Writing and the Internationalization of U.S. Higher Education: The Roles of Ideology, Administration, and the Institution

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ABSTRACT

In this dissertation, *Writing and the Internationalization of U.S. Higher Education: The Roles of Ideology, Administration, and the Institution*, I examine one private institution, Syracuse University, for how it has approached internationalization (both currently and in historical efforts), how it has dealt with the increased presence of English language learners (ELLs), and how both realities may affect the research and practice of writing program administrators (WPAs). I use scholarship from Second Language Writing and Writing Program Administration as frameworks for examining some of the sociopolitics involved in addressing the new needs of an internationalized higher education institution, including the politics and ideologies that may impede WPA work but may not always be readily apparent. I draw on institutional research in the forms of archival research, interviews with university administrators, and an administrative case study of one graduate-level writing course for ELLs.

This dissertation project can be seen as culminating in two separate but intermingling qualitative studies. First, based on interviews with fourteen university administrators, I illustrate that some the most pressing concerns currently perceived at SU include cross-cultural conflict, a lack of resources for ELLs, and the need for increased and different kinds of institutional support, particularly since the effects of internationalization at SU have typically been handled after the fact rather than preemptively through strategic systemic planning. Then, based on rhetorical analysis of historical institutional data and archival materials, I exemplify how past efforts to internationalize were infused with separatist, colonialist, and ethnocentric points of view. I argue that applying institutional research to WPAs’ local university contexts for the purposes of revealing current materialities and longstanding
ideologies can enhance WPAs’ abilities to locate opportunities for rhetorically negotiating change that is needed.

In my second qualitative study that informs this dissertation, I investigate the administrative practices and politics involved when implementing new writing resources on behalf of ELLs in higher education institutions. I provide an administrative praxis narrative describing my development and piloting of a graduate-level writing course for ELL students wherein I analyze the departmental and institutional constraints traversed. This situated and site-specific study—which is informed by participant-observations, field notes, course materials, and interviews with fourteen student participants and one writing instructor—further exemplifies some of the benefits and challenges of institutional research. I catalog many issues and obstacles WPAs may need to consider as they navigate the often opaque and power-infused institutional spaces in which they participate and seek to change, including issues of sustainability, institutional backing, and the politics of remediation.

To conclude this dissertation, I offer suggestions for future inquiry and propose a transdirectional model for institutional research and administrative practice. This model aims to account for a wider range of institutional realities as sites for determining transformational possibilities that better respond to linguistic and cultural diversity in higher education.

by

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INTRODUCTION

A Research Narrative

The exigency behind better understanding and addressing internationalization in higher
education in the United States (US) has slowly amplified over centuries and has now become a
pressing issue across institutions. The presence of international students in US colleges and
universities can be traced as far back as 1784 (Matsuda, “The Myth”), but just in the last fifteen
years there has been a striking 32% increase, with more than 800,000 international students
attending during the 2012-2013 academic school year (Institute of International Education).
While some teachers and administrators may long have recognized the need to expand
academic support for international students, especially those students who are considered
English language learners (ELLs), scholarship in the fields of Composition and Rhetoric and
Second Language Writing has been examining internationalization and multilingualism for only
the last few decades.

This body of literature has focused on theorizing how language difference intersects
with academic writing and how writing teachers ought to adapt their pedagogies. (Of particular
importance to this study include the works of Canagarajah, Casanave, Horner, Lu, Matsuda,
Patton, Shuck, Smoke, and Tardy.) This literature makes clear some of the best practices
universities and language classrooms could be applying. Less is known, especially in
Composition and Rhetoric, about what is actually happening on an administrative level in these
contexts to address the unique needs of internationalized student bodies. (See Chapter 1 for a
review of literature pointing to this claim.) Such accounts—of the administrative actualities of our programs and institutions as well as the kinds of institutional research that may aid in our endeavors—are important and necessary for administrators and scholars interested in assessing (and, when relevant, transforming) higher education so that it better addresses internationalized student populations.

My dissertation aims to explore this need to document what is occurring in practice and whether, how, and/or why institutional change might happen toward improving university and writing program approaches to acknowledging multilingualism and supporting ELLs. I examine one private institution, Syracuse University, for how it has approached internationalization (both currently and in historical efforts), how it has dealt with its increasing ELL student population, and how both realities may affect the research and practice of writing program administrators (WPAs). Keeping central a WPA perspective, my study aims to provide examples of institutional research and administrative practice by analyzing some of the many issues needing careful consideration in our increasingly internationalized institutions, including the politics and ideologies that may impede our work but may not always be readily apparent.

My dissertation project uses scholarship from Second Language Writing and Writing Program Administration to examine some of the sociopolitics involved in addressing the new needs of an internationalized higher education institution. I draw on institutional research in the forms of archival research, interviews with university administrators, and an administrative case study of one graduate-level writing course for ELLs. This research project can be seen as culminating in two separate but intermingling qualitative studies, which will be described in more detail later in this chapter. In one of my two studies, I theorize about the potential
benefits of WPAs researching historical moments at their institutions for how they reveal deep-seated ideologies and connect to our present situations. In the other, I examine the actual processes and politics that WPAs may be faced with when developing and implementing new resources for ELLs. Both studies are based on my administrative research and practice within my local context at Syracuse University.

Before further introductions are provided, it is important to say a few words about my use of the term, “English language learner” (ELL). I use “ELL” to refer to students who are multilingual and consider English to be an additional (i.e., not their first/native/primary) language. In the context of US higher education, these students are commonly referred to with terms like English as a Second Language (ESL), Second Language Writers (SLW), Nonnative English Speakers (NNES), or simply as “multilingual” students. Of course, the term “ELL” may be applied to international and domestic students alike and, of course, not all international students are ELLs. The differences across ELL populations significantly impact students’ experiences and needs, and so they are imperative for researchers, teachers, and administrators to account for. Since my study of Syracuse University primarily focuses on international ELLs, my use of “ELL” is often in reference to that ELL student population. Some of the issues I raise and implications I point to about language diversity in higher education, however, affect all ELLs, regardless of whether they are domestic or international. Thus, I will occasionally use “ELL” to generally refer to both domestic and international ELLs when the

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1 My choice to use “English language learner” is a deliberate and political one. Using labels like “English Language Learner” and “multilingual student” are not only more accurate since they leave ambiguous the extent to which English is used alongside other languages (i.e., whether it be a user’s second vs. fifth language and/or whether it was learned simultaneously as a native language alongside another language); furthermore, these labels also intentionally do not hierarchize language users (i.e., privilege native English speakers or situate multilingual writers as second class). See Chapter 4 for more discussion on the implications of the labels we assign to students who study and use English as an additional language. See Appendix A for what I consider one of the best overviews available describing the ELL student population, written by Gail Shuck in her “What Is ESL,” a contributing chapter to Rita Malenczyk’s 2013 edited collection, _A Rhetoric for Writing Program Administrators_.
implications I point to affect the presence of both groups in higher education. At other times, and when it seems particularly important or useful to do so, I distinguish between international and domestic ELLs.

In the remainder of this chapter, I provide a narrative of this project’s evolution, further introduce the aims and approaches to each facet of my study, detail important contextual information, name my purpose and intended audiences, and present an overview of the chapters of this dissertation.

The Evolution of this Study

The seeds of this research project can be traced back to a roundtable discussion I coordinated with a colleague in February 2011 in the Writing Center at Syracuse University (SU). The event was one of a series of four\(^2\) sponsored by the Writing Center Committee, a committee on which I served for two years. While different in their content and approach, each event emerged to address the primary concern expressed by SU Writing Center consultants in a survey inquiring about their work in the Writing Center—that is, the challenges they experienced and questions they had about working with international and domestic English language learners (ELLs).

For the event I led, several undergraduate and graduate international ELL students I had been working with in the Writing Center were invited to come speak about the kinds of writing instruction they found most effective, the extent to which their needs as writers were being

\(^2\) The first event was a professional development opportunity offered to faculty, staff, and graduate students working in the Writing Program titled, “World English in the Writing Center” and led by a faculty member. This provided an important theoretical backdrop on relevant findings from scholarship on World Englishes. The final two events targeted Writing Center consultants and teachers interested in more practical strategies for addressing sentence-level issues in ELL student writing. The first, titled, “Present Progressive: Keeping Current on Grammatical Approaches” was led by another WCC member, and the second was led by the WC Director at the time, titled, “Lexical Approaches.”
met in the Writing Center, and any advice they had for writing teachers and consultants. Seven students participated and were joined by Writing Program faculty, graduate students, and professional writing instructors\(^3\), as well as an administrator from the Linguistics, Languages and Literatures (LLL) Department. With the roundtable format, I imagined the discussion would function as a dialogue between teachers and students—we in the Writing Program sharing our knowledge on developing writing practices, students giving us feedback on how to improve our instruction and the resource we offer at the Writing Center. While these mutual perspectives were sought, most of the session was spent gaining knowledge from the students.

There were many insights offered by participants; however, the most salient and commonly shared issue was that graduate students were particularly underserved at SU when it came to getting support with writing. The participants’ stories collaboratively indicated that although undergraduates had course options available to them through LLL to develop their writing\(^4\) and felt that the Writing Center adequately supported their needs, graduate students had the opposite experience: they felt their needs were not being met as there were no writing courses available specifically for graduate students (a resource they all expressed wanting), and the Writing Center—despite all its efforts—was not as useful as they might wish for, given the specialized writing they did for their advanced degrees.

These graduate students used the Writing Center regularly because they valued the feedback and individualized instruction they received on issues like grammar and writing

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\(^3\) Professional writing instructors (PWIs) employed through SU’s Writing Program are contingent faculty, university workers often referred to in other contexts as adjuncts or part-time instructors.

\(^4\) At SU, LLL offers courses for English language learners (LLL 211 and 213) as equivalents of and alternatives to the university’s required first- and second-year composition courses offered in the Writing Program (Writing 105 and 205). LLL also offers additional classes for undergraduate ELLs that need or want more support before and after 211 and 213, as well as a series of courses graduate teaching assistants are placed in to improve their English speaking skills. More information on all of the resources at SU for English language learners will be provided later in this chapter.
strategies. However, the writing they did in their disciplines was often so specialized that their consultants—who, understandably, were not versed in the research and writing practices of the students’ respective fields—could not often provide the higher-order writing support students sought. Further, graduate students were composing in genres that were far too lengthy for their consultants to manage during their half-hour or one-hour appointments (i.e., seminar papers, conference papers, prospecti, theses, dissertations, and scholarly publications that ranged from as few as fifteen pages to hundreds). Some of the participants knew of the Writing Center’s online editing resource for graduate students that accepted longer submissions (the Graduate Editing Center), but even this resource, they acknowledged, did not focus on higher-order issues or offer instruction.

Similar perceptions and experiences as were shared by the graduate student participants attending my event have been studied and documented in scholarly literature, particularly in the fields of Second Language Writing (SLW) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Specific attention has been paid, for instance, to the distinctive complexities that arise in the context of graduate-level writing. One recurring and important finding of this rich area of scholarship is that many ELL graduate students struggle with the gap between their disciplinary knowledge and their perceived writing and speaking competencies. They come equipped with (or quickly develop) research and other professional expertise but have less experience with the English language and often have no previous practice or training in writing. (See especially Belcher, “Writing Critically”; Casanave, Writing Games; Hirvela & Belcher; Leki, “You Cannot Ignore”; Schneider & Fujishima; Watson.) In addition to the demands of cultural acclimation, language, and professionalization, researchers show that graduate ELLs, like all graduate
students, are often faced with the sociopolitical challenges of developing new scholarly identities and negotiating tensions that sometimes occur in their department or when collaborating on writing and publications with faculty (Cho; Casanave “Looking Ahead”; Li “A Doctoral Student”).

While all graduate students face challenges in developing writing, this pursuit may be more demanding and complicated for ELLs, depending on their background and experience with writing in English and working in US contexts (“CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing”). Given the high stakes of graduate school literacies in the US and just how long it takes to acquire a new language and develop writing practices (Myers), it is no surprise that many graduate ELL students—including those who sat in on our roundtable discussion—seek additional resources.

The student speakers of this event heightened the awareness of participating teachers and administrators about the ways in which SU was and was not meeting the writing needs of students. Being a member of the Writing Center Committee provided a space to begin talking with others in my department about how we might respond to this institutional need for writing resources for ELL students at the graduate level, and my background in teaching and research in Second Language Writing5 landed me the opportunity to spearhead the initiative. I worked alongside the committee over the course of a semester to develop a proposal for a graduate-level writing course for ELL students to be offered by the Writing Program. After I proposed the course to the department chair, she approved my development of materials for a pilot version of the course, and for months we worked together to iron out the administrative

5 I came into the program with a thesis on international faculty’s experiences writing and publishing in English and a few years’ experience teaching writing to advanced undergraduate ELL students. To further my expertise in the area, I was also working at the time toward doctoral qualifying exams in Second Language Writing and Genre Studies.
and pedagogical details. (See Chapter 4 for a discussion on this complicated and highly political process.) Then, to my surprise and utter delight, I was granted the position as instructor of the course.

Teaching the course, “Writing 600: Writing and Rhetoric for Advanced ELL Writers” (hereafter, “Writing 600”), was not the only opportunity with which I was presented. Given my research interests, Writing 600 provided me with real, local exigency from which this dissertation research sprang forth. Certainly, the opportunity was invaluable in providing the rare chance as a graduate student to develop and teach Writing 600 and in providing an area of inquiry that would sustain me through my own graduation requirement of producing a dissertation project. More importantly, though, Writing 600 gave me a window into which I could begin observing some of the administrative realities occurring at Syracuse University surrounding multilingualism and internationalization. Designing a study to accompany Writing 600 seemed not only exigent but also sensible and within my means.6

The Study of Writing 600 and Shift to Administration

In Chapter 4, I present findings from my study on Writing 600 from a writing program administrator’s perspective. Although this study is presented late in this dissertation, I discuss it first since, as just indicated, my experiences with Writing 600 was a driving force in how and why the study evolved and took on new directions. In the earliest stages of the study’s design, my initial focus was twofold, and not all that related to WPA work. In line with my approach to the roundtable discussion that started it all, I sought to investigate the experiences and perceptions of graduate students in Writing 600 to further explore the extent to which the

6 The study I designed was filed and approved through SU’s Institutional Review Board. See Chapter 2 for a fuller account of my research methods and methodologies.
distinctive writing needs of our internationalized student body were being met. To follow this focus, and as a secondary goal, I had previously planned to qualitatively study Writing 600, not for the sake of self-promotion of the course or presuming that it singlehandedly would resolve the issues observed at SU, but as an example of one means of supporting graduate students that would be worth interrogating and reporting on.

My examination of the course, though, resulted in my realizing that providing an administrative praxis narrative of my experience with Writing 600 would better speak to the complex situations likely shared across the nation: As a result of internationalization and the increased presence of both domestic and international ELLs, WPAs are being charged with establishing new writing resources. And while the fields of Composition and Rhetoric and Second Language Writing are making efforts to merge in their scholarship, additional research and insider information about the processes and politics of this reality could potentially be very useful. Still, my initial data gathering—which was centered on the student and pedagogy—was critical in not only leading to my focus on administration, but it also informed how I interpreted that perspective.

To begin the inquiry, and while still focused on student writing and pedagogical inquiries, I spent a year taking field notes on my processes, experiences, and reflections administering, developing, and teaching the course, and I collected as textual data all course-based materials, including administrative documents, student writing, and communications. Over the two semesters that I taught the course (one section in the fall of 2011 and another in spring 2012), I met weekly with graduate students enrolled in Writing 600 to work on their writing (for a total of at least five hours of face-to-face time with each student) in addition to
interviewing each student twice. In these meetings and interviews, I learned details about how and when students learned English, how they came to pursue education at SU, their motivations and writing processes, their experiences seeking and receiving support on their writing during their graduate studies, and their perceptions about their needs and strengths as writers.

Even though the research I present in this dissertation departs from my initial focus on students’ experiences and perceptions, I mention it because I believe this early research was instrumental in shaping my understandings of administrative concerns. My experiences with Writing 600 provided me with a more complex and detailed understanding of some of SU’s ELL graduate students’ cultural, linguistic, literacy, and educational background, as well as insight into their current experiences at SU in dealing with writing and other student-life realities. Although this part of my research is not often raised explicitly in this dissertation, it provided me with a student-centered perspective that, for me, made an administrative focus more meaningful. Having this background made clear that all administrative research and practice should begin with and recursively return to students—their experiences, knowledges, perceptions, and motivations.

Initial Implications of My Study of Writing 600

My examination of the processes of administering Writing 600, which I present in Chapter 4, reveals an array of programmatic politics requiring careful negotiation. For example, there were concerns over how to sustain the course, address international graduate student funding problems (since many pay out of pocket or have financial sponsors from home), and how to prevent the course from being deemed remedial by the institution in the future. I faced
the conundrum of wanting to provide a service to students in need while at the same time being concerned over how such an action might perpetuate longstanding assumptions in higher education (and at Syracuse University) that writing programs are solely responsible for improving students’ writing. As I discuss in Chapter 4, despite attempts to make the course more credible—and less remedial- and service-like—since it was absorbing existing section resources from the Writing Program and was not supported by external university funds, it did not have the foundations required to be sustainable. Administrative insights and a set of material conditions like this quickly became a recurring subject of observation and reflection in my field notes.

Approaching my research from the vantage point of writing program administration continued to be a compelling pursuit also because I knew that when it came to research on ELL writing, there were more resources on best practices for addressing students’ needs than accounts of what actually happens—the good and the bad—when we administratively enact those ideals alongside departmental and institutional realities (see Chapter 1). In fact, while we can easily imagine that there are many likeminded administrative pursuits occurring across the nation, administration research in SLW literature is limited. Examining the complex processes and challenges that must be negotiated, I believe, will benefit not only me and my future work but also other administrators who seek to develop new resources and programs at their respective institutions. I concluded that despite there being many directions my dissertation could take given the range and amount of data I had gathered, I needed to follow the trail that continued to emerge from my findings: in many ways, the fruit of this labor was the labor itself.
Of course, taking an administrative perspective also meant studying the present conditions existing on an institutional level so as to provide a more contextualized account of the situated issues I faced. Also important was that being a graduate student meant my experience and authority as a WPA at Syracuse University was limited; this reality presented challenges when studying institutional facets of internationalization, the presence of English language learners, and the implications that arise from both. I had insider information about some of the administrative concerns being negotiated in the Writing Program at Syracuse University, but the complex systems and practices existing at the institutional level were beyond my purview.

I became convinced that my inward focus on my most local context, the Writing Program, needed to branch out to include a better understanding and contextualization of the institution in which I had been working and was now studying. After all, our practices and policies in the Writing Program and the experiences of our students are inherently tied to and informed by larger institutional realities. On the one hand, to better understand the complexities of internationalization that I was witnessing, I wanted and needed to stay local and situated. At the same time, however, what administrators were doing and what students were experiencing beyond the confines of the Writing Program and Writing Center were key factors for which my analysis ought to account. Thus, my institutional study moves between and across the very local context of my own administration of Writing 600 and an extended local context of SU’s current and historical understandings of the nature and function of internationalization, multilingualism, and the presence of ELL student populations.
The Study on Current and Past Perceptions of Internationalization at SU

Given the increased action taken (or not) in institutions to address the presence of ELLs, the part of my study described above explores what writing program administrators may need to consider when interested in (or charged with) creating new writing resources for ELLs. In part, this inquiry can and should be addressed with examinations of programmatic efforts and contexts. However, it must also be addressed through examinations of what occurs beyond the writing classroom and program, in the realms of university administration and institutional realities. Since the development and administration of any new institutional resource must be arbitrated among various stakeholders—that is, university officials, program administrators, and potential teachers and students—a rich understanding of the institutional context is important. As a result, I began researching the wider context of Syracuse University, at first concentrating on how internationalization and the presence of international ELLs was currently perceived, and later researching historical moments and values surrounding internationalization and multilingualism.

While my earliest inquiries were centered on graduate student ELLs, establishing a fuller picture of internationalization and the presence of ELLs meant also studying how SU deals with ELL students at the undergraduate level. This was particularly pressing since the institution has geared a majority of its services for international ELL students to undergraduate populations (an imbalance that had fueled my decision to focus on graduate studies in the first place). In fact, a widely shared concern among the university administrators I interviewed was that graduate international ELLs at SU were extremely under-supported, despite the percentage of international graduate students being significantly higher than the percentage of
undergraduate international students. But since SU concentrated its resources for international ELLs at the undergraduate level, my study needed to widen so as to gain the most comprehensive insight possible on current approaches to internationalization and to supporting ELL students at SU.

I initiated this aspect of my institutional research by spending the next year of my study getting to know the people on campus that had a hand in supporting international and domestic ELL students (in their writing and otherwise). In total, I met with and interviewed fourteen university administrators (some currently employed and others retired). I approached interviews and other ongoing communications with the goal of learning about their involvement with current and past programs, their experiences working with ELL students, and what they perceived to be the most pressing concerns and the most ideal circumstances for which we should strive. Through these interactions, and after encountering Martha Davis Patton's important article, “Mapping the Gaps in Services for L2 Writers,” I began the productive work of gathering an overview of how SU historically internationalized and how it was currently supporting international and domestic ELLs. While my research on the current situation at SU is not as concentrated on assessing these resources for how they meet the needs of students, as is the aim of Patton, gathering this information is often the necessary first step for WPAs wanting to better understand the context in which they are working.

In addition to taking stock of the various resources afforded to ELLs at SU, however, I strove to gather information about current understandings of and approaches to internationalization and multilingualism. In the case of SU where the majority of ELLs are international students, this means researching how the aims of internationalization manifest,
including gathering facts about the institution (e.g., international student demographics),
surveying what resources international students are afforded, and attempting to get a sense of
the perceptions circulating regarding the presence of international students and any concerns
over ELL writing. My findings, furthermore, support the argument that studying the institutional
treatment of multilingualism through the lens of internationalization aids in revealing how
institutional values and missions shape the realities within which administrators, faculty, and
ELL students alike are intertwined.

This information—which is based on my analysis of university documents and websites,
as well as my interviews with administrators—also establishes an important backdrop for the
qualitative studies I present in Chapters 3 and 4. Thus, before completing my introduction of
how the aims of my institutional research evolved, I will next succinctly explain SU’s current
situation as it relates to internationalization and supporting ELLs. For the sake of brevity and
given length constraints of this chapter, I offer just some cursory explanation and analysis of
SU’s current situation and approach.

*Strategies for Achieving Internationalization at Syracuse University*

The trend to internationalize higher education is, of course, an initiative occurring across
many institutions in the nation. As globalization becomes more realized, especially across
markets and international business partnerships, institutional efforts become more invested in
promising an educational experience that prepares students for the new skills and literacies
required of a globalized economy. Syracuse University (SU) is no exception. My investigation of
SU revealed five main strategies (among some others\(^7\)) for achieving internationalization:

- Institutional missions and visions; programs and curricula; global partnerships; and the recruitment of international students.

SU’s web presence, for instance, is filled with language suggesting efforts toward making worldly concerns, audiences, and enterprises part of the institution. Its three-sentence mission statement names the university’s goal to “forge innovative and sustained partnerships across our local and global communities”\(^8\) (*College of Visual and Performing Arts*). There is explicit academic focus on “real-world issues” whereby “students learn to make their mark by preparing for the world in the world” (*Admissions*). The campus vision established by the recently departed Chancellor Nancy Cantor, known as “Scholarship in Action,” also establishes a global focus with its aim to “prepare our students for the challenges of the knowledge-based economy and our increasingly interconnected world” (*Office of the Provost*). Various departments celebrate that SU “attracts outstanding students from every part of the United States and the world” (*Office of the Provost*), and the “Student Demographics” section on the SU Facts page touts that 123 countries are represented on campus (*SU Facts*).

Enrollment and recruitment of international students is perhaps the approach to internationalizing that is most obvious and visible to SU community members. On a national level, attendance of international students in higher education is at an all time high, with more than 800,000 (3.9%) attending in the 2012-2013 school year, which is nearly double the

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\(^7\) These are fairly obvious and include hiring international faculty, hiring faculty with global and transnational interests, inviting guest speakers who focus on these issues, engaging in faculty exchange programs, etc.

\(^8\) During this research, there was a change in chancellor, from Nancy Cantor to Kent Syverud. As part of this change, the mission and vision statements that were originally collected, which came out of Cantor’s “Scholarship in Action,” also changed. Thus, the website for the Chancellor’s Office no longer has this mission statement. You can still find it, however, on program websites, including the one cited, Visual and Performing Arts.
attendance in 1990 (Institute of International Education). With the rise of international ELL students, not to mention increased admittance of domestic ELLs whose cultural and linguistic backgrounds are sometimes more difficult to account for, many colleges and universities are gathering and publishing facts on the kinds of linguistic diversity occurring on their campus.

While SU does not provide this information on its main “about SU” and admissions pages, information regarding from what countries international students hail and what languages they speak are processed and published by SU’s Lillian and Emanuel Slutzker Center for International Services (hereafter, Slutzker Center). The Slutzker Center’s most recent data analyses (for the 2013-2014 academic school year) show that 127 countries are currently represented on campus. Their calculations further reveal that 16% (n=3427) of SU’s total student population (n=21,299) are international, which is significantly higher than the national average of 3.9%.

Percentage wise, SU enrolls more international students at the graduate level. During the same time period, 9% of all undergraduates were international, while international graduate students made up 33% of the graduate student body.9

The administrator participants of this study recalled seeing a striking growth in the international student population eight years prior (in 2004). Ten years ago, one explained, incoming freshmen undergraduates made up only about 2% of the whole student population, while in 2012 the incoming class was 11%. Each year since, Syracuse has seen more national

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9 Although these numbers account for the linguistic diversity of international students, my research revealed that there is currently no estimate available on how many domestic ELLs currently attend SU (or have historically attended, for that matter). When I contacted Syracuse University’s Office of Institutional Research and Assessment (OIRA) I learned that although data was indeed collected regarding native languages through the application and admissions processes, there were currently no explicit efforts set in place to strategically collect, count, and publish this data. I submitted a request to have this information analyzed, but, unfortunately, OIRA is so limited in resources that they struggle to complete research and assessment required from the institution and requested by faculty, let alone for additional requests. What I gathered from my communications with them was that their situation necessitated that they instate an unofficial policy that no significant resources can be designated to assisting student research, and they felt my particular request would take up significant resources.
diversity in the student body. Applications for the fall of 2013 set a record number, with over 4,100 undergraduate international student applications. As numerous administrators recognized, although there is increased admittance from all areas of the world, the impact of China—given its continued economic growth—has been huge (Chinese students make up ~30% of all international students at SU). This is in line with the state trend, which reveals that SU is not alone in admitting increasing numbers of Chinese students. The top six countries sending students to study in the state of New York are China, South Korea, India, Canada, Taiwan, and Turkey, which corresponds more or less with the top countries represented at SU in 2013: China (n=984), India (n=496), South Korea (n=72), Taiwan (n=53), Canada (n=52), and Turkey (n=21).

