind of conceptual, administrative, and policy writing that office workers, such as program and project managers, sales executives, and directors, engage in (Goins, Rauh, Turner, & Von Holten, 2016). *Workplace writing*, in contrast, tends to be more transactional and informational (Agnew, 1992), that which general staff and personnel in more physically demanding jobs, such as nurses' aides, mechanics, and hotel and restaurant staff, engage in. For example, hotel staff may be asked to prepare announcements or invitations to special events, reply to customer emails, or monitor the hotel's social media pages.

Figure I.1 Comparing Features of Professional and Workplace Writing

Features of Professional Writing	Features of Workplace Writing (Agnew, 1992)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Extended writing tasks are aimed at external and internal audiences and often involve or require feedback and multiple drafts (e.g., white papers, annual reports). ▪ Multiple readers may be affected in different ways by the content of the document. ▪ Topics vary depending on the specific project and its goals. ▪ Writing is often persuasive and goal-oriented (seeking support for a decision, justifying a project, making a case for increased funding, etc.). ▪ Tasks may require doing research not only on the topic but also on audience needs and expectations. ▪ Writing quality can influence broad outcomes (e.g., receiving or being denied an account). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Short, repetitive writing tasks tend to communicate specific information to a limited or internal audience (e.g., short memos, long memos, one-page letters, informal notes to someone, filling out preprinted forms). ▪ Readers are primarily supervisors or co-workers who need the information for record-keeping or as a basis for action (e.g., deciding whether a patient needs a particular treatment). ▪ Writers focus on well-known and consistent topics, modes, and audiences (e.g., an email message or a note to a supervisor, a patient care log). ▪ Writing is transactional or task-based (e.g., providing information about a patient's treatment plan). ▪ Research is not usually required, but rather knowledge of the field and context in which the work is taking place. ▪ Writing quality can have immediate or specific real-life rewards and consequences (e.g., incomplete or illegible customer records can impact quality of service).

Of course, these features are not exclusive to one work context or the other. Professional writers will often engage in general workplace writing and, on occasion, non-office personnel will produce professional genres, such as a letter of recommendation or a request for

increased funding or payment. In any case, writers must use clear language that is appropriately formal, topic-focused, and grammatically correct (Beason, 2001). While thinking beyond specific occupations or professions, we should also prepare students to be rhetorically flexible and capable of adjusting to the writing demands of an increasingly unpredictable job landscape. Thus, teaching the features of academic writing assists all English language learners as they endeavor to participate in higher education, gain employment, and aspire to career advancement.

■ Challenges That Adult Learners Face

Whether seeking a high school diploma or a college-level certificate or degree, few students can avoid writing today. Students learning English who are preparing for, entering, and participating in academic programs, at a community college or a university, experience unique challenges. Eli Hinkel (2004) found that “students may be stumbling during their general education courses, taken during the first years of a higher education program, because of their lack of academic reading and writing skills” (p. 25). Research examining the college and career readiness of English learners has often found them to be the least prepared to meet the challenges of college writing (Kanno & Kangas, 2014). When faced with the need to write an essay or another piece of writing, such students may feel alone and challenged; they are starting with a blank sheet of paper and must put words on it. They need to make a point clearly and turn in a finished product on which they will be judged.

The quality and amount of writing instruction they receive prior to and during college only exacerbate the problem. Referring to post-secondary writing courses, Matsuda (2006) has noted that “in many composition classrooms, . . . language issues beyond simple ‘grammar’ correction are not addressed extensively, even when the assessment of student texts is based at least partly on students’ proficiency in the privileged variety of English (Standard Written English)” (p. 640). If students do not receive this instruction in credit-granting college

composition classes, where teachers may be specifically trained to teach writing, they are unlikely to receive it in courses that only meet general education requirements or in non-credit courses in adult education, where teachers may be less equipped to teach writing and are working with non-traditional native and immigrant student populations.