After accepting admittance to SU, international undergraduate students have to show proof of funding the total cost of attendance for one full year, including fees such as tuition, housing, meals, books and supplies, among other expenses (for a grand total of $59,126). SU administrators celebrate having some financial aid available for international undergraduates but admit it is extremely limited. Statistics published by the Slutzker Center show that just 4% of undergraduate international students receive some kind of university assistance and 0.2% receive assistance from their home government, leaving a high majority (nearly 96%) paying out of pocket (including through student loans).

Graduate international students at SU have a slightly different financial situation, namely because some are granted the same kinds of graduate and teaching assistantships available to domestic students (22%). The US government financially supports 2% of full-time international graduate students; however, similar to undergraduates, the majority (72%) pays
out of pocket. Finally, 3% of graduate international students have financial sponsors from their home countries or other international organization (usually their employer or government agency) who arrange to pay for the students’ tuition and finances; in return, these students are often contracted to return home to work for the paying organization for a set amount of time. For instance, one of my former international graduate students from Turkey had a governmental financial sponsor and upon graduation seven years later (after earning both a master’s and doctorate degree), the student was contracted to return to Turkey and work as a college professor for fourteen years.

Once finances are in order, all students must go through a process at SU to be issued an I-20 form, which they need to obtain a student visa from US immigration. This occurs before their arrival to Syracuse, with the help of the Slutzker Center or English Language Institute, depending on whether students are full or conditional admits (more on this below). Upon arrival, most international students attend multiple days of orientation before being immersed in life at SU. Then, during their matriculation at Syracuse University, and depending on their unique situations and needs, international students may seek an array of language, writing, and other resources. In the next section, I provide a catalog of these programs and services available at SU. Each of the resources for international students I identify provides varying services and has complicated relationships and histories within the institution far beyond what I am able to detail here. The descriptions below, while necessarily brief, are important in setting the scene at SU.

*Resources for International and ELL Students*
Cataloging the various ways international and ELL students are processed and supported throughout their experience attending higher education in the US helps reveal the extent to which institutions are effectively responding to the effects of internationalization and to a more diverse student body. While I discuss in Chapter 3 some of the implications of how SU supports international and ELL students based on my interviews with administrators, in this subsection I simply catalog my findings. SU’s “For International Students” webpage (an offshoot of SU “Current Students”) does some of this work already, suggesting eight offices and programs to international students. What follows is their list verbatim:

Offices and programs of interest to international students:

- **The Lillian and Emanuel Slutzker Center for International Services** supports international students as they adjust to the Syracuse University campus and community. The center handles issues such as immigration regulation, passports and visas, insurance, employment, and travel.
- **The Office of Admissions** assists students with academic and other requirements international students must satisfy to attend the University.
- **The Tutoring and Study Center** provides tutoring services to students who need extra help in their courses, and hires students as tutors. Services are available for undergraduate and graduate students.
- **SU Student Employment Services** provides job training and employment to students.
- **The English Language Institute** offers international students concentrated study to improve English proficiency for academic or professional advancement.
- **Hendricks Chapel** is an interfaith chapel that offers support, services, and programs specific to a variety of spiritual or religious traditions.
- **The Office of Multicultural Affairs** supports and promotes the academic achievement, multicultural competence, social development, civic engagement, and retention of students of historically underrepresented racial/ethnic groups at SU.
- **The Division of Student Affairs** supports the student experience through a comprehensive set of programs designed to enhance learning, maximize responsible community engagement and promote the health and wellness of all students.

*(For International Students)*
There are two programs mentioned above that deserve some additional explanation since they are heavily involved with ELL populations and instrumental in ensuring their success. The first is the Lillian & Emanuel Slutzker Center for International Services. This center is the hub of internationalization at SU. It is the first place most international students go to upon arriving to the US, and it is the most valuable and far-reaching resource available to them. The staff at Slutzker Center assist all fully-admitted international students with immigration forms and documentation and make sure students are all set with housing, insurance, and registration, as well as with managing life and studies throughout their entire stay in Syracuse. The Slutzker Center provides a number of important resources, opportunities, and services to students: it takes on the enormous task of orientating new international undergraduate and graduate students each semester; it keeps international alumni connected and current students informed on important matters; it fosters community and dialogue around intercultural awareness and issues affecting international students; it provides cross-cultural training to programs across campus; it assists international faculty and departments intending to bring international faculty to SU for hire or to visit; and it advocates for international students and all-around supports them with any questions, problems, and crises.

The Slutzker Center accomplishes these goals with their regularly published newsletter; countless informational materials, including the published statistics used above; numerous groups, programs, and events; and always being available to students (and departments and faculty) in need. I list here some of their programs and events with very brief descriptions in parentheses: Mix-it-up (discussions and lectures on/for diverse topics/people); The Connections Program (mentorship opportunity between students); English Conversation Program (informal
dialogue between native and nonnative speakers); Orange Dialogue for Peace (activities and dialogue); Phi Beta Delta Club (honor society); Francophonie (student organization); International Education Week (events celebrating internationalization); and the Syracuse International Summer Picnic (informal social opportunity). Finally, while not set up in a programmatic fashion, the Slutzker Center also offers students on-demand assistance with reading and writing in English, especially with non-academic high-stakes documents (e.g., helping students understand their lease agreement or other contracts; helping students write letters to the government requesting an extension on their visa).

The second major resource for international students is the **English Language Institute** (hereafter, ELI), which is part of SU’s University College (a school of SU formed for adult and nontraditional part-time students). In short, the ELI provides intensive language support for approximately 250 incoming undergraduate and graduate international students per year. While connected closely to SU, ELI runs autonomously. During Syracuse University’s admissions process, and depending on how low their TOEFL scores are, some students are assigned conditional admittance. Conditional students are given two choices when coming to Syracuse: either study independently and retake the TOEFL by a set date or enroll in the ELI to receive additional training in English. If choosing the latter, students are required to take (and successfully pass) two to nine months of coursework at ELI before being considered a full admit at SU. Additionally, students who are full admits when they first arrive can self-enroll in ELI prior to or during attendance of classes at SU. In addition to language training, the ELI also has programs in place for peer mentorship as well as conversation partners and groups. The ELI communicates regularly with admissions and the Slutzker Center to ensure that students fulfill
any and all requirements. Further, ELI collaborates with departments across SU so that
curriculum is tailored to best prepare students for the specific disciplines in which they will
soon be immersed, and some departments even coordinate with ELI to visit and orient their
conditionally admitted students about the programs they will enter once fully admitted.

While they are limited to serving conditionally admitted and self-enrolling students, ELI
offers more personalized attention to these select international students and their language
and writing needs than any other entity at SU. Staff and instructors pick students up at the
airport, help them get settled and complete all immigration documents, and foster community
and cultural acclimation. Students then spend a significant amount of time per week in
coursework (20-25 hours) where they receive extensive one-on-one instruction from trained ELI
teachers. Including housing, meals, testing, and other institutional fees, conditional admits of
SU attending ELI could pay (usually out of pocket, including by loans or their financial sponsors
in their home countries) upwards of $17,000 per semester (or for a maximum of ~$41,000 per
year for two semesters plus the summer session).

To supplement SU’s list of resources for international students, my research revealed an
additional five resources commonly utilized by international students, particularly by those who
are English language learners. Again, I am not able to explain and analyze these resources as
much as each deserves and as may be of interest to WPAs. This is especially because even the
brief descriptions that follow may result in provoking more questions from readers than
providing answers. Nevertheless, even a cursory overview of these resources is important to
begin setting the scene of internationalization at Syracuse University.
The first additional resource I present, The Graduate School at Syracuse University, facilitates orientation programs and language proficiency testing services for international graduate student teaching assistants (hereafter, ITAs), who make up about 25% of all teaching assistants at SU. The Graduate School puts on an eight-day orientation process for all incoming graduate students, and the first five days are dedicated to solely international students. By the end of orientation, ELL ITAs are assigned a score for their language proficiency based on a variety of assessments: their TOEFL scores, taking the SPEAK test (a nationally normed examination) upon arrival, two video-recorded interviews with numerous SU students, faculty, and administrators present, and general observations made by staff during orientation. The scores assigned determine how many (if any) oral communication courses an ITA must take through the Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics program (discussed next). To check in with ITAs and build community, members of the Graduate School staff also meet one-on-one with students every semester and coordinate social events and programs open to all graduate international students (including partnering with undergraduate students for conversation practice). While the labor involved in coordinating these initiatives were shared for many years across the staff in the Graduate School, they recently (in 2012) created a position, titled English Language Proficiency Services Coordinator, where the new hire is now responsible for these programs and for developing new ones.

The Department of Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics (hereafter, LLL) provides ELL students with various writing and linguistic resources. As just indicated, LLL offers the courses required of international teaching assistants who are placed based on the scores determined by the Graduate School. There are three in total that serve this purpose. One additional course is
available for Engineering graduate students only. Collectively, these courses (which are all graduate-level zero-credit courses) cover oral communication topics such as cultural considerations, presentation styles, pronunciation, listening and speaking, and conversation.

LLL also serves a majority of international undergraduate ELL students with their six writing courses, two of which are substitutes for the Writing Program’s university-required writing courses. These three-credit undergraduate courses offer intermediate and advanced study in English, including study and practice in grammatical concepts, vocabulary, sentence structure, listening and speaking, as well as academic reading, writing, and research.

The Writing Center, coordinated and staffed by the Writing Program at SU, offers support in student writing through in-person consulting, instant-messaging appointments, written feedback via online submissions, and editing services via online submissions (for graduate students only). This last service, called the Graduate Editing Center, deals mostly with international and domestic ELLs (~80% were ELLs in Fall 2013), while the other three services engage more regularly with native English speakers as well. In 2013, approximately 45% of face-to-face appointments were ELLs, which—considering that this population makes up just 16% of the entire student population—suggests the Writing Center is a high-traffic resource for ELLs.

While ELLs at SU may receive initial support in writing from ELI or LLL, many seek assistance at the Writing Center during and after these programs so as to manage their writing tasks assigned in other courses, especially in their disciplinary programs.

The remaining two programs I mention below are certainly utilized by ELL and international students at SU, but both programs are much more involved with internationalization efforts than with supporting international and ELL students. The first, SU
Abroad, is dedicated mostly to providing opportunities to domestic students to experience education and internships outside of the US through their various centers located in Beijing, Florence, Hong Kong, Istanbul, London, Madrid, Santiago, and Strasbourg, with additional opportunities for study in more than 30 other countries (SU Abroad). This is no small program, as nearly 40% of SU students do in fact go abroad for part of their schooling (SU Abroad). However, there is a small group of international students who are brought to campus through SU Abroad connections and agreements; thus, this office works with and supports these students. Also of importance is the new associate provost for international education and engagement position that Vice Chancellor and Provost Eric F. Spina assigned in 2011. While this position is rooted in SU Abroad, it was designed in part to begin “supporting the global ambitions of the University’s schools/colleges and faculty and students” (Margaret Himley Named Associate Provost).

Lastly, the Moynihan Institute of Global Affairs is a research institution at SU that honors international scholarly projects and houses an array of international regional centers (including the East Asia Program, the Korean Peninsula Affairs Center, Middle Eastern Studies, the Maxwell African Scholars Union, the Moynihan European Research Centers, the Program on Latin America & The Caribbean, and the South Asia Center). It is one of the research institutions that emerged from the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs (which has internationally renowned graduate programs in International Relations and in Public Administration and International Affairs). In addition to these programs, Maxwell and its
Monynihin Institute also put on events that attract international students with interests in international research.¹⁰

Initial Implications of My Study of Internationalization at SU

While brief, my cataloging of current approaches at SU to internationalize and to support international ELLs begins to paint a picture of how the institution has come to grips with its internationalized student population through offering a variety of resources. Every administrator I interviewed, however, expressed wanting and needing to do more for ELL students (some even feeling confident about how that might be best accomplished) but named various institutional constraints preventing their realization. While eager to improve the situation, many were doubtful of change, pointing to their already full workloads, and the university’s tight distribution of resources. From a WPA perspective, however, these findings only scratch at the surface in illuminating the politics we may face when attempting to institute change. This is because truly understanding institutional realities has much less to do with merely being aware of the current demographics, mission statements, and programs available than with being able to locate, analyze, and rhetorically negotiate institutional politics and ideologies—the inherent values, biases, and power-infused systems that are not always apparent, including deep-seated beliefs about what kinds of English language use is deemed appropriate and fitting for a US higher education.

¹⁰ I want to briefly mention and acknowledge that at Syracuse University there are presently many other efforts to support ELLs—especially at the graduate level—within departments. While I focus on the resources that are the largest and most widely utilized, there are no doubt many other less-visible ways ELLs are supported on campus by faculty mentors, events, classes, and other initiatives at the programmatic and grassroots level.
In their chapter for *The Writing Program Administrator as Researcher*, titled, “Subject to Interpretation: The Role of Research in Writing Programs and Its Relationship to the Politics of Administration in Higher Education,” Chris M. Anson and Robert L. Brown, Jr. argue that researching our institution’s values is not only essential for new or aspiring WPAs but is necessary to the survival and advancement of writing programs. They further assert that

In most cases, the system of values that drives the institution of higher education explains how and why we conduct research as WPAs. Immersed in the culture of the academy, we experience breaches of our tacit ways of working and thinking only when some ideological conflict stands in the way of our usual administrative practice. Baffled why a dean or provost responds to a carefully designed proposal with indifference or resistance, we may fail to see how the wider political system of the institution determines and even predicts such a response. For us to ‘do’ research as WPAs, we need to understand...ways of researching—reading—our own institutions, their practices, their politics, and the disciplinary relationships that affect our work. (141)

For me, the idea of “reading” Syracuse University for its values and ideologies felt far beyond the borders of my discipline and department and outside of my methodological comfort zone.

While I had studied the people and programs involved with supporting ELL students, the ideological systems in which they were entangled within remained much less transparent and felt out of reach. I recognized that if creating new writing resources for students in my program and the university at large meant negotiating historically grounded and systematically organized materialities and values, then this knowledge needed to be sought, scrutinized, and shared. This led me to question, *How does one study ideological systems? If and when a suitable method is discovered, how do you extract evidence from those studies and present your findings in ways that may be considered compelling by university constituencies?*

I am still far from having an adequate response to those questions. But to begin exploring potential means to rhetorically “read” institutions for their values and ideologies, I
was initially inspired by research on translingual approaches to the teaching of writing. As a subfield of Composition and Rhetoric, research on translingualism evidences how higher education has historically demanded an English-Only approach to teaching and assessment despite the language diversity on campuses and the more fruitful possibilities that come with students’ diverse repertoires of language resources. Acknowledging the benefits of a translingual approach, scholars have argued for the need to identify and combat unidirectional monolingualist English-Only assumptions and practices that perpetuate a cultural logic deeming multilingualism as a deficit, not a resource (Canagarajah, “Multilingual Strategies,” “The Place of World Englishes,” “Toward a Writing Pedagogy”; Horner et al., “Language Difference”; Horner and Trimbur; Matsuda, “The Myth”; Shuck, “Combating”; Tardy, “Enacting”).

Given the implications that arise when institutions and their constituencies perceive language difference as a barrier, these scholars advocate instead for valuing and tapping into students’ translingual fluency. I consider this move to be incredibly valuable for how 1) it challenges academics in the field of Composition and Rhetoric and beyond to approach language diversity as foremost a benefit and a resource, rather than a deficit in students that we need to erase or fix; and 2) when applied pedagogically, a translingual approach aims to help students—whether monolingual or multilingual—to be more rhetorically adaptable to multiple and diverse contexts, including intercultural ones. For me, this perspective—which departs from traditional approaches to ELL pedagogy and institutional practices of higher education at large—is more conducive for working within an internationalized institution and for teaching writing to a multilingual and multicultural student body.
Methodologically speaking, many of these scholars have engaged in historical analysis, including John Trimbur in his *College English* article, "Linguistic Memory and the Politics of US English" and Bruce Horner and John Trimbur’s *CCC* article, “English Only and US College Composition.” Both take a postcolonial approach to historicizing the politics of English as the dominant language in the US writ large and in higher education specifically. Applied to the institutional research I conduct, and as is useful given a WPA perspective, research on translingual approaches not only reminds us of the politics of unidirectional monolingualism tacitly entrenched in higher education and beyond; it further implicates the need for explicit examinations of the history and cultural logic undergirding these deeply embedded assumptions (Horner and Trimbur 595). The ways a translingual approach acknowledges the historical constructions of ideology is what most influenced the final direction that my study took.

Starting in the summer of 2013 I began collecting and analyzing textual data from a variety of university documents and archives that dealt with or referenced ELL students and internationalization, including published histories of SU, university archival material, newspaper articles, webpages, and administrative records. I approached these materials wondering, *What moments, leaders, or programs historically shaped internationalizing missions and values surrounding multilingual and multicultural diversity at SU? How might this information be useful in making more compelling cases for administrators across the institution to support initiatives for changing the ways we understand and support ELL writing?* What proved especially important to my historical analysis of specific internationalizing moments at SU were published accounts of SU’s history (five volumes worth and spanning SU’s inception ~1830s through the
early 1970s) as well as archival material on one of SU’s earliest and most influential internationalizing efforts, its Syracuse-in-China Unit.

The materials I collected and analyzed help supplement the semi-constructed histories and systems my participants had at first provided. Furthermore, putting into conversation some of SU’s historical moments toward internationalizing with some of the concerns presently held by my administrator participants demonstrated that deeply held beliefs stemming from colonialist, nationalist, isolationist, and ethnocentric perspectives are inherently constructed within SU’s approach to internationalization and to coming to grips with its linguistically and culturally diverse student body. This supported my contention that even a cursory understanding of the histories preceding the current moment (and the material and ideological constraints that may exist) will be useful to administrators interested in transforming the kinds of support made available to ELL students. Historical studies of the contexts of our institutions can provide WPAs with site-specific material that we may extract, analyze, and then present as evidence for how and why certain practices and values are historically constructed and impacting current situations. Thus, more than enlightening the WPA researcher, they could potentially better arm the WPA with compelling evidence. This, I felt, made the historical aspects of my research worth pursuing and reporting on.

I want to be clear that my analysis of SU’s historical approaches to internationalization (presented in Chapter 3) does not explicitly point back to research on translingualism. Instead, the tenets of a translingual disposition act as an important backdrop implicitly driving my aims to uncover some of the assumptions that are deeply entrenched within SU and that affect how the issues of internationalization and multilingualism are institutionally perceived and
historically constructed. Thus, it is important to acknowledge the literature on translingualism as being an implicit scholarly framework motivating the current study.

My research of the ideologies undergirding various moments where SU internationalized could have no doubt been useful when administering Writing 600. Alas, both research and administration are messy, uncontainable, and—in many ways—unplannable processes that rarely occur in timely or linear fashions. However, because this part of my study provides important university contextual insight, I situate the results of this study in Chapter 3, as an antecedent to discussing Writing 600 in Chapter 4. While the presentation of my two studies informing this dissertation do not unfold chronologically, I imagine that this order will be helpful to readers in making meaningful connections between today’s administrative politics with yesteryear’s institutional practices and values.

The Purposes and Intended Audiences of this Research

More than anything, my approach to the research informing my dissertation is to present a praxis narrative based on my own local context and experience to explore the benefits of institutional research and administrative practice. Being new to writing program administration helped me see the value of sharing our experiences as WPAs, to document much needed materials, anecdotes, and analyses that aid in explaining what it means to draw on institutional research and administrative practice to begin engaging the politics and ideologies of higher education. Documenting WPA efforts helps to not only provide information to other WPAs who may find themselves in new territories, but it also acts as a way of assigning credibility to these initiatives and sets a precedent for approaching them in one way versus
another (ideally with resources and a sustainable plan and that contests the politics of monolingualism and remediation).

I report on and analyze my methods, experiences, and findings as a researcher of, not only within, my institution. The guiding focus of my dissertation, therefore, is to share a version of the stories, politics, and realities occurring at SU that I discovered as they relate to circumstances impacting ELL students. I intend my two qualitative studies to serve as examples of some of the ways we as WPAs may further our pursuit of navigating institutional ideologies and politics and getting students the writing resources they need. While I concentrate on ELL writing, my analysis addresses a full range of issues pertaining to writing and writing programs.

My study’s purpose and approach can perhaps be most aligned with the long and rich tradition in Writing Program Administration (WPA) scholarship of WPAs sharing their stories and providing strategies to others for navigating institutional realities. Among other facets of inquiry, this literature has revealed the practices and politics of administrative work, has situated WPA work within broader historical and material factors (especially labor conditions and complications), and has provided practical and much needed advice and strategies for newcomers (see especially Adler-Kassner; Bishop; Bousquet; Bousquet et al.; Brown, Enos, and Chaput; George; Harris; Hesse, “Politics and the WPA,” “Understanding Larger Discourses”; Malenczyk; Strickland; Ward and Carpenter). These works provide an abundance of information on important facets of WPA work (strategic planning; curriculum design; establishing shared pedagogical practices; first-year composition; staffing and staff development; personnel; program assessment; etc.). My study contributes to this scholarship by considering how WPA
issues relate to larger institutional realities and how WPAs might work to better support international and domestic ELL students.

My observations of monolingualist ideologies undergirding practices at SU, as well as my motivations to confront them, have played a major part in fueling this research. The design of my study and approach to drawing out implications from my findings is in response to what I have learned from research on translingualism and what I hope this scholarship will mean to my future administrative praxis. Again, while I do not often explicitly make connections to the issues addressed by scholarship on translingualism, I have been influenced by its arguments and so then have my approaches to research, administration, and teaching. Since adopting a translingual disposition to the teaching of writing is essentially calling for—how I see it—a major ideological shift in how language use is understood and handled, then the question of how to change such deep-seated ideologies is a big one. Currently, a lot of this scholarship has to do with theorizing language and even good practices in the writing classroom. Part of my interest in designing this study, however, is to take some initial steps toward exploring what happens when we as WPAs begin investigating the monolingualist English-Only practices and perceptions occurring within and beyond our discipline, programs, and classrooms—realities that stand in the way of more translingual and truly “internationalized” approaches. I’m curious about how change on an ideological level happens on a wider scale, especially since, admittedly, that is where I imagine the most potential for real change.

Applying traditions from WPA studies and translingual approaches to arguments in Second Language Writing for better addressing the presence of ELL students provides an opportunity to extend knowledge beyond classroom practices; it affords an occasion to study
how language diversity is understood and treated institutionally and ideologically. As such institutional systems and politics are often unknown to faculty entering WPA work, and as recent Ph.D. graduates are often tasked with WPA work in their first years of the professoriate (Strickland), the task of making transparent the complexities of monolingualist ideologies and institutional materialities in the context of WPA work becomes all the more imperative. While this study is situated and site-specific, it contributes to disciplinary discussions on the benefits and challenges of institutional research and offers a methodological model that other WPAs may adapt and apply to their own contexts. Further, it affords an opportunity to make transparent the potential roadblocks WPAs may face when working within institutional boundaries, issues all WPAs are likely to encounter and should be prepared to combat.

While my most obvious intended audience includes WPAs who may be considering (or are already) infusing research from Second Language Writing into their administrative approaches, I also hope that this study might be useful to all scholars of WPA, as all are tasked with negotiating complicated institutional ideologies and realities. Finally, given that this is a site-specific study, I also anticipate that university administrators and instructors of Syracuse University could be interested in my findings since they speak to past, present, and prospective realities in regards to institutional approaches to internationalization and to addressing the increasing presence of English language learners, some of the most pressing contemporary concerns facing SU and other higher education institutions across the nation.

**Overview of Chapters**

In the chapter to follow, “‘Looking Inward’ and Enacting Change: The Internationalization of Higher Education and Writing Studies” I reveal the need to examine the
diverse ways in which US institutions are approaching internationalization and coming to grips with the resources necessary for an internationalized student population. I begin by drawing on the literature from two disciplinary areas that address multilingualism and ELL writing: Composition and Rhetoric (including research on translingualism) and Second Language Writing. From my critical review, I argue that despite a scarcity in this scholarship, a group of important studies concentrate on explicit and expansive empirical research of what is actually occurring when the fields’ theories on good practices for instructing ELL writers are applied in local contexts. I summarize these studies and explain how my research extends their groundbreaking work. Finally, I turn to scholarship in Writing Program Administration as models for how research in Second Language Writing and Composition and Rhetoric might further engage in more institutional and administrative issues.

Chapter 2, “Methods and Methodologies: A Sociopolitical Approach to Investigating Administrative and Institutional Realities,” describes the research methods and design that informs this dissertation’s efforts to address the gap illustrated in Chapter 1. This chapter is just as invested in reflecting on methodological practices for institutional and administrative research as it is to explaining the research methods employed. I introduce and describe the methodologies of sociopolitically-inclined qualitative studies and praxis narratives, explore the benefits of infusing WPA research with translingual approaches, and detail my methods for data collection and analysis. I close by reflecting on the limitations to my study and discuss my approach to researcher reflexivity.

In Chapter 3, “Research on Current and Historical Perceptions of Internationalization as Rhetorical Tools for the WPA,” I investigate the potential connections between current and
historical realities informing the internationalization of Syracuse University (SU) as an example of the benefits that may arise when WPAs research institutional histories. First, I provide some of the current perspectives held by university administrators regarding how SU has internationalized and has addressed the increased presence of international English language learners. This chapter then explores some specific moments in SU’s history to internationalize, extracting deep-seated institutional values and perspectives that may be gleaned. My rhetorical analysis of historical and archival materials, as well as current perceptions of administrators across the university, help tell the story of what ideologies have historically constructed institutional materiality at SU, which include colonialist, nationalist, isolationist, and ethnocentric points of view. This knowledge and approach to institutional research, I argue, may be of use to WPAs as they negotiate the complex and highly political and ideological systems of their institutions.

To complement the institutional research presented in Chapter 3, Chapter 4, “An Administrative Account and Politics of Enacting Writing Resources for Graduate ELLs,” provides a more concrete and localized examination of the behind-the-scenes processes and politics of bringing about institutional change via programmatic efforts. I provide a praxis narrative of my experiences creating and implementing a new writing resource at SU, the aforementioned graduate-level writing course for international and domestic ELL students. From a WPA perspective, I catalog the concerns that were raised during this process and demonstrate that there are numerous issues beyond pedagogical and departmental matters needing painstaking consideration, including institutional and ideological concerns. Some factors, as is illustrated in Chapter 4, are influenced by longstanding assumptions that writing instruction for both
graduate students and ELLs is remedial work. Given the politics of assigning the label of remediation to courses and students, it is important to account for this possibility as our institutions continue changing in response to an increasingly internationalized student body. I end by highlighting pertinent issues that other WPAs might attend to when implementing similar courses for ELLs (or other kinds of writing resources) in their local contexts.

This dissertation concludes with Chapter 5, “Looking Outward and Imagining Change: Negotiating Institutional Constraints and Possibilities.” In addition to offering some general conclusions and suggestions for future research on internationalization in US higher education, I propose in Chapter 5 a transdirectional model for institutional research and administrative practice. This model aims to account for a wider range of institutional realities—including students’ complex situations; top-down institutional material conditions, ideologies, and ethics; as well as bottom-up practices, programs, and pedagogies—as sites for determining transformational possibilities that better address linguistic and cultural diversity in higher education.
CHAPTER 1

“Looking Inward” and Enacting Change:
The Internationalization of Higher Education and Writing Studies

The trend for internationalizing higher education is readily observable across the United States, as are the results of such initiatives. Higher education institutions, for example, have long been invested in adjusting their mission statements to reflect a global marketplace and to champion international relations and skills in their graduates, further resulting in efforts to globalize curricula, diversify faculty, establish international university connections and satellite campuses, promote study abroad programs, recruit international students, and encourage students to take up global issues in their research projects, theses, and dissertations.

Using the simple search term “internationalization” on the ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database reveals 366 records from 1990-1999, while the next decade multiplies nearly nine times to 3,163. Since 2010 there are already over 2,000 hits, projecting approximately 8,000 by the end of the decade. In the field of Education, dissertation titles appear such as Educational Benefits of Internationalizing Higher Education: The Students’ Perspectives (Hayle) and Internationalizing an Institution: An Emerging Model of Effective Leadership, Infrastructure and Cultural Factors (Davis-Courts). John Anthony Tambascia, in his dissertation, Internationalization of Higher Education: A Case Study of a Private US Research University, argues that the emerging and often decentralized programs across campuses in response to internationalization are both beneficial and problematic, calling for more attention to not only
the phenomenon of internationalization, but explorations of why internationalization happens and how it is sustained.

A reality of internationalization that writing program administrators (WPAs) are often negotiating is the increased presence of international English language learners (ELLs). Exploring the trend to recruit international students and how this affects the teaching of writing, Paul Kei Matsuda has historicized the phenomenon (“Composition Studies,” “The Myth”), marking 1784 as the first case of international students enrolled in US universities who were ELLs. He dates the first notable influx as occurring in the late-1800s (in response to the nation’s development of research universities) and the second influx to follow the World War (~1918) (“Composition Studies,” 644-645). By 1911, the first writing course was designed for ELL international students at the University of Michigan (“Composition Studies” 645). As the presence of international students and the development of courses increased, scholars and practitioners of writing took notice; beginning in 1955, ongoing discussion surfaced at the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) and in its journal, College Composition and Communication (CCC). Matsuda summarizes these discussions as being primarily interested in determining best approaches for working with international students, sometimes with the recommendation that these students are best served separately in specialized courses.

It is precisely this trend for separating ELL students—and, therefore, dividing writing teachers, pedagogies, and ultimately the fields of Composition and Rhetoric from Second Language Writing—that Matsuda takes issue with in his 1999 article, “The Myth of Linguistic Homogeneity in US College Composition.” His larger goal of his 2006 article, furthermore, is to
illustrate the “myth of linguistic homogeneity” and to assert that “the issue of language difference” needs to become “a central concern for everyone who is involved in composition instruction, research, assessment, and administration” (638).

Matsuda is not alone in his endeavors. There has been a surge in research in the field of Composition and Rhetoric on the effects of internationalization, particularly studies that challenge—as Matsuda does—commonly held assumptions about what constitutes effective language skills and that argue for better treatment of language diversity in the college composition classroom. Min-Zhan Lu’s 1994 essay, "Professing Multiculturalism: The Politics of Style in the Contact Zone,” exhibits an important shift in the field toward the explicit handling of multiculturalism and the inclusion of ELL issues in all classrooms. Lu insists in her article that the classroom be transformed into a place where students are aware and well-practiced in writing through a number of voices and discourses, thus placing students as critical negotiators of theirs and others’ many languages, cultures, and styles. Her argument is one of many to follow that focus on language and cultural diversity; in fact, there have been a dozen or so articles on like-minded topics published in CCC in just the last few years (since 2008), as well as numerous recent special editions in College English (Horner, Cross-Language), Writing Program Administration (Matsuda, Fruit, and Hamm), and Across the Curriculum (Cox and Zawacki) on the themes “Cross-Language Relations in Composition” and “Second Language Writing” (hereafter, SLW). A number of conferences further signal the widespread yet explicit scholarly attention offered on the internationalization of Writing Studies, such as Writing Education Across Borders, Writing Research Across Borders, and the 2010 Watson Conference (themed
“Working English in Rhetoric and Composition: Global-local Contexts, Commitments, Consequences”), among others.

My use of “Writing Studies” in the title of this chapter and elsewhere in this dissertation is intended to collectively represent scholarship coming out of both Composition and Rhetoric and Second Language Writing. While a majority of research on ELL writing has been conducted by scholars working in the field of Second Language Writing (a fairly obvious assumption, to be sure), in recent years, scholarship in Composition and Rhetoric has began focusing more on ELL topics. In fact, an important group of scholars have in recent years argued for Composition and Rhetoric to better recognize the multilingualisms existing on US campuses and have pointed to the problem of writing programs enforcing a tacit requirement for monolingualism through their assignments, pedagogies, and administrative practices (see especially Horner et al., “Language Difference”; Horner and Trimbur; Matsuda, “The Myth”).

These scholarly works explore the “how,” “why,” and “so what” of internationalization. Matsuda not only takes to task disciplinary and pedagogical approaches to addressing multilingualism in higher education; he also points to the discourse of higher education that ideologically demands English and English only. “The dominant discourse of US college composition” argues Matsuda, “has not only accepted English Only as an ideal but it already assumes the state of English-only, in which students are native English speakers by default” (“The Myth” 637). Thus, according to Matsuda, despite ongoing efforts to internationalize, higher education institutions in the US design systems, programs, and classrooms under the assumption that the existing student body is monocultural, monolingual, and mononational.
Furthermore, these institutions and their internal structures assume that monolingualist practices and policies are ideal despite the ELL student body.

His sentiments accord with those of Bruce Horner and John Trimbur in their influential 2002 CCC essay, “English Only and US College Composition.” The authors challenge commonsensical assumptions about the dominance of English in academic writing. They call for “an internationalist perspective on written English in relation to other languages and the dynamics of globalization” and argue that “a tacit language policy of unidirectional English monolingualism has shaped the historical formation of US writing instruction and continues to influence its theory and practice in shadowy, largely unexamined ways” (594-595). They argue that monolingualism, therefore, has a history and a cultural logic that permeates our practices in language and writing pedagogies. Horner and Trimbur historicize how naturalized assumptions of linguistic homogeneity influenced the formation and characterization of first-year writing, which paved the way for the collaborative argument in 2011 made by Horner, Lu, Jacqueline Jones Royster, and Trimbur in an equally important essay, "Language Difference in Writing: Towards a Translingual Approach." Although their entire document provides an extended explanation of a translingual approach, they offer this concise description of what such a disposition argues for:

(1) honoring the power of all language users to shape language to specific ends; (2) recognizing the linguistic heterogeneity of all users of language both within the United States and globally; and (3) directly confronting English monolingualist expectations by researching and teaching how writers can work with and against, not simply within, those expectations. (305)

The authors illustrate the need for seeing language diversity as a resource, not a barrier, and suggest that writing teachers move beyond homogenous Standard (and Edited) American
English, attaching more value to translingual fluency instead: “deftness in deploying a broad and diverse repertoire of language resources, and responsiveness to the diverse range of readers’ social positions and ideological perspectives” (308). In other words, taking a translingual approach to writing pedagogy “is about the disposition of openness and inquiry that people take toward language and language differences” (311, emphasis added).

Preceding these calls for translingual approaches, in his 2002 book, *Critical Academic Writing and Multilingual Students*, A. Suresh Canagarajah works to redefine critical writing and multilingual writing in a concurring fashion—that is, in multidirectional, mutually informing ways. He advocates challenging the ideological and socially derived dimensions of textual form and teaches multiliteracies from a critical perspective. He reminds readers to challenge their own notion of second language writing being a disadvantage and shows how multiliterate strategies actually put students at an advantage. Canagarajah argues that writing teachers must teach and strive for major ideological and material transformations rather than merely attending to "good practices." That is, he recognizes that as teachers and administrators, we need to consider not only potential assignments and courses that address multiliteracies; we need to also find ways to work with our colleagues in our departments and across the disciplines in order to address and challenge the ideologies that lead institutions to uphold monolingual standards and English Only assumptions. The theories on language and multiliteracies from Canagarajah have, therefore, further sparked the need for investigating and challenging the systems that support the cultural ideologies guiding the politics and structures of composition in light of language difference.
All workers of Writing Studies, the literature argues, should apply these kinds of translingualist initiatives. However, given the demands of this complex situation—where those of us in Writing Studies are charged with leading our programs, building community across campus, and facilitating dialogue and new initiatives in our institutions—those most implicated by these arguments are the WPA. WPAs that take serious the field’s trend for taking more translingual approaches to writing (in every discipline) in higher education must begin taking stock of the scholarship addressing the distinguished situations and needs of ELLs in the context of writing and the teaching of it. As I argue in this dissertation, furthermore, another important part of this work is to engage in institutional research (including gathering a sense of the current situation, perspectives, practices, and politics) and to investigate how institutional histories have systemically and ideologically constructed these realities. However, to ground this study in the current literature—coming from Composition and Rhetoric and Second Language Writing—I present in this chapter a review of some of the important research being done and arguments being made that WPAs may want to consider when aiming to make internationalization and ELL issues a focus of their administrative work.

Enacting Theory on Language Difference in Second Language Writing

As indicated earlier, Paul Kei Matsuda calls for moving beyond the “disciplinary division of labor” occurring between L1 and L2 writing and beyond “myths of linguistic homogeneity” by taking into consideration the rich literature in Second Language Writing (SLW), a field that has long explored internationalization and ELL writing. Matsuda contends that the result of shedding such divisions and myths necessitates that all composition administrators and teachers—not just SLW specialists—study and apply SLW theory and resist the long-held...
tradition for segregating ELL students into separate disciplinary knowledges and writing courses. As WPAs are incredibly implicated by Matsuda’s claim, in this section I will review some of the literature coming out of SLW.

More than offering a general summary of this vast field, however, I aim to review a smaller camp of studies that move beyond theorizing good practice to investigating what actually happens in practice—both administratively and institutionally. That I privilege here the few studies that explore administrative and institutional issues in no way suggests that the vast literature in Second Language Writing on theory and classroom practices is lacking in quality or importance; the works of this field are invaluable and have helped shape institutions, programs, and pedagogues alike for decades. Despite the immense research occurring in SLW, however, scanning the literature for examples of institutional and administrative praxis reveals few. While research on theory and pedagogy is abundant, it seems that studying the enactment of programs and institutional approaches (and the histories and values of both) in light of internationalization is currently a less frequently taken pursuit. Since the current study strives to provide a more administrative and institutional approach to research, the narrow group of studies that do adopt this goal are important to identify.

But first, to briefly exemplify the lack of attention paid to the application of theory into practice, we can turn to the influential research compiled in collections edited by Tony Silva and Paul Kei Matsuda such as *Landmark Essays on ESL Writing* in 2001, *On Second Language Writing* in 2001, and even their more recent *Practicing Theory in Second Language Writing* in 2010. These anthologies provide important themes that introduce the fields’ emerging theories over
time\textsuperscript{11}, but only one or two chapters from each that offer insight into the institutional and administrative realities, which are precisely the kinds of literature I argue that WPAs need as they begin exploring the new territories revealed with translingual approaches (I review these below). This trend, of course, is emblematic of what emerging fields do (as would have been the case for Second Language Writing in the 90s); that is, scholarly communities needing to establish themselves may find it more exigent to first make clear the theories and needs of the discipline before exploring and assessing praxis. It may also be indicative of the fact that theoretical contributions, in comparison to investigations of practice, are epistemologically privileged and more likely to be considered those worthy of being deemed \textit{landmark essays}.

Still, the approaches of most authors in these collections and, I would argue, in the literature at large, is to further theorize the relationship between theory and practice, studying theory as it relates to more theory and could potentially relate to practice and then calling for new theories and new practices. What is less apparent—and again, what WPAs need—are examples showing how these theories may be enacted in institutional and administrative practices. I attend to the rarity of a more institutional-driven approach because when authors do examine these contexts, the findings they contribute shed light on the current state in higher education for addressing the presence of ELLs in important ways, particularly given my aim to discover ways in which internationalization is approached and the kinds of challenges writing program administrators may face when attempting to enact institutional change.

\textsuperscript{11} For example, the essays in \textit{Landmark Essays on ESL Writing} are ordered chronologically and clear categories emerge that help highlight the thematic trajectories of the field during this time period: “The Early Years” (which includes themes \textit{Cross Cultural Rhetoric, L1 Comp Research, L2 Writers and Writing}), “Analyzing L2 Texts” (which includes \textit{Text Analysis, Reader/Writer Role, Purposes and Contexts, AC/EAP/General Rhetoric, Learner Goals, L1 vs. L2 Writing, Ideology, Reading/Writing}), “Understanding ESL Writers” (which includes \textit{L1>L2 Literacy, Feedback, Assessment, Assessment Design}) and “Toward a General Theory” (which includes \textit{Pedagogical Application}) (see the editors’ “Introduction,” xiv-xxi).\textsuperscript{11}
One contributing chapter from the *Landmark Essays on ESL Writing* collection, for instance, showcases practice within pedagogical, administrative, and institutional contexts. Ann M. Johns challenges the scoring procedures for entrance exams at a single institution and suggests a redesign of competency exams so that they are appropriate for an increasingly diverse student population (e.g., one that does not rely on knowledge of US culture). Johns reports on her interviews with one native-Vietnamese-speaking student regarding his difficulties in passing the written entrance examination at his university. Results from her case study reveal the dilemma that may occur when a student is competent in writing for his discipline but struggles to pass entrance examinations set in English departments. She provides useful analyses of her research participant’s experiences that make clear just how value-ridden and monocultural assignment prompts are and how important it is to rethink our assumptions about the kinds of writing with which we expect students to be competent. While it is not Johns’ purpose to focus on the actual experience of working to change conditions in her own department and institution, her chapter is supported by case study research that begins to examine and assess the practices occurring in specific writing programs and universities. It provides an example, therefore, of the kinds of critical analyses that may take place when assessing one’s institutional approaches to supporting ELLs with their writing.

One example from the *On Second Language Writing* collection that is particularly relevant to the current study comes from Trudy Smoke. Smoke’s praxis narrative of her experience negotiating change in her department helps illustrate ways in which other instructors and administrators might begin enacting new programs that respond to internationalization and the needs of ELL students. After taking to task recent changes to the
CUNY (City University of New York) system which has resulted in decreased admittance of ELL students, Smoke explains her site-specific political strategies for advocating more support for SLW in her college community. Smoke’s approaches include projects that resulted in using writing assignments that empower students by acknowledging their rights to their own language, linking ELL classes with discipline-specific courses, working with professionals across disciplinary divides, and applying for and receiving grants that support working across university contexts on issues related to ELLs. More specifically, she explains how her working with teachers across disciplines broadened the perspectives of both teachers (herself included), which resulted in creating alliances with aims at spreading awareness about the needs of ELL international and domestic students. Further, Smoke attends directly to the politics and economics of the situation, naming tuition rates as a potential reason for why international ELLs had an advantage in gaining admittance compared to domestic ELLs and acknowledging that one’s institution may not always support a teacher in her efforts once grants run out. Hers is an important resource for my study and for any researcher interested in discovering administrative and interdisciplinary practices to better advocate for ELLs in higher educational contexts.

Another set of model texts comes from what is perhaps the best example of comprehensive scholarship in SLW dedicated to investigating practices for working with ELL writers, specifically within the contexts of institutional politics. The 2006 edited collection by Paul Kei Matsuda, Christina Ortmeier-Hooper, and Xiaoye You, *The Politics of Second Language Writing: In Search of a Promised Land*, provides insights from nearly twenty researchers, administrators, and practitioners who work with ELL writers across all levels of education. According to the editors, this book takes on the challenge of negotiating the balance between
“theoretically sound and ethical instructional practices on the one hand and the demands of institutional policies and politics on the other hand” (vii). What is unique about this text is that the contributors explore not only what is going on when it comes to second language writing in educational contexts, but also what is not happening, and why.

Their focus on the material and ideological constraints facing professionals in the field helps to mark some of the points of contention worthy of further examination. That is, the contributors illuminate the importance of investigating institutional histories (Kubota & Abels; Vandrick), inter-departmental politics (Dadak), and the sometimes-conflicting obstacles that arise when pedagogues negotiate university infrastructures and material realities of the classroom (Norris & Tardy; Vandrick). Together, this collection of research helps professionals in SLW to better navigate “the intersection of hope and reality” (Kroll) so that we put into conversation good theory and pedagogy alongside the very real constraints we work through in practice. This guiding theme of the book—of striking a balance between what is real and what is ideal—proved to be a guiding force I often returned to as my study was developed.

One approach that resonates across many of these articles in The Politics of Second Language Writing is the significance of faculty collaboration. Kubota and Abels, for example, describe their experiences working with faculty across the disciplines to advocate for the enhancement of new support opportunities for international students and scholars. During their 2-year experience working toward change, it became apparent to them that providing facts about the needs of students and the kinds of support that could be created was not going to be persuasive enough to enact real change; instead, they worked together to represent ethical, historical, and political arguments in favor of adding resources in addition to the
practical ones. In other words, to make progress, they appealed to the missions and future success of the university and not just the needs of students. They provide the committee’s report on the support made available to international students for readers’ references, which included recommendations for the development of a number of courses and other resources.

The contributors to this collection each individually study single sites. One of the handful of studies of praxis across multiple institutional sites is the unprecedented 1995 study by Jessica Williams, “ESL Composition Program Administration in the United States,” published in the *Journal of Second Language Writing*. Surveying 78 higher education institutions for their ESL administrative practices, Williams found (among other things) that (a) a high majority of colleges had segregated ESL courses required by students identified as such, and most were prerequisites for (rather than alternative versions of) first-year composition, and (b) that most teachers of these courses are part-time workers and graduate teaching assistants not necessarily trained in working with ELL writers (163). She concludes that institutions ought to reevaluate the specific needs of their diverse students (and, hence, reexamine the university’s commitment to them) and further calls for better support for teachers, administrators, and staff that work with second language writers. Her multi-sited institutional analysis demonstrates widespread trends for the administrative practice of SLW that allow other researchers and administrators to understand not only what should theoretically be done, but what is actually occurring in practice on a national level. And her study, therefore, acts as an important model for how scholars are and could be exploring current conditions for the prospect of change.

Such a complicated endeavor—of studying what is actually occurring in practice in single
institutional sites or on a national level—presents various challenges because contextualized single-site analyses and multi-site surveys require both space and time, two material constraints not often afforded to researchers, especially if they also hold positions as administrators. Instead, the literature on SLW has reasonably been invested in considering deep and narrow examinations of a particular case or site, or, perhaps even more commonly, broad and surface-level issues and theories. Even the 2006 Matsuda et al. collection must rely on the work of various scholars in order to begin demonstrating both breadth and depth in the research on the political practices and structures informing SLW, while William’s study is limited in its contextualization of each institution surveyed since there are, simply, so many to cover.

Rarer works like those highlighted above (Dadak; Kroll; Kubota & Abels; Smoke; Vandrick; Williams) help the field to understand not only what should be happening, but what actually is occurring across higher education when it comes to institutional politics, which can exemplify for WPAs what may be possible in their own local contexts. It is to the WPA’s benefit, then, that these select works make evident the implications of actual institutional obstacles and explore possible reasons for why realities exist the ways that they do. Perhaps the common methodological thread in these more institution-focused studies is that they are empirically supported (typically by adopting a case study approach whereby scholars investigate a single site for administrative and pedagogical practice or student and teacher perceptions).

Albeit sometimes limited in scope, this scholarship reminds us that continued efforts towards improving conditions for international and domestic ELLs in US universities requires ongoing exploration and contextualization of current administrative and institutional systems. Systems in higher education worth exploring for their approaches to internationalization and
transliteracies, as noted in the introduction, include institutional histories, programs, curricular and economic structures, and ideologies. A logical first step in deciding how to go about change, then, is to gather some sense of how local sites are managing the internationalization of their institutions and in turn supporting ELLs (which I briefly attend to in my Introduction chapter). This data gathering is necessary; however, we as WPAs need to go beyond this initial institutional research to further examine institutional perceptions and histories, as well as the ideologies undergirding both. This work, I argue, can help WPAs better determine whether and how change may be possible and arm them with the knowledge they will need to present more compelling arguments to administrative authorities about what situated changes WPAs seek.

**Enacting Theory on Language Difference in Composition and Rhetoric**

I turn next to scholarship coming out of Composition and Rhetoric. Like Second Language Writing, research on enacting theory and examining practice is also less likely to surface. However, the field has also provided some worthy demonstrations of practical strategies for administration and pedagogy given issues of language diversity. As I will show below, these accounts include policy statements, administrative reflections, as well as institutional research practices aimed at taking stock of resources for ELLs, developing resources for these students and their teachers, building alliances across disciplines, and—through adopting a translingual disposition—combating monolingualism.

Before reviewing some of the important research conducted in Composition and Rhetoric that WPAs might refer to if interested in infusing ELL issues into their administration, I want to begin by recognizing another proactive contribution coming from college English and composition studies—that is, the publishing of official statements that show support for more
complicated approaches to language diversity. This move to call for major transformation in the practices that guide how we understand, administer, and teach writing so that we consider issues of multilingualism is seen as far back as 1974 through the statement on “Students’ Right to Their Own Language” and in the “CCCU Statement on Second Language Writing” nearly thirty years later (see also the 1992 “CCCU Guideline on the National Language Policy,” NCTE’s 1982 “Resolution on English as a Second Language and Bilingual Education,” and NCTE’s 1986 “Resolution on English as the ‘Official Language’”). Published in 2001, the “CCCU Statement on Second Language Writing,” for instance, makes explicit the fact that no single writing course, or educator, should hold full responsibility for an ELL to acquire his or her second language since language learning is a lifetime process. Further, it states that all writing teachers and administrators need to acknowledge the presence of ELL writers and to work towards professional development in issues related to ELLs and their needs. The document also provides more specific guidelines, such as having a maximum of 15 students in courses made up of ELL writers, providing support for all teachers in becoming knowledgeable about research in SLW, and making sure that any teacher of an ELL is versed in the field’s theories and best practices.

WPAs unfamiliar with the literature in SLW may find these goals daunting or inconceivable given constraints (material or otherwise) in their institution and department. Still, the statements signify the highest standard for which professionals in higher education should strive. At the very least, these policies may help to incite change by providing guidelines for institutions to refer to when adapting their program’s curriculum and teacher training. As they show, and as I demonstrated at the start of this chapter, experts have long argued for the move to transform university and pedagogical systems which devalue the language practices of
international and domestic ELL students and to improve the writing resources made available to them (i.e., see the work of Canagarajah, Horner, Lu, Matsuda, Trimbur). Central to this movement is the contention that language is political and ideological and that our understandings of how and why we teach writing to ELL students the ways that we do is at its core a cultural enterprise. However, this may be a difficult argument to make to fellow colleagues in writing programs much less to outsiders across the disciplines. Documented support for these ideals is needed and could be helpful in moving one’s institution in more productive directions, which is one reason why these published statements are necessary and potentially powerful.

Policies like those outlined above, however, are only enacted when departmental leaders, like writing program administrators, are inclined to take on such initiatives and then later backed by university administrators. Susan K. Miller-Cochran, in her “Language Diversity and the Responsibility of the WPA,” addresses this very prospect. Her chapter comes out of an award-winning edited collection, Cross Language Relations in Composition, edited by Bruce Horner, Min-Zhan Lu, and Paul Kei Matsuda. Miller-Cochran acknowledges the politics behind writing program administration and concedes to the complicated nature of SLW when she says, the more I understand about my students’ complex linguistic backgrounds and literacy histories, the more I question the long-accepted practices and assumptions of the profession. I question the ways in which we structure programs, place students into classes, design curricula, and prepare graduate students. (212)

As someone interested in change, therefore, Miller-Cochran makes it her agenda to address the issue of second language writing in her department. She suggests that to improve conditions for ELLs, programs might begin to 1) “Develop workshops for writing faculty that will help them
work with language diversity”; 2) “Make discussions about working with a linguistically diverse student population an integral part of TA training”; 3) “Begin hiring faculty with preparation for working in linguistically diverse environments”; and 4) “If such faculty are difficult to find, consider incorporating preparation work in a linguistically diverse classroom into a new faculty orientation” (218-219). Given her suggestions, she places significant responsibility on the WPA for leading departments and institutions to make adjustments.