■ Challenges That Educators Working with This Population Face: Results of a National Survey

Concerns about the quality and amount of writing that non-traditional students in adult education receive guided the vision for this volume and the editors' collaboration. In the survey of adult ESL instructors across the United States previously cited (Fernández, Peyton, & Schaetzel, 2017), we found that while teachers and program administrators recognize that academic writing is important and are shifting their curricula and materials to incorporate academic writing in their instruction, many reported challenges in teaching academic writing to adults learning English and expressed a need for professional development and support. The types of professional development that might be provided (e.g., workshops and longer courses focused on specific knowledge and skills related to instruction and assessment approaches overall, and writing instruction and assessment specifically, through which teachers receive certificates and state-mandated credentials) are described in detail in an article by Schaetzel, Peyton, and Burt (2007), *Professional Development for Adult ESL Practitioners: Building Capacity*.

To provide high-quality academic writing instruction in adult ESL classes that contributes to positive educational and career outcomes, systemic shifts are needed in the field. We can learn from the consequences of a “piecemeal” approach to educational reform (LaVenía, Cohen-Vogel, & Lang, 2015, p. 146) documented at the middle and high school levels, where “second- and third-generation adolescent learners ... continue to struggle with the use of language and literacy in secondary-level academic coursework” (Haynes,

2012, p. 3). Regarding this situation, Mariana Haynes (2012) argues:

The lack of progress [in literacy reforms] at both the federal and state levels can be attributed to the fact that educational policies neither leveraged fundamental shifts in the design of curriculum and instruction nor ensured systemic interventions and supports for English learners. (p. 3)

In other words, to ensure that English learners in adult education programs are college and career ready, policy and mandates alone will not suffice. Quality professional development, sufficient funding, and guidance, such as that provided in this volume, are needed.

■ Organization of This Volume

The chapters are arranged within four parts, each representing different components of and stages in teaching academic writing and considerations unique to the adult education context: **Setting the Stage for Teaching Writing, Supporting the Writing Process, Working with Beginning Writers, and Aligning Writing with Accountability Systems**. Chapter contributors are current or former adult educators with experience in community college, university, and adult education programs in the United States and abroad. (Brief author bios are included at the end of the volume.)

The chapters address ten instructional approaches that have emerged from the research related to college and career readiness and standards that guide instruction. Each chapter is designed to help teachers develop a clear understanding of the approach, its research basis, and related policies, as well as to receive specific guidance, tools for implementation, and resources for self-study (Additional Resources). Each chapter opens with questions to guide the reading and closes with reflective questions prompting teachers to think about the relationship between the topic addressed, their current practices, and alternatives they might explore in the classroom.

Part 1: Setting the Stage for Teaching Writing

The two chapters in this section focus on the importance of writing in adult education, ways that writing can be connected with other language skills, and the critical importance of writing in content area classes as adult learners prepare for college courses and work.

1. Connect writing to reading and other skills.

In “Writing as the Basis for Reading and So Much More,” Rebeca Fernández (Davidson College) points out that concerns over standardized assessments used to determine program funding often force adult ESL instructors to prioritize reading and speaking skills over writing instruction. This focus is bolstered by a belief that writing takes time away from learning other skills. The chapter provides a theoretical rationale for prioritizing the teaching of writing, presents research on the importance of writing in developing content knowledge and other language modes (speaking, listening, and reading), and proposes writing-centered activities and a sample lesson that incorporate writing at every stage of learning.

2. Build pathways for writing development in content areas.

In “Building Pathways for Writing Development in the Content Areas,” Donna M. Brinton (University of California, Los Angeles) and Barry D. Griner (University of Southern California) describe the importance of content-based instruction (CBI), which involves the simultaneous learning of content and language. In this approach, content serves as the point of departure for the selection and sequencing of the language curriculum. An instructional unit from American history (the Lewis and Clark Expedition), with examples of materials that can be used and tasks that can be undertaken, demonstrates how language and content goals can complement each other and how content instruction can be enhanced by a specific focus on language. The chapter describes how the use of academic content material,

delivered through the medium of English, provides a firm foundation for literacy skills and how the integrated skills focus of CBI provides the necessary scaffold for students to acquire the organizational and genre-specific skills they require for academic writing.