Adding further insight into the role of program administration is the special edition of *Writing Program Administration* on SLW, edited by Matsuda, Maria Fruit, and Tamara Lee Burton Hamm. Here, arguments across the collection are made regarding the need for improved support, training, and collaborative opportunities for WPAs. Keeping central the material constraints facing WPAs, the editors acknowledge that “while [WPAs] are often expected to ‘take care of’ second language issues, they do not always have the necessary institutional support nor are they sufficiently compensated for such time-consuming work that requires special knowledge and skills” (12). Despite this acknowledgment, it is clear that the WPA is charged with much responsibility to better prepare instructors to work with second language writers (as we saw in the argument made above from Cochran-Miller). In the introduction, the editors argue that as WPAs,

> We need to prepare new instructors and retool existing instructors to work with an ever-growing population of second language writers in writing courses traditionally designed for native English speakers from privileged language backgrounds (Braine). We need to design new courses or modify existing courses to provide placement options appropriate for the changing student population as well as placement procedures that are sensitive to language differences (Crusan; Kroll; Matsuda and Silva; Silva). We also need to work closely with second language specialists on campus, who may or may not have the expertise in writing issues but who do have expertise in second language issues—the
expertise that WPAs and writing instructors alike could benefit from considerably. (11)

Gail Shuck, whose contributing article won her the 2012 WPA Best Article Award, complicates the heavy-loaded responsibilities that result when WPAs are considered at their institution a lone “fixer” of SLW issues. In her “Combating Monolingualism: A Novice Administrator’s Challenge,” Shuck provides an account of her many attempts to address monolingualist ideologies in her department and across her institution. She notes the conflicts that arose as she unintentionally took on sole responsibility for SLW issues, absolving the rest of the institution from making linguistically inclusive pedagogies, programs, and systems. “This,” she admits, “makes it doubly difficult for the university as a whole to move beyond a strategy of linguistic containment and to reconceptualize linguistic diversity in the academic community” (67). In addition to helping the reader understand the context of her institution (including how ESL students are identified and placed and what resources are afforded to them) and in addition to providing compelling arguments for expanding responsibility across the institution, Shuck also provides useful recommendations and strategies for administration (in the text itself and in multiple appendices). Her focus on monolingual ideologies and her sharing of strategies makes Shuck’s article and important resource for the current study.

Shuck suggests having more SLW specialists across campus, avoiding the sometimes automatic funneling of students into either ESL classes or the standard classes, developing faculty liaison programs aimed at creating advocates for ELLs across campus, and educating faculty in ways that “work towards dismantling the myths of transience and linguistic homogeneity” (68). Thus, her focus moves beyond the “CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing” in implicating not just writing teachers, but all faculty across the disciplines. Her
strategies for accomplishing some of these goals include adopting cross-cultural composition courses whose purpose is to integrate both L1 and L2 students and to educate faculty through publicizing these initiatives at every opportunity. Her advice is accompanied by her own anecdotes for implementing such programs, illustrating for WPAs some of the challenges they might anticipate.

For Shuck’s initiative in creating cross-cultural composition courses, for instance, she experienced difficulty in registering equal numbers of L1 and L2 students, struggled to promote these new sections, and had trouble finding qualified teachers for the courses. Her descriptions of these challenges and others provide interesting insight based on real constraints and practices occurring that many other WPAs might be facing or perhaps could face in the future. It is this sort of praxis narrative and empirical investigation of site-specific realities that begins addressing the question of how theory on language diversity is enacted in the field of Composition and Rhetoric. Her use of a praxis narrative to reveal potential roadblocks facing WPAs connects especially with my approach and style in Chapter 4 where I draw on my experience administering a graduate-level ELL writing course to highlight the array of practices and politics WPAs may need to consider when implementing similar resources.

Signaling again efforts for paying explicit attention to include theory and practice from SLW in Composition and Rhetoric, in a similarly themed special edition of Across the-Disciplines editors Michelle Cox and Terry Myers Zawacki explain that rather than designating this special issue to look “outward” (i.e., nationally or internationally), which they argue is the larger trend, they “turn WAC’s attention inward, to the diversity of L2 writers on [the authors’] own campuses and the pressing need for WAC to engage with second language writing scholarship”
(n.p.). Two particularly useful approaches to researching praxis resulting from this collection involves studies qualitatively exploring the perceptions of faculty on ELL students and mapping institutional approaches to providing support for these students. Jay Jordan and April Kedrowicz observe the ways in which graduate ELL writers are particularly underserved, a finding that, as indicated in the introduction, resonates with the current study. The authors examine the perceptions of engineering faculty regarding ELL writing and illustrate that while undergraduates in the engineering program receive writing support, their graduate students—who very much want and need more explicit instruction in writing—do not receive the same opportunities. Martha Davis Patton, a second exemplary contributor to this special edition, provides a “needs assessment” whereby she maps out institutional approaches for and resources offered to international ELL writers. Her research shows that at her institution there is little knowledge across writing teachers regarding SLW issues and a great need for faculty development in these issues; she ultimately provides a “gap analysis,” indicating the actual “situation/reality” of institutional resources in comparison to what would be the “ideal,” a methodological process in and of itself model-worthy and of interest to the WPA.

A final and important example of research that takes up the calls for enacting transformation given theories positing that tacit monolingual policies dominate in higher education is Christine M. Tardy’s 2011 aptly titled Cs article, “Enacting and Transforming Local Language Policies.” In line with the arguments made by Canagarajah and editors Zawacki and Cox, Tardy asserts that transformation begins at the local level, with not only the work of administrators, but of faculty and students. Through surveys and interviews with both students and faculty, Tardy notes that students do in fact seem to be drawing on their multilingualisms;
however, though some teachers include explicit attention to these issues, many do not provide opportunities of “translangauging.” She further exemplifies, though, that many more teachers are open to using additional languages in writing compared to what students think is socially and intellectually acceptable.

Tardy ultimately argues that we “need to equip teachers with broader knowledge of and strategies for addressing language in general and working with ELL writers in particular” (654). Her final recommendations, however, are aimed both to create good pedagogical and administrative practice as well as to lead members of the university to work toward taking stock of the ideologies and practices of their context-specific institutions in hopes of identifying what is happening, why, and what challenges to (or opportunities for) enacting transformation exist. That she focuses on monolingual ideologies as she researches her department is what makes her study particularly valuable to the current study and my approach to researching Syracuse University (see more on this in Chapter 2).

Research and accounts of practices such as those from Shuck, Jordan and Kedrowicz, Patton, and Tardy ground their calls for ongoing programmatic change with examinations of “inward” praxis—of what is actually occurring in their local, site-specific contexts. They provide new insights regarding the state of language diversity at their institutions, naming cross-campus collaborations, graduate education, and teacher training as three issues needing development. I want to draw attention to three themes that emerge thus far out of this review of literature. First, being an advocate for ELLs and for translingual approaches is at its core ideological work. To make changes for improving conditions for ELLs requires confronting widespread institutional beliefs about a) the English competencies ELLs should have (i.e., competence in
Standard American Edited English either upon entering or exiting a US college or university); b) who is responsible for ensuring students have these competencies (e.g., the student prior to entering, ESL specialist, writing program administrator, ESL teacher, etc.); and c) how and when such competencies are met and accounted for (e.g., students’ own initiatives pre and post admittance, entrance examinations, remedial classes, ESL classes equivalent to first and second year composition, writing centers, etc.). A second theme revealed in this literature is that when taking on such ideologies, collaborations across disciplines are often key to success despite the many challenges that are likely to arise. That is, working closely with other university administrators may be one of the most apt opportunities for challenging the values and ideologies that prevent change and for building alliances in support of new initiatives.

The first and second themes necessitate the third. In addition to their focus on issues pertaining to the field of Second Language Writing, the studies all have one thing in common: they are either authored by researchers working now or previously as writing program administrators or at least include an administrative perspective. This connection that can be strewn across the texts is perhaps the most obvious. As briefly mentioned at the start of this chapter, those individuals in the field who enact change within and beyond their departments are often those who hold administrative positions that ascribe the authority and afford the opportunities needed to negotiate institutional realities and values as well as collaborate alongside other faculty. This is what makes taking an administrative approach to studying institutions for their approaches to internationalization and to supporting ELLs so important.

As the editors of the special edition of *Writing Program Administration* on Second Language Writing explain, the two fields intersect in important ways and should be building
from one another more often. “To address the nationwide growth of language difference in writing programs,” the editors argue, “second language writing issues need to be fully integrated into writing program administration—both the institutional structure and the professional discourse” (Matsuda, Fruit, and Hamm, 12). I would extend the focus here on writing programs, however, and argue that research conducted at the nexus of Writing Program Administration (WPA) and Second Language Writing (SLW) also provide useful insights on the work to be done regarding language and cultural diversity in higher education. This approach, which necessarily relies on explicit research, moves beyond pedagogy and the writing classroom and into larger administrative and institutional realms. This is precisely the area of inquiry to which I hope that my current study will contribute. While WPA literature may not always include a SLW perspective and vice versa, WPA scholarship has engaged for a long time in studying departmental and institutional politics and realities in ways that benefits any administrator attending to issues of language difference on their campus. As WPA scholarship provides rich examples of how to approach, analyze, and talk about institutional research, I look to this research in the section to follow.

**The Role of Writing Program Administration**

The field of Writing Program Administration historically emerged in the 1990s after hard fought for initiatives to gain professional and scholarly status (McLeod); thus, even their rise as a field was tied directly to institutional concerns. With its research, WPA scholarship examines the many complicated practices in which WPAs engage and the multiplicity of interactions they face. On top of their research and teaching, WPAs are charged with managing their departments at local and institutional levels, dealing with (among other things) budget issues,
personnel, program accountability and documentation, curricular development, staffing, teacher training, student assessment and placement, physical plant, and technology support, not to mention faculty, staff, and student conflicts, illnesses, and other emergencies. WPAs have been referred to as managers, bosses (Bousquet et al.), agents of change (Howard), activists (Adler-Kassner), troublemakers (Fox and Malenczyk), researchers and theorists (Rose and Weiser, *Administrator as Researcher, Administrator as Theorist*), rhetors and politicians (Hesse, “Politics and the WPA”), and even “gypsy academics” (Schell), “unappreciated wives” (McLeod), “father, husband, ex” (Hesse, “The WPA as”), and “kitchen cooks, plate twirlers, and troubadours” (George). WPA approaches to scholarship are just as diverse, drawing on a full range of mostly qualitative but also quantitative research methods. Given the focus of the current study, however, two approaches and topics in WPA research are particularly useful and relevant: WPA’s practice for sharing stories and advice and for researching institutions.

WPA work is so complex, political, and situated that regardless of one’s background and administrative experience, all WPAs may experience challenges that cannot always be anticipated or prepared for. Still, with the aim to best inform those who take on WPA work, the field has responded by creating a shared knowledge on what WPAs might expect to find and on how they might negotiate issues (for example of useful handbooks see Brown and Enos’ *The Writing Program Administrator’s Resource: A Guide to Reflective Institutional Practice*, Myers-Breslin’s *Administrative Problem-Solving for Writing Programs and Writing Centers: Scenarios in Effective Program Management*, and Ward and Carpenter’s *The Allyn & Bacon Sourcebook for Writing Program Administrators*). Given that many first-time faculty find themselves as WPAs (Strickland, *The Managerial Unconscious*), and since seasoned faculty change institutions or
positions in their department that lead to administrative work, the praxis narratives and practical advice (including strategies for folks to adapt) that this field has produced are no doubt essential to many. Diana George’s edited collection, *Kitchen Cooks, Plate Twirlers, and Troubadours: Writing Program Administrators Tell Their Stories* provides perhaps one of the first larger works dedicated toward these ends. The fifteen contributors collectively showcase the politics of institutional realities and funding; share strategies for program development, approaches to interdisciplinary collaboration, and mentorship initiatives as models for change; and provide personal and professional histories as they intersect with what was often an unexpected career turn toward WPA work.

One contributing essay, Mara Holt’s “On Coming to Voice,” touches on an important theme found throughout George’s collection and the literature at large—that is, how to cope with the unfortunate and frustrating reality that WPA work is often invisible, un(der)appreciated, and not acknowledged as scholarly or professional in the university. Such a reality, she and others in the collection note, is especially troublesome since WPA work is of the most demanding positions in the field and arguably requires the most time, expertise, and skills. She shares her challenges in the competitiveness of administrative responsibilities and the sometimes degrading politics of it, including what felt like a deceitful act of defending writing program policies that were designed long before her position and with which she did not always personally and pedagogically support. Noting the estrangement from other faculty that sometimes occurs in the management position of a WPA, Holt names WPA work as "'identifying with the oppressor,' attempting to gain mainstream status by identifying primarily as scholars, exploiting the rest of us who value teaching and service as scholarship's equal" (40).
This identification, Holt and others in the collection demonstrate, can be particularly discouraging since WPAs’ positions—despite seemingly being ones of power—may not always afford an opportunity to have a “voice” when it comes to what their jobs entail or what change is possible by their hands. This is an important concern for any WPA aiming to transform her institution by applying scholarship from SLW. Holt reminds us of the already full plates WPAs have and the battles we may face prior (and in addition) to promoting new and more complicated understandings of language and student writing. Within discussions like Holt’s, and important to the current study, there has been debate over the extent to which WPAs have and should wield authority within and beyond their programs. Since I argue in this dissertation that we should indeed wield authority and take actions toward developing more translingual approaches at our institutions, it is important to review some of the arguments made in WPA scholarship for what needs to be considered when doing this work.

Edward White, in his influential essay, “Use it or Lose it: Power and the WPA,” argues that despite popular assumptions that departmental politics are beyond the control of administrators, WPAs do in fact have significant power, especially via the commonly held institutional value of improving student writing. Based on lessons he learned, White explains his motto: “recognize the fact that all administration deals in power; power games demand aggressive players; assert that you have power (even if you don’t) and you can often wield it” (3). In another article, Rebecca Moore Howard reveals her experience enacting change at Colgate University, describing strategies she and her colleagues employed and “instruments of institution-changing power.” She challenges White’s depiction of a more authoritarian and “heroic individualism” of the WPA (38), arguing instead for “collaborative methods for effecting
change without hierarchical competition, change that will itself transgress the discourse of hierarchical competition” (40).

Gail Shuck—who, as indicated earlier, is one of the few scholars in Writing Studies who centers her research on the intersection of Second Language Writing and Writing Program Administration—argues that determining how to best address the presence of ELLs on university campuses is an endeavor that should be tackled through a network collaborators situated across the institution, rather than this work being distributed to a few entities, or worse, to a single administrator deemed the ESL specialist. She stresses that WPAs need to build partnerships across the institution, striving to “[internalize] the value of language diversity” (“What is ESL?” 69) in administrators, students, and teachers alike. She argues that while these interpersonal initiatives take time, “relationship-building can be one of the most important things you can do to change the landscape for multilingual writers” (73). The research of Howard and Shuck help remind WPAs of the interpersonal and human qualities involved when seeking change as WPAs, and their approaches have informed how and why I conducted interviews with administrative participants when collecting research for this study (see Chapter 2).

Kelly Ritter also illustrates that WPA work toward implementing and organizing for change has long been in the works, naming WPAs as key agents in representing the needs of student writers as well as the knowledge and values of writing programs. She also takes issue with White’s argument summarized above, claiming that while White and others argue that WPAs often assume they are powerless, many WPAs realize and make effective use of their authority for change. Ritter extends this argument a step further, however, by asserting that
WPA’s power ought to be wielded not only within but also beyond the institution. To do so, she offers a narrative of her experience “developing agency as an administrator” by negotiating state-level authorities (47). She argues that cooperating with said authorities can result in changes that are mutually beneficial. According to Ritter, WPAs should have a stake in more public spheres and should exert *extra*-institutional agency.

In the famous essay, “Institutional Critique: A Rhetorical Methodology for Change,” James Porter et al. similarly call for more public discourse in the field, arguing for research at the institutional level. They believe that since institutions are “rhetorically constructed human designs,” institutional change is indeed possible with the use of rhetoric and by locating “gaps or fissures, places where resistance and change are possible” (630). They describe their proposed method, one that relies on postmodern spatial mapping and that requires researchers to “actually enact the practice(s) [they] [hope] for by demonstrating how the process of producing the publication or engaging in the research enacted some form of institutional change” (628). The authors point to WPA scholarship as coming closest to these goals but lament that WPA studies have not succeeded in any real and sustainable large-scale change, a claim that remains true (and one that the current study does not prove otherwise, for that matter). Still, the literature in WPA studies provides numerous important examples of researching an institution and revealing insider knowledge on the institutional systems and politics, from illustrating approaches to mapping out departmental budgets as they relate to the institution (Anson, “Figuring It Out”) to providing fully-fledged strategies for large-scale change based in activist methods (Adler-Kassner).
Similar to Miller-Cochran’s acknowledgement summarized in the previous section, a second conclusion this research helps to remind WPAs of is the danger of being exploited themselves when university power figures wrongly assume all responsibility for improving student writing remains solely in the hands of the WPA. While there is debate over the so-called heroic narrative of WPAs, there seems to be consensus over the need for working for change and a move toward seeing change as more within our reach when it is done collaboratively across departmental and institutional borders (a claim, as mentioned at the start of this section, is also uncovered in research in SLW and Writing Studies at large).

What informs this dissertation most, however, is the value of sharing experiences, for uncovering the politics, and for keeping our target on improving conditions that affect students. While my focus lies on addressing the presence and distinctive needs of ELL student populations, the research I conduct, findings I uncover, and arguments I propose are readably applicable to other issues facing WPAs. In fact, the work we do as WPAs, while incredibly situated and complex, is so worth sharing because the array of issues and material realities we each face are to some extent comparable to what other WPAs may also negotiate. Thus, WPA scholarship and its implications are far-reaching, no matter its specific agenda. This is why WPA praxis narratives are so worthwhile and productive for the field. As George put it, "It is through such stories, tied to the scholarship, research, and teaching that continue to shape our profession that we mentor each other and see beyond self" (180). These concentrations on institutional research and praxis narratives that the field of WPA offers are precisely what I imagine can spark useful discussion and new directions in research that addresses linguistic
diversity. Thus, these notions and the methods supporting them act as important models for the current study.

**Conclusion**

Since there is an influx of domestic and international and English language learner (ELL) students who use English as an additional language in US higher education, it has become increasingly important that writing program administrators and university officials assess the availability and effectiveness of support for ELL writers. The fields of Second Language Writing (SLW) and Composition and Rhetoric have long been invested in the advanced literacy and rhetorical practices of English speakers, whether English is used as a first, second, fifth, or other language. While this research has primarily theorized and called for good practices, a select group of scholarship guides the fields toward understanding the importance of exploring site-specific conditions and administrative praxis in order to better navigate possibilities for transformation when needed.

Methodologically, some of these rarer studies have drawn on praxis narratives whereby authors share their experiences discovering and negotiating practices for being more culturally and linguistically inclusive in their departments and writing classrooms (Shuck; Smoke; Norris and Tardy). Many have relied on case studies of their own universities and classrooms, analyzing university documents, student writing, curriculum, placement practices, and assessment practices or by interviewing students, faculty, and administrators across the disciplines for their perspectives and experiences identifying as or working with ELL students (Johns; Jordan and Kedrowicz; Tardy, “Enacting”; Vandrick). Fewer have engaged in needs assessment practices applied to their own institutions (Patton) and still fewer in multi-site
analyses of institutional resources, writing program labor distribution, and pedagogical
approaches (Williams). When studying the practices and pedagogies occurring in light of theory
on language difference, we have learned among other things, that actual teaching practices are
not always in line with theory on best practices (Canagarajah, “Multilingual Strategies,”
“Toward a Writing Pedagogy”; Johns; Tardy, “Enacting”), that ELL graduate students are
particularly underserved when it comes to receiving support in writing (Jordan and Kedrowicz),
and that change is perhaps most likely to occur locally and gradually when reflecting on current
practices (Tardy, “Enacting”) and striving to transform our ideologies surrounding effective
writing and teaching (Canagarajah, Critical Academic Writing, A Geopolitics).

Those researching in the field of Second Language Writing and Writing Program
Administration have illustrated that WPAs often share the burden of being the sole person
responsible for SLW issues on their campuses (Shuck); that on national levels, courses for native
and nonnative ELLs are still segregated, that labor is contingent for most writing instructors
working with ELLs, and that teaching training opportunities on issues in SLW are slim to none
(Williams). Calls have been made, therefore, for additional departmental reflection, training
opportunities for teachers, hiring and/or collaborating with SLW specialists, as well as the
development of ongoing revision initiatives for classes, curricula, and pedagogy so that theories
on SLW are accounted for and included; and that it helps to look inward for opportunities to
assess needs, collaborate with university partners across the curriculum, to engage in historical
investigations of our institutions, and to keep central a focus on material and political realities
within the structures and systems we must work (see especially Cox and Zawacki; Kubota and
Abels; Matsuda, Fruit, and Hamm; Tardy, “Enacting”; Williams).
These approaches are important because they account for the reality of institutional and administrative practices in search of potential roadblocks to and possibilities for transforming them to better address cross-disciplinary knowledge on language diversity. If transformation on departmental and institutional levels remains a goal for those invested in issues of SLW (which I argue is the case), then collaborations for reflecting on practice and the ideologies fostering them need to be made at the institutional, not just departmental or disciplinary, level. Focusing on actual practices and the current material realities of our local contexts, therefore, better prepares administrators and researchers to build alliances and begin conversations across university affiliates. Looking to the diverse research coming out of Writing Program Administration as models, examining institutions for their histories, ideologies, material realities, language differences, pedagogies, and other practices aimed toward internationalizing is therefore important in determining how, whether, and/or to what extent we might transform (when necessary) the resources provided, administrations adhered to, and pedagogies employed when teaching and working with ELL students.

The current project is driven by the above outlined assumptions—that the increased internationalization of US universities calls for increased reflection on and assessment of administrative and institutional approaches for meeting the needs of its culturally and linguistically diverse student population; that assessing the need for transformation necessitates that researchers and practitioners look “inward” at both their departmental administration and politics as well as their institutional historical contexts, material realities, and ideological constraints. More than promoting effective, responsible, and ethical program
design and classroom practice, models of institutional research are needed that demonstrate how to best navigate the congested intersection of “hope and reality” (Kroll).

While I make no claim for my research to provide complete answers to this gap in the scholarship or to single-handedly better situate us to enact that change, it is the purpose of this dissertation to extend efforts toward those ends. The rhetorical adaptation to US academic writing goes far beyond the agencies of the teacher and learner and into rhetorical, political, historical, and economic contexts (such as within administrative, institutional, and cultural structures and ideologies). Taking seriously Cox and Zawacki’s call to look “inward” and the notion that transformation begins at the local level (Tardy, “Enacting”; Canagarajah, “The Place,” “Toward a Writing Pedagogy”), my dissertation addresses the following sets of questions:

• On an institutional level, what can WPAs gain from talking to university administrators and studying the histories of their institutions? Applied specifically to my site at Syracuse University, what are the perceptions and most pressing concerns regarding internationalization and on ELL writing held by administrators? What are some of the insights we might gain from historically exploring how Syracuse University understands internationalization and the presence of international ELLs? How do the ideological forces undergirding current perspectives and historical initiatives to internationalize manifest in the ways internationalization is conceived and English language learners are supported?

• On an administrative level, what are the various processes and politics we should consider when striving to make change at our institutions in an effort to better address
the increased presence of ELLs? How might closer inspection of one case of enacting a new resource for English language learners, a graduate-level writing course at Syracuse University, help shed light on the politics of such a process? What strategies might writing program administrators employ when creating new courses or other resources, and what institutional, disciplinary, departmental, and student materialities and values might they anticipate having to negotiate?

These sets of questions are addressed in Chapters 3 and 4, respectively. First, however, in the chapter to follow I describe the methodological frameworks I applied and methods I employed when designing and conducting the multiple studies informing this dissertation.
CHAPTER 2

Methods and Methodologies:

A Sociopolitical Approach to Investigating Administrative and Institutional Realities

Addressing the presence and needs of international and domestic English language learners (ELLs) in US higher education institutions is a movement likely to continue for years to come, especially as internationalizing agendas forge ahead. Part of this ongoing initiative involves assessing the prospect of implementing new and different kinds of writing support resources for all students, including ELL populations. As articulated in Chapter 1, the literature in Composition and Rhetoric and Second Language Writing suggests that an important first step in accomplishing this goal is to look inward at our own colleges and universities so that we gain a better understanding of the interconnected histories, situations, systems, and constituencies that have a hand in internationalizing and in supporting ELLs in their writing. For writing program administrators (WPAs) interested in pursuing change, this means developing methods for researching the local contexts of our own institutions, not only to better understand the complex parts making up the reality of our colleges and universities, but to also uncover opportunities for enacting change despite constraints. As this kind of administrative participation and research is a rhetorical and sociopolitical enterprise, so must be the methods informing it.

My dissertation is one attempt to develop this kind of administrative participation and institutional research. My project aims to exemplify two approaches for institutional research
designed to give writing program administrators (WPAs) an advantage when seeking to enact change in their local contexts in response to the needs of an internationalized student body. I incorporate methods emerging from Second Language Writing and Writing Program Administration scholarship, including narrative, case study, and institutional research, in order to explore and contextualize internationalization in one private higher education institution in the United States, Syracuse University (SU). Researching my situated site at Syracuse University, I investigated the following: 1) what is the current approach to internationalization, how does this result in increased ELL populations, and what writing support is currently available to them (see the Introduction); 2) what perceptions, histories, and ideologies underpin the realities of the current situation (see Chapter 3); and 3) what processes and politics may be involved in developing new writing resources (see Chapter 4). While my methods and results are site-specific, they act as models that can be adapted in new contexts for future research and administrative action.

My data collection spanned between fall 2010 and spring 2014 and can be grouped into two sets of qualitative studies. The first set of qualitative studies was designed to better understand the rich institutional context in which I was working, particularly as it relates to internationalization and approaches to coming to grips with the increased presence of ELLs. This part of my study incorporates my findings of current perspectives with my analysis of the ideologies undergirding various movements toward internationalization that I trace in SU’s history. I conducted fourteen interviews with administrators affiliated with SU in order to gather a heightened sense of the current perceptions and concerns that exist at SU regarding internationalization and the treatment of ELLs. I use my findings from interviews as impetus to
further explore how moments in SU’s past may reveal what values and perspectives on internationalization have been historically constructed. In addition to my interviews, then, I draw on archival research to provide historical examples of how internationalization was treated and understood at SU (with some archives going as far back as 1923).

The second set of qualitative studies was conducted via the pilot of SU’s Writing Program’s first graduate writing course for ELL students (Writing 600) where—rather than examining pedagogical issues—I focus my investigation on the administrative practices and politics that can be gleaned. Data for this part of my study was gathered in the form of field notes, participant-observations, administrative documents, course materials, student writing, and interviews with fourteen student participants and one faculty teacher over two course sections during the 2011-2012 academic school year. While the two sets of studies can be seen as serving distinct roles, and while they are taken up somewhat separately in the reporting of this research (with quite a bit of data not explicitly presented at all), all data collectively and reciprocally shape my interpretations of the complex situation.