Part 2: Supporting the Writing Process

The four chapters in this section describe the components of the writing process: tools (including technology) that can be used to facilitate the process and ways that thoughtful, effective feedback can be provided as students write.

3. Use the writing process.

In “The Process of Writing,” Dudley Reynolds (Carnegie Mellon University–Qatar) discusses how an understanding of the writing process can inform both pedagogy and learning outcomes when teaching academic and professional writing in adult education programs. After reviewing the research on the behaviors that novice and competent writers engage in when producing a written text and the components of the writing process, specific activities are described that learners can engage in as they write, review, revise, discuss, and edit their own texts and engage in this process with other students in the class. The chapter makes clear how knowledge and use of the writing process help adult students become independent writers.

4. Develop varied options and supports for writing.

In “Scaffolding Writing: Using Interactive Writing and Graphic Organizers,” Joy Kreeft Peyton (Center for Applied Linguistics) describes research on the need for and benefits of supports for students engaged in academic writing. Two types of supports that can be provided are described: interactive writing (dialogue journals), through which students articulate their ideas and perspectives in interaction with a more proficient writer (often their teacher) and

receive significant feedback and further development of their ideas; and graphic organizers, which provide a framework for shaping the key ideas that will be included in a written piece. The chapter describes these two types of supports and the skills and abilities that they build, including processing of information, sharing of ideas and perspectives, seeing other ways to express ideas, and building a knowledge base and expressive style. It also describes specific ways that the supports can be implemented, with examples of graphic organizers that can be used with learners at different English and writing proficiency levels.

5. Use technology in writing instruction.

In “Leveraging Technology in Writing Instruction,” Diana Satin (English for New Bostonians) and Steve Quann (instructional design consultant) describe how teachers can incorporate technology and support learners as they collaborate on a project-based activity. The chapter describes specific methodologies, instructional strategies, and tools to enhance skill building. The authors discuss ways these approaches and technologies can help teachers and learners move through the components of the writing process as they prepare to share their culminating presentations.

6. Provide feedback on students’ writing.

In “Providing Feedback on Students’ Writing,” Dana Ferris (University of California, Davis) describes the importance of thoughtful, supportive feedback from expert mentors for developing students’ confidence and competence when writing in a second language (L2). The chapter describes best practices in providing feedback to L2 writers about their texts, with a specific focus on ways to provide three types of feedback: selective and prioritized, clear and specific, and encouraging and empowering. Although mention is made of various sources of feedback (peers, self-evaluation, and tutors), the teacher’s critical role in providing feedback is emphasized.

Part 3: Working with Beginning Writers

The two chapters in this section describe processes and provide tools for teaching academic writing to adult learners with limited education and literacy in their home language(s). The processes described lead learners from the knowledge and skills that they have to those that they need to be successful in their future education and employment.

7. Start with writing from the beginning.

In “Getting Started with Writing from the Beginning,” Betsy Lindeman Wong (Northern Virginia Community College) describes a particular adult learner population—immigrants and refugees with limited formal schooling and literacy in the language of their home countries who have settled in the United States and are learning English as an additional language. Their literacy backgrounds can present challenges for teachers, who are often unprepared to work with adult students who do not read or write. The chapter reviews research on teaching this learner population and offers standards-aligned instructional approaches and strategies for working with them. The strategies can be used with adult learners who have very limited literacy from the first day of class and over time, as they learn and move to more advanced concepts and skills.

8. Use oral language as a bridge to academic writing.

In “Oral Language as a Bridge to Academic Writing,” Patsy Egan and Betsy Parrish (Hamline University) describe how teachers working with adults learning English who have limited prior formal schooling or limited experience with academic literacy can leverage and build on those students’ oral language proficiency as a bridge to academic writing. The chapter briefly summarizes differences between oral and written academic discourse and builds the case for harnessing oral language for academic writing development, including ways that teachers can encourage academic conversations as the basis for academic literacy from beginning through advanced levels of

English proficiency. The chapter describes tasks, tools, and scaffolds that generate oral academic discourse that is then used as the bridge to writing in a variety of genres, moving beyond narrative to writing a report, presenting an argument with evidence, or describing a sequence of events. It also invites readers to reflect on how to use the strategies presented with other content and topics, for both general and career-focused purposes.

Part 4: Aligning Writing with Accountability Systems

Writing in adult education occurs within the context of accountability systems, which include assessments and national, state, and program standards that guide instruction. The two chapters in this section describe ways that teachers can adjust instruction so that it is responsive to and helps students to work effectively within these systems.

9. Use test prompts to develop academic writing.

In “Using Writing Test Prompts to Develop Academic Writing,” Kirsten Schaetzel (Emory University School of Law) describes sample prompts that are currently being used in the writing portions of high-stakes high school equivalency exams (GED, HiSET, and TASC) in the United States and the ways that these prompts can be used to develop students’ academic writing abilities. After offering a rationale for using writing exams consistently to build academic writing skills, an example from the GED is used to show how teachers can identify skills that students must demonstrate in the exam and develop class activities to use with students at all proficiency levels that build their confidence and skills. A learning framework, Habits of Mind, provides the foundation for this work and provides examples of activities that teachers and students can do to build the Habits of Mind needed to perform well on the read-to-write task in high school equivalency exams.

10. Understand and align writing instruction with national standards.

In “Teaching Writing in an Age of Standards,” Gilda Rubio-Festa (North Carolina Community College System) describes the standards that are driving instruction in K–12 and post-secondary programs in the United States and provides a rationale for and curricular approaches to standards-based writing instruction. The chapter includes examples of tasks and activities aligned with the standards and clearly stated learning outcomes to ensure that students are able to navigate gateway assessments and learning opportunities beyond the classroom.

■ Concluding Thoughts

Although the field of adult education has recognized the importance of writing for some time (e.g., Auerbach, 1992; Barber, Barber, Karner, & Laur 2006), in the past, assessment systems only considered writing skills “in a functional workplace, employability, and life skills context” (CASAS, 2004). The view of academic writing as an essential twenty-first century skill for adult learners—not just for traditional students—gained prominence with the development of adult education standards in 2013 (U.S. Department of Education, 2013) and newly designed high-stakes assessments such as the GED. For English language learners (ELLs), these educational reforms have gone even further, as described by Haynes (2012):

For ELLs in particular, the academic language competencies embodied in the standards require systemic, district-wide approaches to curriculum design and instructional delivery that intertwine language development and content. The new standards are designed to bridge the gap that has long existed between language acquisition and content proficiency for ELLs. This potential will only be realized if policy leaders and practitioners carefully examine programs and practices and evaluate their impact on ELLs’ progress in meeting the standards. (p. 2)

Recognizing that effective writing instruction for adults learning English requires a systemwide commitment that includes robust teacher professional development, the purpose of this volume is to provide the research background and specific approaches and resources that allow programs and classroom teachers to implement these changes.

In addition, we need to find ways to work together as a field to help make the necessary shifts. For example, we might:

- ▣ identify and disseminate promising practices and approaches to academic writing in terms of integration of language and content, time spent writing, types of texts that students write, audiences that students write for, types of feedback given, types of assessments used, ways to use technology, and ways that one type and level of activity can be used to build the next types and levels.
- ▣ coordinate instructional approaches across student proficiency and class levels, so that students build from level to level in a sustained and consistent way.
- ▣ emphasize academic, workplace, and professional writing that is aligned with the national standards at local, state, and national levels.
- ▣ ensure that teachers have opportunities to participate in professional development opportunities, learning communities, and collaborations that have academic writing as a focus.
- ▣ create and make available resource collections of supports for writing at all English proficiency levels (test prompts, graphic organizers, and other types of support).

There is a great deal to be done in the field of adult ESL education to ensure that learners in adult education programs are preparing to succeed in further education and work. Educators are clearly interested in participating in needed changes, but they cannot do it alone. It is time for us to work together as a field to make the needed shifts.

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