The remaining parts of this chapter unfold as follows. Over the first two sections, I more thoroughly discuss the analytical framework guiding my research of historical moments of internationalization at SU and explain the methodological approach I used for recounting my experiences negotiating institutional practices and politics through my administration of Writing 600. Next, I detail my approach to data collection and analysis for the dual set of qualitative studies informing my dissertation and provide a description of the participants I interviewed. Then, I synthesize the work of various scholars to present an argument for the importance of researcher reflexivity, especially for researchers adopting a sociopolitical
perspective. I reflect on my own position and experiences as a researcher, commenting on the complex and sociopolitical relationship between researcher and participant.

**Analytical Frameworks for Studying Internationalization**

Attaching value to language use in institutional settings, which is certainly true in higher education, results in an array of social, political, and ideological implications. These facets are thus relative to any study of the presence, understanding, and treatment of language diversity in higher education, as is evidenced by the literature in Composition and Rhetoric and Second Language Writing (see Chapter 1). To gather a sense of the values attached to internationalization and language diversity at SU, I take a sociopolitical approach to analysis, pointing to the rhetorics of and ideological underpinnings surrounding internationalization and multilingualism (Horner and Trimbur, Horner et al., “Language Difference”). My analysis aims to study some of the current perspectives and historical constructs that have shaped (and currently shape) the context of internationalization at SU. This analytical purpose applied to WPA work is not only useful for taking stock of values and systems shaping internationalization over time, but it also focuses research on illustrating ways in which the relations occurring among various constituencies are highly political, ideological, and rhetorical in nature. Adopting a sociopolitical approach to analysis, I argue, is necessary to better account for and address the negotiation between hope and reality (Kroll) when it comes to the internationalization of US higher education and the better treatment of ELL students.

I use the concept “sociopolitical” as an analytical framework guiding this investigation to capture the social and political nature of literacy (particularly as it exists in higher education) and of institutional practices and ideologies. Christine Pearson Casanave has argued for more
sociopolitically-oriented research in the areas of student writing, writing processes, and writer identity (“Looking Ahead” 86); the current study extends this tripartite call for research to also include sociopolitical investigations of histories, institutional systems, and ideologies existing in our institutions, those which we must face as administrators and which impact the experiences and perceptions of the very student writers, programs, and practices we encounter and empirically study. Of course, this approach WPAs may adopt to conduct institutional research is in no way specific to studying ELLs; a sociopolitical lens can and should be applied to examining the specific circumstances of the full range of students’ cultural and linguistic diversity on our campuses. In fact, while my study is focused on how internationalization is realized and how ELL students are part of that equation, the methods I employ, findings I discover, and arguments I make can readily be applied more generally to all sorts of WPA concerns.

To compliment my sociopolitical framework, I look to scholars such as Paul Kei Matsuda, John Trimbur, Bruce Horner and others for research methods geared towards historical analyses of the monolingualist ideological assumptions guiding our pedagogies and practices for approaching the treatment of ELLs in higher education in general and in the writing classroom in particular (see Matsuda, “Composition Studies,” “The Myth”; Horner, “Students’ Right”; Horner and Trimbur; Trimbur). This scholarship helps demonstrate the importance behind not only recognizing the current perspectives, material realities, and constraints, but also investigating and documenting the context-specific (and nationally occurring) histories that help shape cultural ideology and the resulting institutional practices that are privileged and normalized.

This scholarship drives my focus in Chapter 3, where I examine current and past
perspectives on internationalization at SU. My goal is to uncover some of the values attached to both present and past perceptions, which I argue is instrumental research for WPA scholars seeking change in their institutions in response to research in Second Language Writing and on translingualism. I reveal insights from participants regarding SU’s internationalization and handling of an internationalized student body and then provide my analysis of historical moments to internationalize in the context of Syracuse University to illustrate how the ideologies of SU’s past may be indicative of its present circumstances. For that reason, I theorize that this kind of institutional research can serve as useful background knowledge and even as compelling evidence for the WPA when making arguments for institutional change.

My analysis focuses on exploring how institutions can and should better respond to the presence of all ELLs and how WPAs can negotiate these ends. As shown in Chapter 1, researchers of monolingualism in higher education have argued that there exist deep-rooted English-Only ideologies in the US and in college composition classrooms. John Trimbur explores and historically traces the "linguistic culture" of the US, what Harold F. Schiffman defines as the "set of behaviours, assumptions, cultural forms, prejudices, folk belief systems, attitudes, stereotypes, ways of thinking about language, and religio-historical circumstances associated with a particular language" (5). As Trimbur explains, English Only practices in the US work as a sort of laissez-faire policy-making, which leads to the issue becoming privatized. Since there are not policies in the US that explicitly call for one language or exclude another, and since privatization can be far more persuasive than politicization, Trimbur asserts that the issue requires careful rhetorical examinations and strategic plans to remedy the problem.

As referenced in Chapter 1, in “Enacting and Transforming Local Language Policies,”
Christine M. Tardy studies a first-year writing program for the ways in which ideology surrounding language diversity manifests within student and faculty perspectives on what constitutes effective written communication. Interestingly, but not surprisingly, Tardy finds that despite an openness to multilingualism and the program’s explicitly stated emphasis on rhetoric and multiplicity, this first-year writing program’s dominant ideologies are often monolingualist, including teachers’ and students’ beliefs that “This is America” and we ought to learn “Standard English.” She notes that this belief is counter to how her institution illustrates itself through diversity initiatives (in things like “the university mission statement, website, convocation and commencement speeches, and even statues and paintings that adorn the walkways and hallways of campus”). To address the implicit monolingualist assumptions existing within writing programs, she explains that

One of the first steps programs can take toward changing such assumptions is to identify the nature of linguistic diversity within the institution. This process may take place through an institutional initiative, through an FYW-wide survey, or simply by instructors collecting information about their students’ language backgrounds along with other information gathered in the first week of a new term....Further, by reflecting on what they do and why they do it in relation to language, FYW programs can better represent their language practices and beliefs through active language management..... Making such connections more explicit, perhaps in handbooks or other official statements, can be an important step toward recognition of language practices and beliefs. (654-655)

Tardy’s research helps to illustrate the importance of studying, reflecting upon, and taking action (via new practices and policies) on institution’s treatment of language diversity, and impetus that similarly motivates and guides my own research at SU. My study, however, extends Tardy’s notion of local examinations to include institutional histories and administrative perceptions that exist beyond the confines of the writing program.

The qualitative study of internationalization at SU that I present in Chapter 3 is informed
by such perspectives; it strives to reveal for other WPAs how both historical moments and current practices are infused with deep-seated ideologies about the purposes of international pursuits and an internationalized institution. My investigation focuses in part on studying one institution’s history of internationalization and its administrators’ current perceptions and concerns, pointing when appropriate to the underlying assumptions and cultural ideologies that affect those realities, including (as I ultimately discovered) colonialist, nationalist, and ethnocentric points of view. I argue that for those WPAs who are interested in assessing and changing (when necessary) higher education so that it better addresses the language and rhetorical needs of its linguistically and culturally diverse student populations, such a sociopolitical focus with special attention to historical and ideological analysis is not only helpful, but necessary.

**Methodological Approaches for Studying Administrative Praxis**

When it comes to WPA work, I believe that applying narrative as a methodological approach is not only an important and credible mode of research, but it also puts WPAs at an advantage when it comes to negotiating their local contexts. Institutions are rhetorical spaces and thus require researchers of institutions to adopt rhetorical methodologies. And since the work of seeking transformation in higher education is both a social and political enterprise, I see narrative as offering a persuasive tool to use not only when addressing other WPAs, but when communicating the changes we seek to university administrators. Thus, my methodological approach in Chapter 4, where I examine the processes and politics involved in creating and offering new writing resources for ELLs, can be seen as adopting narrative as a form of presenting the fruits of institutional research.
Christine Pearson Casanave’s “Uses of Narrative in L2 Writing Research,” a contributing chapter to Paul Kei Matsuda and Tony Silva’s 2005 collection, *Second Language Writing Research: Perspectives of the Process of Knowledge Construction*, expands current understandings of the function of narrative in research on English language learners and their writing. Casanave outlines five distinctive approaches to using narrative in research: 1) metadisciplinary narratives, the stories of our fields; 2) narrative inquiry as a research approach, the analysis of human experiences as told through narratives; 3) reports of research as narrative, whereby researchers shape the written accounts of their research through narrative; 4) narratives as data, the use of participant stories as evidence; and 5) pedagogical narratives, the stories of teachers’ classroom experiences, students’ writing, and pedagogical designs. The current study both adopts and extends some of the approaches to using narrative in research that Casanave outlines. For one, as participant interviews and participant observation are major contributions to my research (see below), I engage in narrative as a form of data. Further, since much of my research aims to report on my own experiences as an institutional researcher and administrator, I also classify this dissertation as a report of research as narrative.

An important distinction of my research beyond these categories, however, is my study’s focus on administration. A function of narrative research that I would add to Casanave’s catalog, and the form in which I most align my own methodology in Chapter 4, is administrative narrative. Similar to Casanave’s understanding of pedagogical narrative—as examining pedagogical plotlines in order to interpret teaching-learning experiences, including seeing teachers as protagonists in the stories of curricular design, classroom encounters, and course
evaluation—administrative narratives can be conceptualized as interpretations of the protagonist WPA’s experiences negotiating the various situated institutional contexts in which she participates, including analytical and reflective accounts of her stories of administrative action. Aligning my qualitative case study of Writing 600 (see the Introduction chapter and below) to this approach, I refer to my methodology as foremost being an administrative praxis narrative.

Having narrative act as my method and methodology as well as be part of my data (i.e., the stories shared by participants in interviews as well as my own participant observations) indicates my valuing of human experience and interpretation as important and valid in informing scholarship. That the narrative is qualified further as a praxis narrative indicates the extent to which my focus lies in investigating actual administrative and research practice. Thus, while in Chapter 3, my study may be considered as theorizing about the benefits of WPAs engaging in historical analyses of internationalization at their own institutions (using my study of SU as an example), in Chapter 4, I provide a narrative and analysis of some of the actual practices and politics I experienced as the creator, administrator, and instructor of a new resource for ELLs at SU, Writing 600. Scholarship in Composition and Rhetoric has been dominated by *theory on best practices* for working with English language learners, and we have less research *examining what actually occurs in practice* (refer to Chapter 1 for my review of this literature). Second Language Writing, while focused significantly more on actual practice, has not as often attended to intersections with Writing Program Administration (Matsuda, Fruit, Hamm). Given these gaps, I attempt with my study to examine and recount praxis, reporting on what happens when we as WPAs attempt to institute the kinds of change for
which scholars in Second Language Writing have been arguing.

With my narrative praxis, I try to promote a more defined and persuasive description of institutional processes. Thomas Newkirk has argued for the potential persuasive power and validity of using narrative in research, challenging earlier disciplinary views that suggested narrative case study research could only be valued for their spawning of “promising ideas” (131). Newkirk illustrates that the narrative case study has since been acknowledged for its potential contributions to qualitative research through its “idiographic nature” and “capacity for detailed and individuated accounts” (132). He further asserts that regardless of whether research is based on quantitative or qualitative results, all research is essentially telling a story. Especially given the vast directions taken in my data collection and analysis, a praxis narrative helps to provide a more detailed and individual account of the kinds of behind-the-scenes political processes that so often remain opaque, including the ins and outs of creating a sustainable resource for students within institutional and financial constraints often unbeknownst to new administrators like myself.

Data Collection

As indicated at the start of this chapter, the research informing my dissertation is based on two sets of qualitative studies conducted over the course of three years and seven months (August 2010-March 2014) at Syracuse University. In total, the data consists of partial transcriptions of semi-structured interviews with twenty-eight participants consisting of teachers, administrators, and students; participant-observations and field notes; student writing and other teacher-student communications; and all course materials that resulted from the proposing, planning, administering, and teaching of two pilot sections of Writing 600, SU’s
first graduate-level writing course for ELL students; and hundreds of pages of university archives and documents, dating back to 1923. Again, while the data collectively informs each chapter of this dissertation (explicitly or not), the two sets of qualitative studies that make up the bulk of this research are mostly presented individually over two chapters. I discuss these separately over the next two subsections.

Data Informing the Study of Internationalization at Syracuse University

The data I describe in this section is used primarily to inform the findings revealed in Chapter 3, “Research on Current and Historical Perceptions of Internationalization as Rhetorical Tools for the WPA,” where I provide my analysis of specific historical moments to internationalize at SU alongside current perspectives on supporting English language learners (ELLs). For my analysis of these phenomena, I gathered institutional documents (historical and current) as well as the perspectives and recounts of programmatic histories from current and past administrators at SU. Given my disciplinary background and the focus of this dissertation, I place particular attention on how both—institutional documents and administrative perspectives—relate to internationalization and the treatment of ELLs and their writing (my goals behind and approaches to analyzing these materials will be detailed in a later section).

First, the current perspectives and recounts of programmatic histories from administrators at SU that I collected are a result of semi-structured interviews that I conducted with fourteen university administrators (some currently employed and others retired). These participants to my study were administrators who were situated across the institution but shared in having worked closely with domestic and international ELLs at SU. Interviews lasted between 45 minutes to two hours. Interview questions were open-ended and were crafted with
the hopes of discovering various administrators’ perceptions and experiences working toward the goal of internationalizing Syracuse University, particularly as these experiences and perceptions relate to the needs of and programs made available to ELL students, including writing resources. Thus, I asked questions about participants’ roles in creating or overseeing programs and courses and working with this student population. Further, in order to better situate and contextualize the departments and programs that are represented by the participants of this study, they too were studied online and in university course catalogs.

Second, the institutional documents collected include published histories, university archival material, newspaper articles, webpages, and administrative records. The published histories that I studied and refer to in Chapter 3 come from the five volumes of Syracuse University, which are chronological yet slightly overlapping historical accounts covering the institution’s inception through the 1990s. The first and second volumes, published in 1952 and 1960, were written by SU history professor, W. Freeman Galpin, and address what he terms “The Pioneer Days” and “The Growing Years” (collectively including ‘1830s-1960s). The third volume, which was based on a text by Galpin but revised and edited by Richard Wilson, covers “The Critical Years” (~1920s-1970s) and was published in 1984. The fourth and fifth volumes, authored by John Robert Greene (who received his PhD at Syracuse University and is a professor of history and the College Archivist at Cazenovia College), focuses on “The Tolley

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12 While my study is authorized by the Institutional Review Board at Syracuse University, I will not provide a copy of my IRB Exempt Authorization form (including my participant recruitment letter, consent form, and list of interview questions) in an effort to protect the identities of my participants. I also, of course, do not include their names or whatever programs, departments, or offices they are affiliated with in an effort to keep them anonymous. In fact, I chose not to use pseudonyms since they could potentially aid in identifying participants. I imagined, for example, that if various comments were collected under a single pseudonym, they could inadvertently reveal a participant’s identity, as other university administrators may be familiar with their perspectives. Alternatively, I synthesized the many comments made by all participants and then present information as a single “administrative perspective.” When I quote administrators, I vaguely refer to them as “an administrator.”
Years” (1942-1969) and “The Eggers Years” (1971-1990s), published in 1996 and 1998, respectively.

I also collected various articles published between 2000-2013 in *The Daily Orange*\(^{13}\), Syracuse University’s student-run newspaper that addressed the presence of international students. The university webpages collected consist of all general university webpages, including those belonging to the array of programs that work with international ELL students, while the administrative documents I collected include select University Senate Minutes as well as reports on the demographics of SU’s international student population processed and published by the Slutzker Center for International Services (see the Introduction chapter).

The archival material I collected consists of the main collection on one of the earliest and most significant programs that has resulted from SU’s internationalizing efforts: the Syracuse-in-China Unit, which began in the 1920s as a missionary effort in China but which has long since been a cultural and an international student exchange program.\(^{14}\) The materials available in the archives on Syracuse-in-China Unit are extensive and include a range of documents (from pictures and brochures to student work to administrative communications, reports, and policies). In fact, the materials for the Syracuse-in-China Unit were so vast that I limited my gathering and analysis to the main collection box held in Syracuse University Archives located in Special Collections at Bird Library. Of particular interest in this collection

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\(^{13}\) The following description of *The Daily Orange* is provided online at http://www.dailysyracuse.com/about: “The Daily Orange, the independent campus newspaper of Syracuse University, will publish 125 issues during the 2013-14 academic year with a circulation of 6,000 copies, a readership of 20,000 and online circulation of about 280,000 during publishing months. The paper is published Monday through Thursday when school is in session and 12 Fridays before home football games and select basketball games. The paper is distributed free to more than 100 locations on and around the SU campus, including Armory Square, South Side, Hanover, City Courts, Westcott and Nottingham business areas. The editorial content of the paper, which originated in 1903 and went independent in 1971, is entirely student-run.”

\(^{14}\) While not used explicitly in this dissertation’s discussion of findings and analyses, my archival research also included the collection on the English Language Institute, which officially began the 1980s as a stand alone educational facility affiliated with SU. The ELI—which aims to help international English language learners studying at SU improve their reading, writing, listening, and speaking in English—is discussed briefly in the Introduction chapter and Chapter 3.
were documents that revealed the purpose and mission of the program as well as documents that indicated administrative choices and efforts, including and especially the initial written proposal of the program and later versions of mission statements that were made public. These archival documents were useful in illuminating some of the rhetorics of international partnerships at the time.\footnote{15}

*Data Informing the Study of ELL Administration Practices and Politics*

Chapter 4, “An Administrative Account and Politics of Enacting Writing Resources for Graduate ELLs” is based on a second set of qualitative studies conducted primarily over the 2011-2012 academic school year with follow-up contacts to participants occurring through July 2013. The data informing Chapter 4 is a result of the study I conducted while designing and piloting the aforementioned graduate writing course for ELL students at Syracuse University, “Writing 600: Writing and Rhetoric for Advanced ELL Writers” (hereafter, “Writing 600”). This data consists of hundreds of pages of textual materials as well as more than nineteen hours of audio-recorded interviews. The materials assembled were many; however, since I focus most in Chapter 4 how the data gathered sheds light on the administrative processes taken and politics that arose, the most relevant proved to be my participant-observer field notes that date from September 2010 to June of 2013. My field notes were based on my participant-observations of committee work, classroom interactions, meetings with students, departmental participation, and institutional participation.

\footnote{15 There were a number of archives available that I did not access, which likely could have been relevant. For example, the extensive archives on the Maxwell School were not accessed nor were the Chancellor Papers, the Board of Trustee Minutes, the Ambassador Leadership Program (Management), the Global Affairs Institute (Maxwell), the Graduate Overseas Training Program (Maxwell), and the International Teacher Development Program 1960 (Education). Further, there exist several archives on student publications that I also did not access that could potentially have information that could have provided an interesting perspective to the WPA researcher at SU.}
Another set of data that I rely heavily on is the administrative documents (including multiple drafts of the course proposal; communications between writing program administrators and teachers; Writing Center Committee minutes, final reports and materials compiled on the piloted course; student evaluations; email correspondence with students and university administrators; teaching observations from other teachers).\(^{16}\) Finally, other textual materials consulted include curricular and pedagogical documents (including multiple drafts of syllabi, course calendars, assignment prompts, lesson plans, handouts, and readings).

Although data from student interviews is not often used explicitly, it indirectly informs every aspect of this dissertation, including my analysis in Chapter 4 of the events that took place and politics I observed during my administration and teaching of Writing 600. During this period (2011-2013), I conducted interviews with fourteen student participants and one faculty participant (not to be confused with the fourteen interviews conducted with SU administrators discussed above). As briefly discussed in the Introduction, for the pilot version of Writing 600, eight openings were available for registration per section, making the total of potential participants sixteen; however, in the spring semester two students dropped the course, leaving a total of fourteen students who started and completed the course (see Chapter 4 for more on this issue). Students were approached early on in the class and during student/teacher meetings with recruitment scripts and consent forms.

All fourteen students agreed to participate.\(^{17}\) Given potential concerns over the ethics of having students participate in my research study while enrolled in the course (rather than after grades were submitted), it should be restated that the study’s focus was not based on any

\(^{16}\) This study was submitted and approved by SU’s Institutional Review Board, and data from both sections that I administered and taught were included.

\(^{17}\) One student was only able to interview with me once. The other thirteen students were interviewed twice.
evaluation of the course or student. Interviews were focused on students’ backgrounds, experiences, and perceptions. I made efforts to remind students that they were not obligated to participate and that they should not discuss anything they were not completely comfortable sharing. The nature of the questions, from my perspective, did not impinge upon our relationship or classroom affairs; if anything, they served to foster communication and understanding. What I learned about students’ backgrounds and perspectives helped me be a more knowledgeable teacher, having a heightened awareness of their concerns, needs, and motivations.

Participating in the study meant that students gave their permission to be interviewed twice, for me to use and analyze all work and communication completed for the course, and to be contacted in the future for follow-up questions or conversations. Two 30-60-minute interviews were conducted with each of the fourteen student participants, one within the first two weeks of the semester and one within the last two weeks. Interview questions aimed at investigating the perceptions of ELL graduate students regarding their (a) cultural, linguistic, and educational background; (b) literacy narratives and writing processes and strategies; (c) knowledge of and experiences writing in graduate school and within the academic genres of their discipline; (d) experiences receiving and seeking support and mentorship; (e) socialization into their discipline, and (f) perceptions of the ways in which they might better be supported (see the participant recruitment script, IRB consent form, and full list of interview questions for this case study in Appendices B, C, D).

The fourteen student participants represent a range of national, cultural, linguistic, educational, and disciplinary backgrounds and identities. There were five females and nine
males. More than one quarter of students were Chinese (4), three were Korean, and two were Turkish. The remaining five students were Palestinian, Iranian, Japanese, Kenyan, and Indian. Their respective languages include Mandarin (4), Korean (3), Turkish (2), Japanese, Arabic (2), Kiswahili (1), and Marathi (1). Four were visiting students who were attending SU for only one or two semesters and the remaining participants were regularly matriculated students. A high majority (thirteen of fourteen) were international students, most of whom intended to return to their home countries upon graduation, while just one student was domestic (and had immigrated to the US at age seventeen). Five were studying for their master’s degrees, while nine were in Ph.D. programs (varying from first to fourth year doctoral students). The breakdown of students’ disciplines were as follows: four were in education, two in ecology, another two in public administration, and one each in finance, bioengineering, museum studies, child and family studies, entrepreneurship, and art history. When referring to students in this dissertation, I either do not mention names or I use pseudonyms that participants chose for themselves or that I assigned.

I also interviewed the professor who taught Writing 600 in fall 2012, which was the semester that followed the pilot version. The interview with this professor was conducted in the following semester, spring 2013. Although our conversation veered to mostly discussing the results of the course as well as the administrative issues that he encountered (namely advertising and enrollment concerns), the questions I posed were based on the same set of interview questions outlined for my interviews with SU administrators. Thus, we also discussed the instructor’s perceptions of and experiences with working with linguistically diverse students on campus.
Data Analysis

Drawing on the data described above, the first objective of my study is to provide examples from a WPA perspective on ways to rhetorically engage in institutional research. While there are many approaches to studying our university contexts, my research project looks to two. My first study (in Chapter 3) aims to examine how current perspectives and historical moments relating to SU’s approach to internationalization may shed light on the kinds of ideologies informing the complex situation, facets of institutional realities that I argue are critical to better understand as WPAs seeking to make arguments to establish much needed change to better address the increased presence of ELLs. In line with this same goal, in Chapter 4, I use my experience with administering Writing 600 to begin cataloging some of the many practices and processes we as administrators would benefit from being aware of as we attempt to work within our complex intuitional contexts to develop new writing resources for ELLs. I also hope that my research illuminates for administrators working to implement change on behalf of ELLs an example of what sorts of data gathering and analysis might be done to put them in a better position for rhetorically negotiating initiatives and accomplishing their administrative goals. For the remainder of this section, I provide more specific descriptions of the analytical strategies used and frameworks applied to the data collected for this dissertation.

Analyzing Data on Internationalization at Syracuse University, Past and Present

Analysis of interviews with SU faculty and staff. Prior to performing historical analysis of select internationalization efforts at SU, I analyzed my interviews with fourteen administrators affiliated with Syracuse University in order to tell the story of how SU’s current approach to internationalization and supporting ELLs are perceived by those who work closely
with this student population. The purpose of these interviews was threefold: 1) to better ascertain the rich contexts informing the practices of Syracuse University; to set the scene of the current “climate” on internationalization so as to draw connections with the historical analysis I also do in this chapter; and 3) to begin engaging in more cross-disciplinary conversations on issues facing ELLs at SU. A primary goal for conducting interviews was to gather information; however, I also treated interviews as intentional means through which I could begin participating and possibly influencing the conversations that were occurring regarding perceptions and treatment of English language learners (ELLs). I saw interviews as a means to build community and make connections across institutional divides, intentionally seeking out interviewee’s stances on and values attached to ELL writing and likewise intentionally making clear my own translingual perspective.

I must acknowledge, of course, that the nature of these interviews and my position in the institution as a graduate student likely led to my conversations with administrators (and they were indeed conversational) to feel slightly more formal and less about building lasting collegial partnerships. I was after all conducting interviews to inform my dissertation research, and as a doctoral student finishing up her program, my tenuous position in the institution made it unlikely for me to be seen as an ideal candidate for future collaborations. Further, the interviews were institutionally approved and required formal conduct (including signing consent forms); they were also audio-recorded and semi-scripted with interview questions predetermined. On the other hand, based on my participation in them and then later analysis of them, I see these interviews as being more informal, conversational, and collegial than formal. Most times, my list of interview questions were only consulted toward the end of our
meeting so as to ensure we covered everything within the spontaneous conversation that transpired, which we often had. This served analysis in the sense that both parties (my interviewees and me as interviewer) were engaged in the rhetorical pursuit of making arguments about our interpretations of the current situation at SU. That each of the administrators I interviewed is invested in or affected by SU’s internationalization, especially in working with increased populations of English language learners, the focus of our interviews turned often to discussing how new initiatives and cross-campus collaborations may assist in improving current conditions and values at SU—the kinds of conversations that may happen when administrators across institutional divides engage.

My analysis focuses on how interviewees’ testimonies represent the kinds of perceptions circulating at SU regarding how the institution has come to grips with internationalization, particularly as internationalization has led to a more linguistically and culturally diverse student body. It is also the case that the interviews provided historical insight that works to supplement my historical analysis (e.g., about when, why, and how programs for ELL students and international affairs emerged). However, more importantly, since these administrators had insider knowledge on what issues are usually expressed at SU, the interviews allowed me to gather a sense of the attitudes, assumptions, and ideologies of faculty and staff across the disciplines regarding internationalizing missions and the influx of ELL students.

Given the political and ideological nature of language and writing, attending to the beliefs informing our institutions’ practices is necessary for gathering a fuller sense of how and why perceived needs for change come to fruition or not. Thus, findings from interviews
provided insight into the sociopolitical realities of SU, institutional aspects that often remain opaque except to those directly involved with the situation and decision-making. Jay Jordan and April Kedrowicz, in their "Attitudes about Graduate L2 Writing in Engineering: Possibilities for More Integrated Instruction," used their interviews with engineering faculty to better understand the potential possibilities for implementing more writing support for graduate students. Discussions with faculty allowed the researchers to learn more about expectations for student writing and performance and faculty perceptions of current and potential resources made available to these students. Drawing on similar methods, I took an inductive approach to analyzing the data, reviewing the audio-recordings numerous times and taking detailed notes on and transcribing interesting and important comments. I then returned to these notes and audio-recordings repeatedly and reflexively to begin developing thematic schema to assist in analyzing the data. I further strove to be “materialist enough” (Horner, “Critical Ethnography”) in my analysis, allowing the constraints and positions of power to guide analysis. This process resulted in the development of themes, which were then used to further organize and compile findings to use in my discussion in Chapter 3.

The following themes emerged from and then guided my analysis: explicit/strategic vs. implicit/extemporized efforts to internationalize; bottom-up vs. top-down initiatives; programmatic histories and their politics; as well as a number of concerns interviewees made apparent, including the handling of and need for university resources, the lack of support for international students (especially at the graduate level), cross-cultural conflict, and the treatment and teaching of ELL writing. Each topic, especially ELL writing, had various sub-themes that surfaced during my analysis of the data. While my own interests, subjectivities, and
the very nature of my interview questions guided the patterns that developed from the data, the findings on SU’s current practices, values, and concerns when it comes to internationalization that I discuss in Chapter 3 come directly from the testimonies of participants, and, furthermore, what I did find was often unexpected and unanticipated. Finally, when I add my own observations and interpretations, I make this change in point of view apparent.

**Analysis of historical moments of internationalization at SU.** Constructing even a brief and selective history of internationalization at Syracuse University is necessarily limited for a number of reasons. First, this project’s analytical aim is to gather a general sense of some of the historical issues and moments surrounding internationalization at SU that might be useful in informing WPA initiatives; thus, in order for this undertaking to be feasible considering the various time and material constraints often facing WPAs, the amount of material gathered and then analyzed needed to be brief and limited. In other words, the methodological approach I took and data I gathered provides plentiful material for the WPA interested in better understanding and participating in the context in which she works; however, the amount of data collected and analyzed is not comparable to the kind of comprehensive historicization a historian would do.

Analyzing the histories of our institutions is important for WPA work because it provides insight into the ideological intricacies not afforded by solely analyzing the realities of the current moment. Ruth M. Mirtz argues, furthermore, that while WPAs may not have the time or resources to conduct (or even be interested in) historical research, there are a number of advantages that make this pursuit worthwhile, including learning a methodology that is useful
and privileged in the academy. Mirtz draws on Margaret Strain’s “hermeneutical” model, which she considers to be a “more interpretative and contextual version of historical research” (121). Strain, in her 1993 JAC article explains that without a hermeneutical approach to historical research, we run the risk of “gloss[ing] over composition’s politicized and ideologically grounded influences, neutralizing their powers and at times, omitting them entirely from received narratives” (218). For my analysis, I adopt a hermeneutical approach to historical research, and like Mirtz, agree that it provides a methodology by which WPAs can “conduct research where we have to do a lot with very little and...when we must fill in many blanks with what we know from events outside the [programmatic] documentary materials” (121).

As described earlier in this chapter, the selective narrative of SU’s history of internationalization presented in Chapter 3 is based on three sets of data: five volumes published on the history of SU, my sifting the archival collection on SU’s Syracuse-in-China Unit, and my supplementing the above assemblages of data with whatever historical information I was able to obtain from my interviews with SU administrators. While the triangulation of these multiple sources offers sufficient information for contextualizing some of the complex moments that occurred at SU regarding internationalization, the amount of research conducted for this historicization does not constitute the kind of extensive archival examinations needed to fully and accurately represent this slice of SU’s history. In fact, it is important to understand this part of my analysis as exploring historical moments; I make no claim that my analysis of selective historical moments represents a comprehensive historical understanding of how SU has internationalized or has sought, understood, and dealt with the increased presence of ELLs. Of particular importance, however, and as I discuss in Chapter 3, even locating specific moments
of internationalizing in SU’s past presents challenges to the historian since there has been no explicit means to account for, document, or historicize this facet of institutional history. This also made it necessary for me when engaging in historical analysis to have to extract from SU’s mainstream historical narrative some of the traces of internationalization that could be identified.

Although many single qualitative case studies aim to provide deep analyses of a limited amount of data or of participants, I aim with my analysis of multiple sets of data to strike a balance between breadth and depth. That is, while this study pulls from a large amount of diverse data, it is beyond the means of this dissertation to treat each data set as deeply as some case qualitative researchers would typically strive to do. Instead, the multiple qualitative study approach I have taken necessarily limits the extent to which data is analyzed. With this approach, I hope to provide a more realistic and obtainable approach to institutional research conducted by WPAs given the many constraints under which they operate. Much of my research gathering and analysis is typical of the kind of work that administrators inherently do\(^\text{18}\) as they become more familiar with and embedded in the historically contingent dynamics of a given institution. My work models an overt approach to using this kind of institutional research to explicitly inform the significant choices of university stakeholders whose consequences affect the growing ELL student population.

Once the histories and current perceptions were identified, in order to put them in conversation, I rhetorically analyzed this material for the ideological implications that could be

\(^{18}\) I acknowledge that the kinds of archival research I conducted may not be typical of WPA work. See Chapter 3, however, where I argue that this research is also important to engage as WPAs as it heightens our awareness of institutional realities and their historical constructs, which in turn better arms us to work effectively within those realities to see realized the change we seek.
identified—that is, I explored the texts and transcripts I gathered for the ways their content indicated ideological assumptions about internationalization and the presence of ELLs. As I am interested most in gaining an understanding of the politics and ideologies behind the institutional conditions I uncover, I rhetorically analyzed within the complex relationship between text/speaker, audience, and the intended effect on their communications, what common values are assumed. For instance, and to draw on David Zarefsky, when analyzing data, and given my study’s focus, I asked questions such as,

What does the text reveal about the effects its author might have been seeking? How does the construction of the text invite certain reactions and discourage others? What frame of reference does the text assume and how does this compare with the frame attributed to the audience? What role might this specific text play in a more comprehensive campaign to modify attitudes and behavior? (384)

In essence, rather than merely rhetorically analyzing instances that reference internationalization efforts, I strove to situate the semantic and ideological qualities of such references.

For instance, the ways in which we take up internationalization in our higher education institutions may signal cultural privileging and other norms. Christiane Donahue has critiqued internationalization in the field of Composition and Rhetoric for its limited applications. In short, she asks us to “Notice that we ‘import’ problems (the challenges of multiliterate, multicultural students, for example) and we "export" our expertise about higher education writing instruction” (222), and then she questions why, “We slip into discussing English as the de facto language for enabling the spread of research and scholarship, while the value, intellectually, cognitively, culturally, of being bi-or trilingual is apparently not taken into account…. If we tell ourselves to be careful not to colonize, we must be seeing ourselves as a
dominant group” (223). Connotations of import/export became useful interpretive lenses for analyzing the historical data and its underlying ideologies.

Analyzing Data on Administration Practices and Politics at Syracuse University

It is important to acknowledge again that it is not the goal of this dissertation to analyze Writing 600’s curriculum and pedagogy or to present them as models for best addressing the needs of ELL students. Instead, my focus and analysis falls in the realm of administration. I aim to trace the politics of administrative development in the era of internationalization, using the story of my situated experience as an administrator and researcher of my institution, Syracuse University. Since it is not the goal of this qualitative study to analyze pedagogy, I will not be engaging the disciplinary arguments surrounding these topics. Still, pedagogical implications no doubt play a part in the politics of designing and implementing any course, including Writing 600; therefore, at moments my own curricular and pedagogical reflections may surface in the praxis narratives and analyses presented in Chapter 4. Overall, I intend for my analysis to provide examples of knowledge and methodological strategies to be adapted (not replicated in the strictest sense) and used by writing program administrators interested in discovering appropriate approaches to researching their own situated programs and to implement new writing resources that address the specific needs of ELL students.

Analysis of interviews with students from Writing 600. While the focus of my study (on analyzing from a WPA perspective how we might engage with institutional histories and ideologies to implement change on the behalf of ELLs) means that I do not explicitly present my data from interviewing students, I also aim to ensure that each method I employ and claim I make takes account of what I have learned from ELL domestic and international students
regarding their experiences and perceptions negotiating the literacy demands that accompany higher education in US universities. Despite not explicitly reporting on my findings from student interviews, as my research is sociopolitically oriented, I continuously returned to the voices and perceptions of ELL students in an attempt to honor first and foremost their experiences, agencies, and desires in pursuing higher education in US contexts. For instance, one recurring theme that surfaced in student interviews that should guide administrators' rhetorical negotiations is the varied access to the course depending on the funding resources, perceptions, and support from the students' home country, which I further detail in Chapter 4. Thus, the unexpected directions this study took as it evolved led to me not attending explicitly to the vast knowledge I gained from learning about students, their backgrounds, writing processes, and perceptions. Nevertheless, the testimonies of ELL students inform each of my varying approaches to investigating SU's current and historical efforts to address internationalization and support this student population.

Given the diverse and complicated goals that informed the structure and focus of interviews with Writing 600 students—to better understand their literacy and cultural backgrounds, literacy narratives and practices, as well as their experiences with and perspectives on writing in English and getting support they need at the graduate level—deciding how to analyze and utilize interview data proved challenging. Furthermore, since the questions asked of students were purposely designed to solicit a broad overview of their writing practices and needs (and not, say, an in-depth reflection of a specific writing task or genre), I learned quickly that there were plenty of directions I could have taken my analysis.

I started analysis by reviewing the interviews repeated times without a given analytical
framework in mind, taking notes on observed themes or interesting findings seen across students’ interviews. This resulted in more than seventy pages of interview notes with pertinent sections transcribed. After re-reading the interview notes and again revisiting the audio-recordings to check for other possible findings, I ended up focusing my analysis on the distinctive politics they were dealing with as international (n=13) and domestic (n=1) ELL students and the various perceptions they had about how their experiences developing their writing could be improved. This implicitly informed my analysis of the varying aspects of this issue that administrators need to take into consideration when researching their institutions.

**Analyzing administrative materials from Writing 600.** A number of methodological approaches from Second Language Writing have influenced my analysis of administrative practices and politics. As reviewed in the last chapter, Ryuko Kubota and Kimberly Abels, in “Improving Institutional ESL/EAP Support for International Students: Seeking the Promised Land,” describe their experiences working across the disciplines to develop new support programs from multilingual writers, offering suggestions in addition to explaining the struggles they faced to implement change. Of interest to the current study, they illustrate that one obstacle they had to overcome occurred when reporting to higher institutional authorities; they learned it is crucial to not only show student needs but to point to ethical, historical, and political arguments in favor of adding support. In a chapter coming from the same collection as Kubota and Abels’, Christine Norris and Christine Tardy offer their reflections on teaching and researching a graduate English for Academic Purposes course. Their study, among other things, demonstrated the challenges faced by teachers of such a course given the diverse needs of students working in different disciplines, not to mention the diverging expectations of such a
course coming from students, teachers, and administrators across their institution. Such reflective and anecdotal accounts set the precedent for my current approach to analyzing my experience administering Writing 600.

After collecting the data (all teaching and administrative documents, including participant observation field notes), I began analysis by placing the materials in chronological order, coordinating the materials in a way that began to tell the story of the design, administration, implementation, and teaching of Writing 600. Based on this organization, I created a timeline of events and occurrences, and I also developed a more detailed document where I described in full each instance and offered reflections on potential themes and implications. As a result of those reflections, a number of salient themes or issues emerged which I then used to guide the story I told of Writing 600, including the importance of addressing the politics of remediation and the institutional constraints that may prevent administrators from sustaining the resources they fight for and implement. I focused much of my analysis on the constraints and possibilities I encountered during the administrative process.

**Limitations to this Study and Approaches to Researcher Reflexivity**

This study does not aim to provide an exhaustive account of internationalizing efforts, current resources, or systemic material and ideological constraints; further, I do not assume that this study will provide an all-encompassing account of student needs and administrative possibilities. More than anything, I do not intend with this research to argue for a course like the one I developed or for the pedagogical approach I adopted in it, despite my feelings that the course and my pedagogical approach to it were in many ways worthy of further examination and reporting. Instead, this study aims to provide much needed empirical evidence
on how internationalization translates into institutional realities and how writing program administrators might navigate the issues that arise as a result when working for changes to better address the inclusion of ELLs in higher education. Ideally, the inward-looking and site-specific exploration provided here will drive further reflection on and evaluation of other administrators’ situated institutional contexts.

Chris Anson has argued that scholars in Composition and Rhetoric should design research studies so as to prevent outsiders of our field from so easily targeting us as merely telling stories or criticizing us as not providing the kinds of empirically-driven studies that are more widely privileged across the disciplines. He argues that if we continue to rely on belief in our pedagogies and administrative decisions, whether theorized or not, whether argued from logic or anecdote, experience or conviction, we do no better to support a case for those decisions than what most detractors do to support cases against them. Instead, we need a more robust plan for building on the strong base of existing research into our assumptions about how students best learn to write (11-12).

Likewise, as far back as the 1960s, Lloyd-Jones and others had claimed that scholars in field were not sufficiently publishing controlled research that could produce the “hard numbers” that outsiders of the field demand, an initiative he suggested may be necessary to establish the field professionally. Richard Haswell has investigated the trend of replicable, aggregable, and data-supported (RAD) research within published literature of the field and argues that there has been a dramatic decline in published RAD research. He cautions members of the discipline of the detriments of a decline in RAD research, providing the following analogy: “As when a body undermines its own immune system, when college composition as a whole treats the data-gathering, data-validating, and data-aggregating part of itself as alien, then the whole may be doomed” (“NCTE/CCCC’s” 219).
A sociopolitically-inclined qualitative study like mine, which centers its analysis on exploring the histories, ideologies, and politics informing administrative and institutional practice, may be criticized for not designing its methods to be at once replicable, aggregable, and data-driven. As my methodological approach is foremost narrative, others may rightly consider it theoretical or administrative lore. However, given the aim of this study to provide models for future administrators and researchers to use when examining their local and situated institutional contexts and when working to implement new writing resources to support ELLs, I argue that my research methods offer an important and empirically-grounded contribution toward those ends. Implicit within my study’s design is an acknowledgment of the benefits of qualitative research, a tradition privileged in the humanities that does not aim nor purport to provide generalizable hard numbers, under the assumption that studies of social phenomenon cannot and should not be limited to quantitatively investigating what is deemed countable.

Accordingly, this study may be more generally classified as a sociopolitical qualitative study. It certainly includes the gathering of factual data, including the kinds of institutional information and demographics discussed in the Introduction; it is also supported with empirical research, including interviews with nearly thirty individuals as well as researching university archives and conducting historical analysis. However, my sociopolitical, administrative praxis approach lends something different, honoring most just how interpersonal and ideological administrative change is and recognizing that RAD approaches, while also important, cannot as effectively account for the rhetorical situations in which my study engages.

For those reasons, I do not engage the data that I collect in a precisely replicable or
aggregable way. Rather than seeing this as a limitation, I assert that given the nature of my research, my methods should not be readily replicable, nor is it necessary (or even possible in many cases) that they are aggregable. Since it is imperative that researchers and administrators treat their sites of inquiry and programmatic contexts as socially situated and as politically complicated as possible, conducting an exact replication of my study would not only be unlikely, it would be unethical. If we understand “aggregable” as a total assemblage of materials, then we cannot expect fully aggregable methods from WPA researchers whose administrative tasks and pressing circumstances may not allow for complete ethnographic accounts or the collection of an entire mass of institutional data. Instead, WPA researchers should resort to the methods and data gathering that are within their means and that directly respond to their goals with consideration to their current material constraints. Because my primary audience is other WPAs who likewise hope to transform their administrative practices and local institutional contexts through considering issues in Second Language Writing and by adopting translingual dispositions, taking a sociopolitical approach was a guiding factor to the current study’s methodologies.

I intend for my research project to offer examples for other WPAs of how we might engage in institutional research and what we might consider when implementing new resources for ELLs. I demonstrate the benefits of putting in conversation current perspectives with historical approaches to internationalization (Chapter 3) and then use my own praxis narrative of implementing a new writing course at SU to tease out some of the various political considerations WPAs may need to account for when doing similar work. It is important to concede, however, that the institutional realities that I negotiated during this study may not be
representative of what WPAs at other institutions face. For instance, while trends to internationalize and increase the admittance of international students occurs across the nation, not all institutions share Syracuse University’s high concentration of international ELLs and instead have higher percentages of domestic ELLs. I believe, however, that the nature of my analysis and discussions in both Chapter 3 and 4 may be informative to administrators working to seek change in the programs and institutions, regardless of whether they have in mind developing ELL resources. In fact, while I situate WPA work within ELL issues, the findings of both of my qualitative studies are more representative of WPA work in general rather than being specific to working on ELL initiatives. Still, I wish I had the chance to learn more about the domestic ELL student population at SU and their distinctive experiences, perceptions, and needs. Furthermore, I imagine that WPA research projects such as my own would also benefit from examining how their institutions compare with other universities, which my study did not attend to.

I also recognize that—although this study is based on my own real administrative research and experience—my position as a graduate student results in a number of limitations. My experience doing administration at SU was limited (in duration and type), and my transient stay at the institution meant I was not able to follow up on conversations and projects that may have better informed this project and possibly resulted in additional movements toward improving conditions for ELLs at SU. For example, while I was able to gain a heightened sense of the kinds of ideologies historically constructing the present situation at SU regarding internationalization, the constraints of my time as a student of Syracuse University meant that I was not able to begin testing out the kinds of arguments we as WPAs may make when armed
with this knowledge. I was also limited in that I could not engage my institution with the kinds of authority typically held by university administrators and faculty (especially by those who are tenured). While it is true that even tenured WPAs may struggle with gaining power in their institutions, there is no doubt that being a graduate student WPA limited what knowledge I could access, change, or make claim to.

I realize that WPA researchers who adopt methods and methodologies that attend to sociopolitical realms in empirical research must keep in mind that this work may not be seen as credible in their institution or in fields outside of humanities where pragmatist and scientific-based research may be privileged (“Looking Ahead”). Casanave defends the value of sociopolitically oriented research, arguing that scientific-based studies lend themselves to detailed and descriptive but apolitical story telling, and thus may suit a pragmatic, but not a sociopolitical approach by researchers. In fact, a sociopolitical approach to case study research asks questions that will aggravate proponents of the pragmatic agenda of much L2 writing research and instruction. (“Looking Ahead” 95)

She concedes, however, that “the sociopolitical perspective...will require intentionality, self-reflexivity, and forays into areas fraught with unresolved issues” (97). Casanave’s understanding of research in SLW, therefore, includes exploring sociopolitical aspects of texts and systems in addition to in-depth studies of individuals and the power-infused relationships within which they find themselves.

What is most important to take away from Casanave’s argument given the goals of the current study is the necessity behind attending to ongoing researcher reflexivity. While qualitative studies are celebrated for their attention to social relations and phenomena, they may be less effective and reliable when lacking necessary reflexive practices for rhetorically
situating methods and results. Reflexive research practices—whereby scholars acknowledge the limitations, subjectivities, ideologies, and politics informing and resulting from their studies—work to more accurately represent academic research for what it is: a situated, cultural, and sociopolitical enterprise for knowledge making. Further, interrogating one’s own positionality as a researcher is not only ethically important; it also provides a great opportunity to productively engage in that positionality.

As my data gathering process included numerous interviews with and conversations about linguistically and culturally diverse students, it was important to me to take into consideration (and then carefully negotiate to the best of my ability) the political and ideological implications that are imbedded in this issue, including my own positionality and ideologies, as well as my participants’. The need to be self-reflexive was most apparent to me during conversations with participants when I would bring up the tenets of a translingual approach—sometimes mentioning the term, other times not—as a means to explore with participants the politics of English and the teaching of standard academic American English writing in the institution and worldwide. I recall feeling hard-pressed to defend my arguments to one student about how he might consider drawing on some of his intercultural expertise and communication styles for the writing of an article he hoped to submit for publication. He related to me that such an idea was too risky and was antithetic to his motivations for learning English, which were to gain the power and credibility he needed to be a political leader in his home country. His sense of responsibility to not only learn but also perfect his English writing proficiency was clear. When I tried to acknowledge that his English speaking and writing was already very good, he stopped me and calmly said, “It is not enough for me to be ‘very good.’
In order for me to accomplish my goals, I have to be better than native speakers. The level is already tilted against me. My background, my accent. I have to be better.”

This instance, and many others, provided the kinds of humbling moments that in turn reshaped my overall foci and future interactions with participants. I found, moreover, that in moments like these it became useful to address with participants the fact that I am a monolingual teacher-scholar of Writing Studies with a mononational education, yet I am interested in exploring multilingualism and education from an international perspective. Acknowledging this reality helped to open up new discussion where participants—both the students and the administrators—would share details about their own backgrounds and experiences to help point out just how important these facets are to any work happening in today’s higher education institutions.

I am also the creator and teacher of the course I explore in this dissertation, a position which may prevent a less critical understanding of the course’s benefits and challenges, which—to some extent—was part of my reasoning for focusing instead on the practices and politics I faced as an administrator. I designed a research study with careful attention to learning of the experiences of others that play a part in the internationalization of universities, from students to administrators to workers and affiliates of the institution under analysis. While not always presented explicitly in my chapters, I aimed to forefront the testimonies of my participants in an effort to counter the fact that my own interests and positionality will unavoidably influence the ways participants’ perceptions were interpreted and are represented here. Finally, politically speaking, I am invested in the assessment and transformation (when necessary) of higher education and share a passion to pursue social justice across all spheres of
education, particularly through the lenses of rhetoric and writing. While cased in particular politics, this research agenda allows me to act as a collaborator and ally to others who hold similar goals, despite experiential differences (such as linguistic and cultural ones).

The methods applied throughout this study and that I have discussed in this chapter were under constant reexamination given the various limitations and subjectivities that I have identified here. Such critical attention and flexibility helped me to keep in mind how my position as researcher needed to adjust, revise, and/or recreate methods so that they are both sound and effective given the findings and new questions that were revealed.

Conclusion

As noted in Chapter 1, the literature on the internationalization in higher education in Second Language Writing and Composition and Rhetoric suggests that more research is needed which focuses on exploring the cultural and political realities facing administrators attempting to translate disciplinary theory into actual practice (Kubota and Abels). I attempt with the current study to extend such endeavors, exploring multiple contexts at a single institution and investigating sociopolitical, historical, and ideological forces and implications within administrative and larger institutional realms. Such an approach requires a complex method for discovering and analyzing the practices, policies, programs, and ideologies informing the infrastructures and decision-makers of universities that promote, negotiate, or sometimes deny necessary writing and other resources for ELL students. Moreover, understanding the roles and perceptions of the various individuals involved—including ELL students, second language writing experts, and teachers and administrators across the university—is also key.

This research study was designed to explore how one institution, Syracuse University,
has historically made efforts to internationalize and how, over time, its mission, programmatic and administrative practices attempted to come to grips with such a major institutional and ideological transition. I further narrowed my investigation to focus on one instance of instituting new resources for ELLs, in this case a graduate-level writing course for ELL students. This examination offers administrators a more concrete sense of the kinds of programs, practices, and politics currently needing attention when working to better address internationalization and to better support ELLs at this situated site of inquiry and beyond. The results are synthesized in hopes of developing a complex understanding of the histories, material realities, and ideologies that inform the administrative process and implementation of systems relating to internationalization, including the development of literacy and other resources for ELL writers.
CHAPTER 3

Current and Historical Perceptions of Internationalization as Rhetorical Tools for the WPA

Internationalizing agendas in higher education—including the increased cultural and linguistic diversity that results—presents various benefits as well as challenges. This reality demands that colleges and universities discover new approaches for coming to grips with a more internationalized student population. As discussed in Chapter 1, when seeking any sort of institutional change, whether in response to the needs of a diverse student body or not, writing program administrators (WPAs) must negotiate complex systems, constraints, and possibilities, which are all inextricably tied to their institutional contexts and politics. Because these systems (which are material and ideological) are often power-infused and not always apparent to administrators, WPA scholars have reported on an array of institutional politics that new and seasoned WPAs are likely to encounter (Anson and Brown; Brown and Enos; Fox and Malenczyk; Myers-Breslin, Rose and Weiser, Administrator as Researcher, Administrator as Theorist), naming especially the importance of better understanding the local contexts in which WPAs are working (Tardy, “Enacting”; Matsuda, Fruit, and Hamm) and building relationships across campus (Roach, Shuck). As Stephanie Roach argues, in her contributing chapter to The Promise and Perils of Writing Program Administration, for example, it is through involvement with as many stakeholders and conversations that WPAs will “meet the people and learn the language and get familiar with the history and find the policies that help [us] win material and moral victories for the writing program” (112).
As discussed in Chapter 2, I take seriously this value of researching our institutions, initiating discussions, and building relationships with administrators across campus. I have often said, as I do in my Introduction to this dissertation, that I see my professional identity as a WPA in the field of Writing Studies as being both a researcher in and of my institution. But what appeals to me most about the potential of institutional research—given my focus on internationalization and ELLs—is gleaning a better sense of the institutional cultures in which WPAs are participating, especially the values and ideologies surrounding language diversity that may either propel or impede the kinds of change we seek to make. Through my interviews with fourteen administrators, a fairly obvious yet important finding I discovered early on is that every matter, system, and situation at Syracuse University (SU) is tightly entangled within a rich institutional history, and that imbedded within this history are the institution’s values, including ideologies affecting how internationalization is perceived and how English language learners (ELLs) are treated.

As implied by Roach, seeking a historical perspective as a WPA researcher does not necessarily remove her from those relationship-building endeavors and place her into the archives. In part, history can and should be gleaned through communicating and building relationships with other administrators. And, in fact, institutional histories, especially regarding the presence of ELLs, international or otherwise, may not often be documented or accessible; thus, gaining these insights must necessarily come from faculty and other workers of the university as well as from extracting this point of view from sources seemingly not related (Mirtz).
However, in addition to gaining current and historical institutional information from cross-disciplinary conversations and collaborations, my own experience led me to understand the importance of gaining a historical perspective through institutional documents and archives. Values about internationalization and language diversity are deeply imbedded and historically constructed. With more explicit examinations of the various historical moments that shaped our institutions—through gathering data, talking with other administrators, and engaging in archival research—I believe that WPAs will be better prepared to make the compelling arguments we need to support both the ideological and material changes we seek. This is because only through explicit analysis of how institutions were historically molded will we gain fuller understandings of the systems, values, and cultures within which we currently work. Having this knowledge can then translate to adapting new practices, pedagogies, and curricula that contextually fit not only the institution but its internationalized students’ specific situations and needs.

In order to demonstrate the kinds of discoveries we may find when researching our colleges and universities, this chapter provides analysis of institutional data that I collected at Syracuse University (see Chapter 2 for a more detailed description of my methods and methodologies). Because knowing the current realities of our institutions is essential to making sense of their histories, and vice versa, I will present in this chapter findings from my research that speak to both current and historical situations at SU as they relate to internationalization and supporting ELLs. I begin by discussing administrators’ perspectives on the state of internationalization at SU so as to illustrate some of the current issues and concerns circulating. With the current perceptions of SU regarding internationalization and the presence of ELLs
contextualized, I then present findings from my archival-based research of SU. My analysis of both current perceptions and historical moments reveals that underpinning SU’s present situation are the kinds of nationalistic, isolationist, and ethnocentric points of view that WPAs may need to be aware of and prepared to combat when seeking to transform their programs and institutions.

**Current Perspectives on Internationalization**

Although the current chapter is most focused on how institutional histories pertain to the WPA, understanding the present context is key to interpreting its past. In this section I present a brief analysis of the current “climate” on internationalization at SU—that is, the current perspectives and tensions floating around this issue. To do so, I outline some of the present understandings of SU’s approach to internationalization, based on a university newspaper publication alongside my interviews with fourteen administrators at SU, and then briefly tease out some of the implications that emerged during my analysis. Previously in this dissertation (see the Introduction), I provide an overview of some of SU’s trends to internationalize, discussing the presence of international students and cataloging the kinds of resources afforded to ELLs at SU. While gathering facts such as these is an important first step when contextualizing the current situation at any institution, it is through an analysis of constituencies’ perceptions that WPAs can locate the sometimes more challenging roadblocks to institutional change: institutional values and ideologies. Since my participants are administrators that work closely with ELLs, they are positioned to provide insider information on the kinds of issues raised by university administrators, faculty, and students themselves when it comes to how international and domestic ELLs experience higher education at SU.
A broad implication likely to emerge from any study of internationalization in higher education is that the matter is highly complex and political, especially given that one of its results are more diverse campuses. After all, coming to grips with the varying effects of cultural, racial, national, and linguistic diversity (to name some that closely relate to internationalizing higher education) is likely to be a complicated and long-lasting endeavor. While both the benefits and obstacles are many, given the focus of this study, I will address just four issues discussed most by the fourteen SU administrators I interviewed, who—as indicated in Chapter 2—are all regularly involved with supporting ELLs at SU: concerns over cross-cultural conflicts, improving ELL student writing, the lack of resources, and the need for more systemic institutional support.

Before I delve into the various issues participants discussed, I will reference a short news article that touches on many of the issues raised by participants and thus provides a useful example demonstrating the findings of my overall analysis. The article, “Lost in Translation: Newhouse’s emphasis on English, group work results in challenges for international students” (Gorny), was published in 2013 in SU’s student-run newspaper, Daily Orange. Its rhetorical purpose appears to be to report on the challenges international students face in Newhouse (SU’s School of Public Communication); however, the article’s content also provides numerous examples of how some faculty and students generally perceive the presence of international students at SU.

Not surprisingly, cultural differences and language proficiencies are named as being the cause of some of the difficulties facing international students when participating in class and completing written assignments. There are mixed responses to this issue accounted for, which
helps to demonstrate some the complexity of the situation. Of the faculty interviewed, there is clear concern over English skills, especially given Newhouse’s focus on communication. For example, one expresses sympathy for the challenges facing international students but argues we cannot hold them to a lower standard, while another comments that poor language skills take away from the writers’ credibility. There is also acknowledgment, however, that writing is an issue for international and domestic students alike, quoting one Newhouse faculty member who said, “I have had many international students who write beautiful papers and many domestic students who write horrible papers.” An SU administrator adds that international students are under a significant amount of pressure, especially those whose cultures have a heightened value they attach to education, while another university administrator explains that, given the challenges they face when attending higher education in the US, international students develop various coping strategies. A third SU administrator named the problem with transferring international students not having to supply TOEFL scores (a strategy described as “ways around [university] standards”), but acknowledges that this is a very low percentage.

Taking into consideration the international student perspective, the author summarizes that much of the difficulty international students experience has to do with adjusting to the participatory and collaborative educational styles in the US. One international student from Newhouse interviewed admits that group work is particularly stressful and during her first year at SU she was not satisfied with her contributions to group projects. Another expressed that “she often wonders and worries her American teammates consider her a detriment to group projects” and that her “fear of judgment of her background or English ability makes her reluctant to speak during class.” Taken collectively, we can begin to see some of the common
concerns regarding the presence of international ELLs that likely are held across institutions: that ELL students’ English proficiency is a primary concern; that standards should not be changed or lowered for these students; that their identities and cultural backgrounds greatly impact their experience; that their educational styles they previously experienced may also affect their education in the US; that international students are in a vulnerable position; that they are strategic and resourceful; etc.

While not part of the original article, there are three comments that were posted by readers of the *Daily Orange*. I want to mention two, as they provide some additional and interesting perspectives. One comes from a US student, or at least I presume since his/her username is Bostonway and given other clues in the content of his/her comment. The second comes from an international student who graduated from SU in the 1970s (as is disclosed in her comment). The US student’s comment in full is as follows:

Ahhh, English is the common language at SU and in the US (defacto 'official'). If your English skills are weak... why do you attend a US university? You should not expect 'extra help and consideration' from professors et al. There's a reason I would never apply to a French or Russian university...I don’t speak the language well! Man, I get so tired of this liberal drum-beat to; [sic] 'value and accomodate [sic] everyone's diversity'!

This comment, on the one hand, represents a fair and common assumption—one that was raised in the article itself—that all SU students need to meet a certain level of English proficiency in order to attend and succeed. On the other hand, this person’s comment also illustrates the tendency to unreservedly accept the tacit (not official) English Only policy in the US and to interpret the problem of low-English-proficiency international students attending SU as a result of the students themselves and not of institutional systems and processes. It also represents the skepticism some hold toward institutional changes made as a result of diversity,
implying that the move to “value and accommodate [sic] everyone’s diversity” is a sort of special
treatment unfairly afforded to diverse students rather than an approach to fostering mutual
appreciation and creating fairness across differences.

The second commenter comes from a woman named Ammu Joseph, who I learned
(upon Googling her) is a former Newhouse international student and now a well-published
freelance journalist and author in India. In her comment to the article, she provides the
following anecdote from her time at SU:

This reminds me of my experience as one of the very, very few international
students at Newhouse back in 1976. One senior professor insisted on meeting
students who wanted to sign up for his magazine writing course before deciding
whether or not to take them in. I had just opened the door to his office when he
looked up, shook his head and said, "I’m sorry, I don’t take international students
-- this is a course in specialised writing, not writing English." I was shocked and
annoyed but managed to calmly say, "You don’t have to teach me how to write
English." He asked me to return the next day with a narrative version of my
resume. I did. He read the first paragraph and said, "You can sign up for the
course." We went on to become fairly good friends and he often complained to
me about the poor language skills of many of his American students! :) 

Ammu Joseph’s experience being classified (by only her body) as unfit for a journalism class is in
line with the interviewees mentioned in the article who explain their lack of participation is
sometimes a result of feeling judged or unwelcome by their classmates. While this example is
historical, the perspective reminds us that ELLs may experience prejudice and discrimination,
including being categorized as having language problems unfitting of college classrooms.
Additionally, while international students are often made the target of conversations around
poor writing, Ammu Joseph’s experience with a senior professor in 1976 provides a
supplementary example to the article which acknowledges that student writing is indeed not
exclusively an international student problem; it is and has long been a concern for all students,
native English speakers included. The perspectives shown in this article represent some of the conflicts that arise when there is cultural and linguistic diversity on campus. Undergirding these conflicts are ideologies about what is considered appropriate cultural and linguistic exchange in university settings.

As mentioned, the perspectives provided in this article and the comments posted touch on many of the concerns named among my participants as circulating around SU regarding the presence of ELL international students. However, while the author of the Daily Orange article names “cultural differences” as one of main concerns, indicating that international students struggle with the cultural differences of a US education, the participants I interviewed described it as a mutual conflict. Cross-cultural conflict at SU, according to participants, manifests in many forms, from communication breakdowns between international students and SU faculty/staff, to students struggling to build community with peers that have different backgrounds, to outright unfair treatment and discrimination. As one example, five separate participants mentioned undergraduate dormitories as a common site of cross-cultural conflict. One recalled a US student expressing apprehension over not knowing what to do about her Chinese roommate who had isolated herself for days in their shared dorm room. A second participant shared numerous instances where international students recounted being excluded and sometimes mistreated by their US roommates. Another said it is a regular occurrence for SU students’ parents to complain on their child’s behalf, saying, “I didn’t pay all this money so that my kid can come here to teach English to some Chinese student that’s his roommate.”

Some participants interpreted these and other tensions to be a result of domestic students, faculty, and staff not sharing the same value of internationalization that the
institution and international students do. Confused that there were not opportunities for students to engage in their differences, an international graduate student from my Writing 600 class (see the Introduction and Ch. 4) asked for advice on making US friends and questioned why none seemed interested in learning about her and her culture. One administrator participant who coordinated a roundtable discussion with a dozen graduate international students reported that their number one concern was feeling isolated; she added that “They have community with other international students but they feel like no one is interested in them as individuals--their background, their language.” From a domestic student perspective, international students are sometimes seen as isolating themselves away from domestic groups through building community only with individuals who speak their native language. There are, of course, numerous domestic and international students who are interested and involved in cross-cultural experiences and interactions, but opposition to the presence of linguistic diversity still exists and is one undesirable result of internationalizing the student body at SU.

In another attempt to explain the perceptions some faculty and students have, one administrator commented that despite direct efforts to orient international students and faculty to US culture and educational systems, there are few initiatives to prepare US students, faculty, and staff to participate in an internationalized institution. As she put it, “It is hard for the institution itself because it is designed for Americans, and [these] students are not.” This participant acknowledged that although some departments at SU strive to hire diverse staff and to provide cross-cultural training, instituting cross-cultural training often falls further down their list of priorities and sometimes gets sacrificed in lieu of more pressing day-to-day responsibilities.
In addition to cultural concerns, English proficiency, as clearly portrayed in the *Daily Orange* article, is a common topic surrounding the presence of international ELL students. Being an international student does not necessitate being an ELL; however, the increased presence of international students who are ELLs is easily observable at SU. Despite many faculty and administrators recognizing that problems with student writing is not exclusively an ELL problem or an international ELL problem, as the *Daily Orange* article also indicated, concerns over international ELLs’ spoken and written English are pervasive. At the root of the anxiety of ELL writing, to paraphrase one administrator, is that there is a discrepancy between ELL students’ proficiency in English grammar and faculty’s expectations of where language proficiency should be; faculty then feel unsure about where to begin and feel they do not have the time or training needed to teach grammar, US cultural rhetorics, and writing. According to this administrator, the kinds of complaints faculty at SU express over ELL writing are indicative of assumptions they hold about what sort of mold SU students should fit. Their comments, said this participant, indicate concerns such as, “‘These students don’t look like the students I expect to have in my classroom. They don’t act or talk or write like those [American] students,’” and even xenophobic assumptions such as, “‘These students don’t belong here.’”

In line with the topics of cultural differences and writing proficiency is the issue of academic integrity. Some question whether international ELL students pay agents to write their entrance essays or, when attending SU, if they are buying papers or having native speakers edit their writing. At the time that my interviews took place, an international graduate student in Geography was being charged with plagiarism and the case was a cause for dispute among administrative insiders. I learned from participants that the student was losing her funding as a
research assistant and was asked to return to China for at least one year to work on her English
before reapplying. The reason for contesting her case was because intentionality was not clear.
Apparently, the student had paraphrased sections of a source without providing an in-text
citation, but the student claimed she was not aware of her wrongdoing since she cited the
author in her references. The student had a 3.9 GPA, no previous plagiarism suspicions, a
flawless reputation among her faculty, and was working closely with her mentor on the very
piece of writing deemed plagiarism. Having worked so closely with this faculty member on her
draft, the student explained that she assumed her source use was appropriate. I was not privy
to official information on the case and so was not able to verify the details. However, I can
attest that some participants suspected that the student was being made an example of so as
to serve as fair warning to other international students.

When imagining how these cases and perceptions might impact writing program
administrators, it is hardly surprising that WPAs at SU and other institutions across the US
receive frequent inquiries from university administrators over why students write at the levels
that they do, why they are not better educated on ethical source use, and why WPAs have not
been able to “fix” these and other problems. In essence, assumptions held about error in ELL
student writing are—at least to some extent—indicative of 1) a lack of awareness of the nature
of writing in a second language, including the time required to achieve proficiency; and 2) a lack
of awareness of the time, material, and various other constraints and pressures facing writing
programs, instructors, and classes, as well as student writers. On top of this, SU (like many
universities) is structured in a way that labor is divided when it comes to supporting ELLs with
their writing. As indicated in the Introduction, the English Institute and the Department of
Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics deal most directly with ELL writing. The Writing Program nevertheless still supports many ELLs with writing, as also previously mentioned: some enroll in undergraduate courses; many seek services at the Writing Center; and (to a much smaller extent) others have enrolled in the recently developed graduate-level writing course for ELLs, Writing 600 (see the Introduction and Chapter 4). Despite shared interests in supporting ELLs (with writing or otherwise), however, my discussions with administrators across campus revealed that very few collaborated across institutional divides. In fact, many named the lack of cross-campus collaboration being another limitation to SU’s approach to addressing the increased presence of international and domestic ELLs.

When it comes to taking stock of and evaluating the various ways international and domestic ELLs are supported at SU—with their writing and other needs—administrator participants agreed that the lack of sufficient resources was among their most pressing concerns. The resources I cataloged in the Introduction indicate that SU is indeed responding to the presence of international and domestic ELL students and their writing needs. Three of my students reported frequently using resources such as the Writing Center and the coordinated conversation groups, and they related feeling satisfied with these services. One of my international ELL graduate students reported taking a total of ten language and writing courses offered across the Writing Program, English Language Institute (ELI), and Department of Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics. In this student’s case and in others like her, however, receiving this support comes at a price. Enrolling in ELI and other writing courses, especially ones that do not count toward students’ degrees, can be very expensive (see the Introduction). It is no wonder, then, that administrators, faculty, and students will sometimes question
whether the presence of international students is solely a result of university interests to
globalize campus or if it is also a result of the capital gains that come with enrolling this
population: 1) in tuition dollars, as international students have little to no access to US financial
aid and are thus in-full tuition payers; and 2) in status, as the institution can then make claim to
being nationally, culturally, and linguistically diverse). It was not uncommon to hear in my
interviews, for instance, that international students are “university-money-makers” or that “SU
is a business” and that income from international students is part of the educational enterprise.

The bottom line for administrators was that they felt the increase of ELL students did
not correlate with an increase in resources to support these students and to effectively address
the consequences of their presence on campus (including, for instance, addressing the cross-
cultural conflicts mentioned above). To quote one participant’s rhetorical question, “over 10
years we’ve had a 335% increase in undergraduate international students. Do you think anyone
on campus has had a 335% increase in support staff, in outreach, in English as a second
language faculty, sections of courses?” The kinds of resources cited as most needed were cross-
cultural training opportunities, increase in faculty specializing in ELL writing, courses on writing
in/ across the disciplines, and increased attention on how to better support ELL graduate
students with not only writing but life in the US. Three participants, in fact, mentioned that
graduate ELLs do not receive nearly as much support as do their undergraduate counterparts.
For instance, the institution financially supports the coordination of an orientation for new
undergraduate international students; however, there is no such institutionally supported
program available for incoming graduates (except for the orientation strictly for incoming
international teaching assistants mentioned in the Introduction). Now, incoming graduate
international students do indeed have an orientation where they learn about US educational culture, living in Syracuse, as well as university systems, resources, and requirements. However, its production is supported internally through the Slutzker Center despite the Center not receiving university resources specifically for its coordination. The Slutzker Center, moreover, has a history of having to restructure their already limited university-allotted resources to provide programs and support needed by international students but not explicitly resourced by the institution.

This brings me to my next point, which has to do with how university programs for international and domestic ELLs come about at SU. In part, this study aims to gather a heightened sense of how universities, SU as one case, come to grips with internationalization and (more specifically) an internationalized student body. In my Introduction, I describe SU’s initiatives to internationalize as strategies. It is important to acknowledge, though, that SU has not made public any explicit strategic plan to meet these ends. As a result, coming to grips with the kinds of internationalizing occurring, including the increased presence of ELLs on campus, is more often tackled through bottom-up and grassroots initiatives rather than systematic, institutional, top-down initiatives. When addressing internationalization is not systemic, it manifests in—as one participant referred to it—“pockets,” rather than being programs that are integral to the institutional structure. Thus, while the pockets of internationalization occurring at SU may gain institutional support and funding, they were initiated by programs and people as a response to the effects of internationalization, not as efforts to internationalize.

Between international economics and relations, learning outcomes and assessments, cross-cultural conflict, ideologies around language and writing, as well as the financial realities
of all constituencies involved, it is no wonder that one participant referred to SU’s handling of internationalization as an example of there being “no real way to cut that Gordian knot.” Internationalization may indeed be seen as an intractable situation, a complication impossible to untangle. But the most common perspective shared across each of the administrators I interviewed was that while there may not be a clear solution, their work was not done: efforts need to continue toward better addressing internationalization and better supporting an internationalized student body.

One of my own hypotheses I have made about the handling of internationalization at SU (an issue that my participants did not explicitly address in our encounters) is that when it comes to “housing” (both physically and systemically) programs explicitly designed for ELLs, they are sometimes positioned as separate—even if only slightly—from the standard and central programmatic approaches at SU. Geographically speaking, for instance, the two main resources used by ELLs (Slutzker Center and English Language Institute, ELI) as well as the Study Abroad office are certainly placed within the university borders. However, they are physically located just outside of what many consider the main campus, sitting among fraternity and sorority housing. The ELI, furthermore, is housed in University College, SU’s school for adult education, part-time students, and other nontraditional students. Thus, this very placement deems it as remedial and not quite fitting university standards and status. Similar to the observation made by one of my participants, these programs can be seen as “pockets” of internationalization that spring up outside of systemic and centralized programmatic efforts. Again, rather than systemically aiding in internationalization preemptively, SU handles the consequences of internationalization (i.e., “We have recruited so many international students who need help
with obtaining student visas; faculty are complaining about their English. What do we do? How can we handle this?”). More than that, however, I suspected early in my investigations that part of the cause for (or result of?) internationalization not being strategically enacted and institutionally supported is that such efforts, especially ELL resources, are deemed as different and separate from what a higher education institution purports to do.

My hunch that there was an argument to be made about these programs for international ELLs being seen and treated as detached from SU intensified as I began my historical research. Historically, in fact, both the Slutzker Center and ELI were far removed from campus (one in the adjacent neighborhood and the other a few miles away in the downtown area). Written historical accounts of Syracuse University, furthermore, have documented the political relationship between SU and University College (UC). The value of UC can be seen in the remarks of how SU Chancellors Tolley, Corbally, and Eggers perceived it. As one SU historian, John Robert Greene, summarizes, “one cannot escape the belief that Tolley saw UC as a vast receptacle for programs and ideas that did not seem to fit anywhere else in the university” (Volume IV, 94). Greene also historicizes that “UC simply did not enjoy the favor of either the Corbally or the Eggers administration that was reserved for other programs.” Corbally was quoted as saying that “unless there was definite proof that the Continuing Education … could be a resource, I had the feeling that it was something that could be fairly well handled by SUNY” (Volume V, 211). He was directed to cancel it, but he did not and instead added that “we just didn’t enhance it” (211). Finally, according to Alexander Charters, who was VP of Continuing Education at UC, Chancellor Eggers “just wasn’t interested in adult education” (211).
Then, in 1990, a committee studied the relationship between UC and the rest of the university. Some of its findings were as follows:

Other factors impinge on the ability of the professionals at University College to fulfill their mission: the lack of consistency in the financial agreements between UC and the main campus units; the negative effects of faculty teaching on overload; the lack of main campus oversight of the academic quality of UC offerings; the lack of academic accountability of UC; the parallel between many of the UC concerns and those regarding Summer Sessions, Extended Campus, and DIPA [Department of International Programs Abroad]; the absence of incentives for main campus units to engage in continuing education; the presence of misunderstandings and incorrect practices; and a lack of communication among those engaged in continuing education programs. (212)

This history of UC and of the various perceptions surrounding it (from chancellors and university committee members) helps to demonstrate that a separatist approach to addressing the presence of international ELLs (as well as other programs) was imbedded in its development and then spanned over its progression for years to come. Within this brief account of SU’s history and given the values attached, we can already begin to see the benefit of WPAs gaining a historical perspective of their institutions to supplement knowledge on the current situation. In the section to follow, I provide analysis of additional historical moments at Syracuse University that shed light on how internationalization has been understood and treated.

**Moments of Internationalization in SU’s History**

WPA researchers have long argued for the benefit of developing a historical perspective, calling for other WPAs, for example, to establish, manage, and utilize archives for their writing programs (Rose); to study their program’s past encounters with institutional policy making (Mirtz); and to historicize WPA work within the larger field (L’Eplattenier). What my approach
to historical research adds to these methods is to search beyond the confines of our writing programs to uncover some of the events, systems, and ideologies existing over time and across campus that help to establish a clearer sense of the wider university context. This, I argue, is necessary for a number of reasons. For one, labor is often divided (Matsuda) when it comes to the recruitment, admittance, testing, training, teaching, and all-around supporting of international and domestic ELLs, making it impossible to study these issues with only a writing program perspective. Along this same line, since the aims of internationalization and the concerns over English proficiency in today’s internationalized institution are far-reaching and pervasive across the curriculum, the current understandings and historical moments affecting the situation lie beyond writing program’s terrain. Finally, if we are to accept that knowing our institutional histories better arms WPAs to construct more credible and compelling arguments about what our institutions’ have done, are doing, and should be doing, then the fruits of having an overall sense of institutional history will only aid in that endeavor.

While limited, the historical research I conducted helps to illustrate some of the earliest moments and initiatives at SU that had internationalizing aims. Further—and of possible relevance to the current climate at SU surrounding issues of internationalization—my findings reveal a number of values and ideologies embedded in SU’s history beyond having a separatist approach, including colonialist, nationalist, isolationist, and ethnocentric perspectives. These apply also to historical understandings of linguistic and cultural diversity, with diversification, again, being an initiative at SU that is more commonly dealt with after the fact rather than being carefully plotted and managed beforehand. Analyzing past administrative approaches, as well as the historical perceptions garnered at universities (as I hope to demonstrate by way of
Syracuse University as one case) can be of use to the WPA in not only better understanding her context and audience, but also used to make stronger and historically supported arguments about what kinds of changes are needed institutionally, and why.

Perhaps the most telling—yet, not all that surprising—finding of my investigation of the historical moments toward internationalization at SU is that this aspect of SU history has not yet been accounted for. Not only has internationalization not been systemically traced at SU, but there are also few archives or other resources available (beyond what I was able to access) from which explicit information about the presence of international students can be gleaned.

Even that there is no accounting for this part of SU’s history suggests that the effects of internationalization has often been dealt with in the aftermath rather than as preemptive administrative strategizing. The five volumes published on the history of Syracuse University (each aptly titled, *Syracuse University*) offered some insight into the extent to which international issues and concerns played a part in the development of programs and student life. However, within these historical accounts (which cover the earliest movements to establish SU in the 1850s to the middle of Chancellor Egger’s administration, 1991), there are no references to the presence of international students. In fact, it is not until Volume IV that the term “international” is indexed, and its use is tied to either programmatic study (e.g., International Public Administration Program) or organizations (e.g., International Business Management) but not students. There was one mentioning of the English Language Institute; however, it was just to say that it opened in the 1970s with no other information or commentary provided (Greene *Volume V*, 211). While I imagine there very well are traces of internationalization within the many archives at Syracuse University—as mentioned in Chapter
2, the number of archives I accessed were limited—it is telling that the official published history of the institution omits international students.

The historical moments relative to internationalization that each volume does offer include things like descriptions of study abroad programs, curricular attention to the topic of foreign relations, and student responses to international affairs and wartime. As my research methods do not extend to also include the vast primary sources used by the authors of the five volumes of SU’s history, my accounting for moments toward internationalization at SU inevitably relies on the authors’ versions of SU’s history. Anecdotal evidence provided by the participants of this study suggests that international students attended SU throughout its entire course of history; I assume, then, that other pressing events needing coverage combined with the authors’ own subjectivities and interests plausibly led to the lack of attention paid to more internationally related issues (including the presence of international students) in the five volumes of *Syracuse University*. It may also suggest that students are often considered, as they have been historically, in a homogenous and monolingualist way, preventing more nuanced accounts of cultural and linguistic diversity. So while the research presented in this section marks a first attempt to investigate some of the initial internationalization efforts that historically occurred at SU, there remains much to be discovered and more extensive historical research to be done.

*Courses and Programs on Language, Foreign Language, and Foreign Relations*

A logical place to locate movements toward internationalizing in higher education is through curricular and programmatic attention to foreign language and relations and to international issues and audiences. From its start, SU considered the study of language to be
central, from studying ancient languages to modern rhetorical traditions. The undergraduate curriculum first established in 1871, for instance, consisted of not only basic subjects such as algebra, geometry, history, physiology, and education, but also Latin, Greek, and rhetoric. Even in the late 1800s SU recognized the intricate connections between language and culture: its Classical Course in 1872 was defined as appealing to “students seeking especially the culture to be derived from the study of ancient languages and literature” (Galpin Volume I, 52). On the graduate level, in 1876 SU established its first set of “courses of study” to be Greek, Latin, French, German, Mathematics, Hebrew, Esthetics and the History of Fine Arts, Chemistry, Physics, Anglo-Saxon and English, Geology, Zoology, and History (Galpin Volume I, 214). Of interest here is that of these thirteen areas of study, six (46%) are in languages and eight (62%) in the humanities at large. The majority of these graduate studies occurred on campus; however, there were also “some intensive graduate instruction abroad, notably in Germany,” while “others sought to enrich themselves and their courses by travel and general study in Europe and the United States” (Galpin Volume I, 218).

Syracuse University has strong roots in the College of Liberal Arts (currently titled College of Arts and Sciences) where the study of foreign languages was prominent from its start and through the 1920s. During this period students typically studied at the very least the classical languages for a year or more. In 1930, however, the value of this study began to be questioned and there were efforts to cut or shorten the foreign language requirement. SU had required that students arrive to the university with four years of study completed in a foreign language. If this requirement was not met, then students studied two languages instead of one while at SU. The Methodist Church’s Reeves Survey of 1930, which was conducted in part to aid
in curtailing the foreign language requirement, stated that “The faculty...should recognize the
fact that [the SU language requirement] is moving in opposition to the present trend in this
matter. The survey staff seriously question the wisdom of the present language requirement”
(Wilson 12). In addition to the desire to align with trends in higher education at large, another
perspective that was revealed to oppose this requirement was the concern over the fact that
“students trained to read and write another language could not always be understood in its
home country. Worse, it was often true that graduates could not speak or write good English
even after the proficiency tests were introduced” (Wilson 16).

What we may begin to take away from this historical moment, and what a WPA
perspective may lead us to question, is to what extent this national and site-specific trend to
shy away from foreign language requirements played a part in (or is representative of) a kind of
English-only understanding of language use in higher education. The committee’s concerns
quoted above suggest a number of interesting perceptions about the importance and uses of
native and foreign language proficiency: that if efforts to learn a foreign language do not ensure
proficiency in its home country, then why bother learning it all; that if domestic students
cannot even master English speaking and writing, then why would we spend so much time
teaching them other languages; that, in essence, English use and the teaching of it clearly
outweighs more international and multilingual approaches to higher education. Furthermore,
even at this early moment in SU’s history, not only were administrators concerned over
domestic students’ proficiencies in English speaking and writing19, but they also were aware

19 Concern over English proficiency in domestic students also has a long history, dating back to the 1920s. According to SU
historian, Richard Wilson, There was
long-felt dissatisfaction with the quality of English written and spoken by some students. For example, late in
November 1927 Dr. Graham, then a Vice Chancellor, commented on the problem in his annual report to the
that obtaining proficiency in a foreign language took far more time than even SU’s multi-year course of study provided.

Programmatic study is another area where we may glean less subtle movements to internationalize SU. The Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs was (and still is) a major institutional entity representing these efforts. By the early- and mid-1900s Maxwell had established ten interdisciplinary programs, including international relations, Eastern African studies, South Asian studies, Soviet studies, and Latin American studies. Explicit efforts were made at one point to internationalize Maxwell, which was largely the result of some of the School’s deans who had interests in foreign relations and administration. Paul Appleby, who became dean of Maxwell in 1947, had a background in journalism and public administration with a specialty in India (where he took long trips to during his deanship). He established a connection in Washington D.C. where students could extend their studies through participating in various internships and other programs (still a major feature of the International Relations program). Appleby is also remembered for creating the first Russian language-training program outside of military and, interestingly, for spending much of his deanship “defending himself against charges made by the House Committee on Un-American Activities (HUAC) that he had communist sympathies” (Greene Volume IV, 91).

The next dean, Harlan Cleveland is historicized as aiming to make “Maxwell a truly international school” (Greene Volume IV, 92). Cleveland created programs in Italy and Kenya

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Chancellor. He said that if the bachelor of arts degree meant proficiency in any discipline, that field was English; yet the University had not only admitted students, but graduated some, who lacked this essential qualification. He noted that remedial steps had been taken in 1922 through the Minimum Essentials Test. Those who cleared this hurdle were excused from a part of the normal English requirement. Those who failed had to carry an additional course. In 1927 this was extended to sophomores and students in the upper classes. (10)
Then, in 1931, the following policy was instated: “Syracuse University refuses to confer its degrees upon a student until he has shown ability to use the English language correctly and easily.” This continued through the Graham administration (11).
and developed a master’s program of study abroad in foreign consulates. Further, Cleveland also participated alongside leaders from Princeton, Yale, Stanford, and Penn in a university consortium for working in foreign government offices. He also created the Maxwell Overseas Program, which commenced after the Ford Foundation gifted $10 million to support a new program in Pakistan. In fact, Cleveland was known for delivering “amounts of government grants previously unheard of for Maxwell” (92). During the next deanship, that of Steven K. Bailey, the Ford Foundation offered another $1 million grant to be used for expanding the master’s degree in International Public Relations, which was “a five-year program on research into the United Nations and other international organizations, to be carried on in connection with the College of Law” (Greene Volume IV, 215-216).

This brief history of the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs reveals a number of not-so-surprising facets of the politics of administration at SU as it relates to internationalizing (or even other agendas). First, change often comes about as a result of administrative leaders’ interests and ideologies as well as when the economic stakes or potentials are high. Despite an internationally inclined program of study at the time being seen as socialist, communist, and radical, Maxwell could still become shaped by these goals when those in power were involved in or influenced by international issues. Then, when significant institutional monies in the form of grants come into play, SU was receptive to these changes as they not only benefitted the institution but also released it from having to financially support such initiatives. Furthermore, Maxwell provides an example of how international issues at SU have long been considered economically relevant yet somehow separate from the primary values of seeking higher education at SU. Despite the school being so central to the institution
in generating institutional funds and building its esteemed reputation, Maxwell has historically been considered separate and independent: “The Maxwell School was seen as, and behaved as, an independent college, rather than as an arm of either the College of Liberal Arts or of the graduate school” (Greene Volume IV, 90).

Global Affairs and Wartime

The histories provided in the five volumes of Syracuse University reveal that another means by which Syracuse University internationalized was through institutional responses to (and participation in) international politics and wartime. Embedded within student and faculty responses to global affairs are various ideological stances that historically shaped the institution. Particularly during the period of 1922-1942, for instance, SU students, faculty, and university programs were involved with numerous initiatives surrounding global politics, including through protest. As historian Richard Wilson (the author of Volume III) noted, there arose some “campus unrest” over international concerns during these years and the institution was divided. The history of these 20 years of unrest includes mention of ongoing debate between conservative and liberal student groups over the extent to which the US should join its allies during the onset of WWII. Given that SU’s majority were considered conservative, a handful of student groups organized to give voice to liberal points of view.²⁰ At the time, liberal

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²⁰ Two camps of students were identified and labeled (by both the chancellor at the time, Charles Wesley Flint, and the historian, Richard Wilson), these being conservatives and liberals. In Volume III, the various camps in which students fell regarding the historical moment’s international affairs were described as follows:

Generally, the conservative group favored retention of the traditional status quo. Its members honestly questioned the drift toward internationalism and found lasting values in ‘isolation,’ ‘nonentangling alliances,’ ‘laissez-faire,’ and the US Constitution. Politically they followed the voting patterns of their Republican or Democratic parents and looked askance at organized labor, socialism, communism, free thinking, birth control, and unrestricted immigration. And far to the right were some who praised Hitler and Mussolini….Smaller in number were the campus liberals. They included those, regardless of political affiliation, who reacted favorably to ideals and proposals calculated to advance the commonweal. They were vaguely international, friendly to the League of Nations, sympathetic to the Christian ethic of peace, and frowned on rampant nationalism that smelled of imperialism and colonialism....Of bona fide
students felt that there should be more US involvement with allies and supported any effort that aimed for peace across nations, perspectives that were then adversely termed “internationalist.” During this time, there went on to be many peace demonstrations and other events, including one report of the “Internationale”—a popular leftist French anthem calling for mobilization across international divides and commonly associated with socialism—playing over the loudspeaker in Archbold Gym while members from the Student League spoke about the group’s internationalist perspectives.

The groups emerging under the liberal perspective included the Foreign Relations Society of Syracuse, the Student Movement, and the Liberal Club. Many members of these student groups joined together and made up a collective faction referred to as the “314,” named after its headquarters at 314 Waverly Avenue and described as “a center for liberal and some leftist activity” (Wilson 319). The “314” petitioned to have one group, the Liberal Club, be officially recognized by the university as “the Liberal Club of Syracuse University.” Those in the Student Movement similarly sought such institutional name recognition. However, Chancellor Flint denied the use of the university’s name in these and all other organizations out of fear, at least as some assumed, of associating the institution with leftist politics. Later, in 1933, the location at 314 Waverly was closed down by the Chancellor who cited changes in the

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radicalism there was only a trace among liberals, and those few found it more congenial to join organizations such as the American Student Union, which consisted of a hard core of radicals who leaned toward Marxist socialism. Lacking strength and numbers, they were misfits in the liberal camp and were often under administration surveillance. (Wilson 313-314)

21 The Student Movement, while having a more general title, was dedicated specifically to international issues. It developed in order to highlight the problems of war and to protest the strong presence of ROTC on campus. The group drafted and distributed the “Student Movement Letter,” which stated the following internationalist mission for the “new” kind of student they called for: “the ‘New Student’ should acquire a knowledge of and an interest in all national and international affairs” (Wilson 322).
university’s housing program as the reason, while liberals on campus “saw it as a covert means of destroying ‘314’” (323).

There were also SU professors deemed “internationalist,” such as Professor Phillip Taylor, W. Freeman Galpin (who, interestingly, is the author of the first two volumes of Syracuse University), and Gordon Hoople, who was a primary organizer for Syracuse-in-China (a program to which I turn my analysis later in this chapter). These faculty, like their student counterparts did not approve of the “keep America out of war” movement. Galpin published a letter in the Daily Orange that received a campus-wide reaction, titled, “America Is Worth Defending” (330). Galpin argued in his article that war was inevitable and that without US involvement, US allies would be defeated and a totalitarian victory would result in a loss of foreign trade, leaving the US economy at the hands of the victors. Hoping to appeal to naysayers at SU, he thus claimed that not getting involved would be “economic isolation for America” (330). As he was concerned that student apathy may prevent involvement and support over what he saw as inevitable, he concludes with the following plea to students: “STOP, LOOK, AND LISTEN, before it is TOO LATE” (Wilson 330). According to SU historians, despite there being some examples of student involvement with worldly affairs, whenever war was no longer a threat, “[students] soon crept back to their sheltered campus lives” (311). Even in the midst of WWII there were reports of student apathy. In fact, there was such obvious indifference sensed among students in 1938 that one faculty member, Rodney Fisher, claimed that “the student body was more interested in the Lambeth Walk, the latest dance craze, than in anything else” and the Daily Orange “tried to stimulate student interest by devoting two columns a day to world affairs” (327).
Student and faculty responses to historical events of WWI and WWII, as well as the institution’s responses to the actions of students and faculty, shed light on the kinds of ideologies rooted in SU’s past. SU has a history of a conservative majority with interests that were isolationist and nationalistic\(^\text{22}\) (i.e., they deemed US superior and preferred staying separate from international affairs and war). This meant that more liberal points of view regarding building global alliances were deemed radical “internationalists,” a term that at the time was negatively associated with socialism and communism. There was such strong opposition to internationalist perspectives that the Chancellor took action to dissipate leftist organization, at least as was speculated at the time. Other perceptions of internationalism we may draw from this moment in SU history are that unless there were immediate concerns, students were apathetic to worldly concerns—that is, except for economic reasons (as we saw in Galpin’s appeal to his SU student readers that not taking an internationalist approach and responding to the war would result in “economic isolation”).

Of course, this history does not necessitate that the same connotations are still attached to the term “international” or its many applications; however, this history does lead us to wonder to what extent the feelings and ideologies attached to this term—whether it is nationalism, isolationism, and apathy—still resonate. It could be argued, for instance, that we may read the kinds of cross-cultural conflicts occurring at SU in recent times as evidence of domestic students’ apathetic disinterest in international students and feelings that US culture and native English users are superior. That there is still no accounting for the history and current language and cultural backgrounds of international and domestic ELLs at SU (see the

\(^{22}\) See footnote #20 in this chapter.
Introduction) may also lead administrators to wonder whether SU at an institutional level remains apathetic (beyond the institution’s obvious interest in the capital offered by including these students).

A final example I will provide in this subsection includes highlights from the history of Japanese-American students attending SU in the 1940’s. When Pearl Harbor was hit, the campus quickly united in support of war, after 20 years of being divided. Interestingly, one result of Pearl Harbor was Syracuse University being infused with ethnic and cultural diversity. During this time, Syracuse University became one of few colleges to accept Japanese-American students, who would be released from the relocation camps to attend. American Society of Friends contacted Chancellor Tolley to request that he accept five American-born Japanese Americans; Tolley offered to accept one hundred, which SU historian, John Robert Greene, considered “a commendable example of educational altruism” and “an act of some political courage” (18). Based on an interview with Chancellor Tolley, Greene reports that “After learning that Syracuse University would be sent sixty-five Japanese-American students, Tolley remembered thinking, ‘My God, what have I done,’ and asked the editors of the Daily Orange not to announce the arrival of the Japanese-American students” (18). During his leadership at SU, Chancellor Tolley made efforts to lessen discrimination of Japanese-Americans (as well as other targeted groups on campus, including Jews, Catholics, and Black students). In fact, Greene said that Tolley was “more enlightened on racial and ethnic issues than had been any of his predecessors.” Despite Tolley’s efforts, there was still outspoken opposition coming from both inside and outside of the university. For instance, Greene reports that “Many of the city’s more

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23 After the bombing at Pearl Harbor, there was national outrage about the presence of Japanese-Americans and these individuals became targeted and discriminated against. President Roosevelt gave permission to the US Army to relocate thirty-four thousand Japanese-Americans from California to other remote desert locations, which began in 1942.
conservative leaders never fully forgave Tolley for allowing what one remembered as being ‘the enemy’ to matriculate onto Piety Hill” (18).

In this brief example, the WPA can extract a variety of implications that help define the history of internationalization at SU. It is important to first note the obvious, however, that these Japanese American students were, well, Americans, not recruited and admitted international students. They were attending university after having been unjustly relocated from their homes based on the racial prejudices of the government and nation. However, given that there are no accounts of international students in the five volumes of Syracuse University, their history sheds some light on how international conflict results in localized conflict on campus. Being that they embodied the cultural and linguistic diversity of “the enemy,” these students were targets for discrimination on campus. That Chancellor Tolley immediately questioned his decision (or at least the blowback he would receive) to invite one hundred of these students, and that he spent his administration attending to the discrimination that followed, attests to the racism these students faced.

The Chancellor’s actions also attest to the fact that SU, perhaps like most universities, has a tendency to initiate programs toward diversity and internationalization without sufficient systemic planning, only to have to pick up the pieces later. This is an example, then, of institutional approaches to coming to grips with the affects of internationalization’s aftermath, rather than setting in place programs, practices, and policies beforehand to circumvent issues and to offer the support, scaffolding, and infrastructure that is needed. In many ways, this approach is understandable since administrators cannot always know ahead of time the consequences of their actions and strategic planning needed or lack thereof; furthermore, this
particular case occurred so abruptly, leaving the Chancellor little to no time to implement changes prior to these students’ arrival. Nevertheless, the Chancellor’s actions can be seen as irresponsible if not potentially harmful to the incoming Japanese American students. Not announcing their presence as being a result of an intentional and institutionally-supported initiative, for instance, relieves the university of responsibility for its decision making and risks Japanese American students being thought of and treated as trespassers. For the WPA, examples like these—which demonstrate problems that arise due to lack of transparency in university support of internationalization and due to the trend of what we may call “aftermath administration”—may be examined and presented to higher administrators when making a case to break the habit and be more proactive in supporting internationalization in anticipation of the results that its diversity brings.

*Religious Roots and Missionary Efforts*

Religious and missionary activity was one area where internationalization was the most relevant in SU’s history, especially as SU has strong roots in Methodism and Christianity. Its institutional charter in 1870—which was written by the Methodist Church members who organized for the establishment of SU and who went on to lead the institution for decades—stated that “Christian learning, literature and sciences in their various departments, and the knowledge of the learned professions shall be taught” (Galpin *Volume I*, n.p.). Guiding the development of an educational institution with religious values, of course, was a fairly common approach in the mid to late 1800s. Having religious ideals not only resulted in centralizing issues of faith within the university walls; many programs and organizations also developed global
pursuits. Missionary initiatives were an outcome of this focus and various organizations emerged.

From 1890 through the 1930s numerous programs developed efforts that fulfilled worldly and missionary pursuits. Hendricks Chapel, as one example, acted both as a metaphorical and literal centerpiece of the campus—that is, the many faith-based initiatives accomplished in the Chapel were characteristic of the university’s practices and values, while the building itself was (and still is, for that matter) physically located as a central landmark. Much committee work accomplished through Hendricks Chapel (sixteen committees in 1937), were dedicated to agendas such as “interfaith matters, world relations, Syracuse-in-China, public relations, and publication of a magazine, Chapel News” (Wilson 259). As other examples, the Christian Association, a student organization of the 1920s, was “devoted to world citizenship, the evils of war, and the cause of peace” (Galpin Volume II, 388), while the Student Volunteer Band, an older student organization (est. 1890), “pledged to aid in foreign missions” (451).

The most extensive program dedicated to missionary work during this time was the Syracuse-in-China Unit. The Christian Association, Student Volunteer Band, and members of the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A. joined forces given their shared interests in foreign missions, and in the first few years of the 1900s they began missionary work in China at Nanking and then Tientsin. The group—led by SU students and alumni Dr. Gordon Hoople, and Dr. Leon E. Sutton, with George H. Maxwell, Roscoe Hersey, Grace N. Baird, and Lillian McDonald contributing shortly after—set their sights on Chungking in 1916, which would eventually be the primary site of missionary work by the Syracuse-in-China Unit (hereafter, SIC).
Eight years later, SIC officially began operations as a comprehensive missionary enterprise and had the threefold mission of accomplishing “medical, evangelical and educational work” (259). Thus, they established a hospital, church, and school in Chungking in which they worked for many years.

Galpin, in Volume II of *Syracuse University*, explains that SIC’s demise began during the Sino-Japanese War and WWII, as the city of Chungking was repeatedly bombed during the years of 1939-1943, which destroyed many of the SIC’s facilities. In 1951, SIC was officially shut down due to the uprising of communist control. Ties to China continued, however, through two initiatives: SU’s establishment as a “sister university” to West China Union University in Chengdu (est. 1943) (260), as well as through the more elaborate and mostly medically-focused program, Syracuse-in-Asia, which was established in Taiwan in 1958 and which sustained study abroad opportunities for students in Syracuse as well as in China. Thus, in addition to the work being done in China, the SIC acted as a means by which Chinese students began to seek education at Syracuse University. As already mentioned, the volumes of SU’s history do not mention admittance of international students. However, according to the Syracuse University Archive’s online materials, Ping Tsung Sung, pictured below in Figure 1, was one of the first Chinese students to attend SU. She graduated in 1917 with a Bachelor of Science degree.

According to the New York State Archive’s “Legacy Project” (a multicultural-centered archive also available online), in the 1920s there were at least 10 Chinese students at Syracuse University. Unfortunately, it is not clear in these sources the extent to which these students’ attending of SU was the product of SIC.
The factual information I have provided in this subsection begins to tell the story of global missionary activities occurring historically at SU, my archival research (see Chapter 2 for a more detailed description of the data gathered) revealed additional insights beyond what could be extracted from the five volumes of SU’s history and from SU’s online archival materials, including some of the values inherent to the SIC program. As the archival material sheds light on the kinds of ideologies historically garnered at Syracuse University via the SIC program, to complete my analysis of historical movements toward internationalization at SU, I
will provide in the following subsection a more detailed account of the Syracuse-in-China program.

*Syracuse-in-China Unit: A Mini-Case Study*

The files I reviewed in the Syracuse-in-China Unit (SIC) archive (Syracuse in Asia/China Collection) contained various artifacts, including numerous letters, pictures, and miscellaneous records written by SIC members, as well as a number of pamphlets and promotional materials that were distributed to Syracusans (mostly alumni) in hopes of soliciting monetary support for the program. During my data collection and analysis of these materials, I sensed immediately that the SIC provided an interesting glimpse into how internationalization was treated and understood historically at SU. For one, all the way up to the mid-twentieth century, the SIC program was considered to be “the only official international agency of the University,” according to SIC President Walter A. Taylor (and as stated in his letter of introduction to the SIC’s 1949 promotional brochure). More importantly, given that the archive included various mission statements and promotional material, the group’s rhetorics—and, thus, the ideologies they assumed to share with their audience of SU alumni—could be gleaned. As my analysis below aims to show, this case study extends my examination thus far (namely, my claims about nationalistic and isolationist ideologies pervading SU’s history) to include colonial and ethnocentric points of view. Of particular importance to the WPA researcher, moreover, is that members of the SIC illustrate with their rhetorical approaches a sense of superiority over not only cultural and religious qualities of Chinese people, but also a desire to colonize through English literacy. An ethnocentric and colonial positionality endured through the mid-twentieth
century, I argue, despite the group’s overall progression toward viewing institutional endeavors abroad as mutually beneficial to both cultures.

In 1919, the group made its initial attempt to gain the support of missionary boards by creating a booklet of information. The booklet proposal, which was sent to (and later accepted by) the Board of Foreign Missions of the Methodist Church, named the “obvious...reasons for choosing China.” One reason outlined was that there existed a crisis in that region. The authors rhetorically explain this crisis as putting Chinese in need of help, just the kind of help that the SIC could provide—that is, through Christianizing efforts. “The Present Crisis in China,” the SIC writers advise, was one that holds “the fate of not only China but of the whole world”; the situation in China was one which can--given the historical moment--“be swayed up or down.” SIC writers go on to name various events that have “awakened China”24 and claim that “Chinese isolation is a thing of the past.” They explain, “The old prejudice against the foreign devil is dead. China is determined to become a functioning part of the modern world. She is open to Western influence in all fields as never before” (4). With this, the authors imply to their audience of potential sponsors that their support will be well expended, as there is hope for swaying China in more Western directions. This appeal also alludes to the historical moment: the world was in the midst of globalization, where nations were no longer excluded from the influence of others (both literally and ideologically) and where so-called civilized cultures began to make their mark on a more global level. Another takeaway, however, are the colonial assumptions we may expect from missionary work, such as the belief that Western customs can “help” cultural groups that are in “crisis” but have finally “awakened” to the superior “modern

24 Factors cited for “awaken[ing] China” include war, political conflict, revolution, and “the spirit of democracy inherent in the message of the Christian missionary.” Another important factor SIC members name include a new airplane mail route, which helped to expand international interactions.
world” along with the privileging of capitalism and the feminizing of countries (“She [China] is open to Western Influence”).

With their rhetorical intention in place (of illustrating a hopeful missionary situation in China), the SIC members proceed to further illustrate exigency behind their missionary pursuits. They state,

The question that remains answered is this: What part of Western civilization will China adopt, our humanitarianism or our militarism? At present, militarism is the ascendency. China is ruled by opposing groups of military dictators. One million men are under arms. Chinese mercenaries swell the ranks of Bolshevist Russia. The only way to counteract this tendency is by the application in China of the ethics of Jesus Christ. If we fail to do this, well may we repeat the Moslem proverb, “As to the future the Knower is God”! If 70,000,000 Germans could threaten civilization in 1914, what could not between 400,000,000 and 500,000,000 Chinese do in 1964? (5)

In the previous example, the SIC members attempt to evoke fear of Chinese (considered less civilized) being negatively “swayed” by non-American and non-Christian cultures. Here, they play on fears of past international threats and enemy invasions, naming China’s high population and potential military might as cause for concern. They cite Christianization as a primary means for preventing this outcome and for instead leading the nation to adopt what writers implicitly see as the superior customs of Westernized culture. This situation, they hope to demonstrate, is urgent, time-sensitive, and best addressed with missionary initiatives.

Much of the language used in this booklet, including the passages above, was reused in various pamphlets distributed widely by SIC over a span of years. These pamphlets, with their rhetorical purpose of persuading alumni to donate funds to support of the program, act as other relevant artifacts given the foci of the current study. Namely, the assorted appeals made within the artifacts shed light on the kinds of ideologies that writers of the pamphlet assumed
to share with their intended audience. In one early brochure (1925), which was strategically titled and treated as “Unit News” rather than an act of solicitation, the SIC members offer a section titled, “A Word About China and Chungking,” in which the authors make a similar case for striking while the iron is hot. Suggesting that China was ripe for external influence, they say,

Now that China has awakened from her age-long period of seclusion and superstition, she is studying the outside world for example and inspiration. Christianity has been discredited by the World War and European diplomatic and commercial methods. America must work hard and fast to counteract these adverse influences and spread the higher ideals of true religion and social brotherhood.

We see in this passage additional remarks indicating China’s inferior practices of “seclusion and superstition” and the importance of instilling more superior Christian values. This approach, especially of needing to take advantage of a globalizing world, continues throughout their literature, even into the 1940s.25

In much of the literature from the 1940s, however, China is positioned as offering something in return that is culturally valuable. For example, in one SIC pamphlet published in 194526, members refer to the Chinese’s “mature philosophy.” Although “industrialization and technological advance” via Westernization are still designated as perquisites to achieving these ends, SIC members nonetheless illustrate a more mutually beneficial relationship than in

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25 In 1945, for example, one pamphlet includes the following subsection (fully titled “Far-Sighted Patriotism in the Year One A.B.” to mark the historical moment of being in the first year after the invention of the atomic bomb), which I rewrite here:

Far-Sighted Patriotism in the Year One A.B./
We have begun a new era, the era of the Atomic Bomb. Splitting the atom is the most significant advance of man since the discovery of fire. For years we have talked of “One World,” but now we confront the reality. When no part of the globe is more than twenty-four hours from any other part, all men become neighbors. China’s technological advance is of importance to the whole world. The mature philosophy of these people is needed to make a stable world, but, before her philosophy will be heeded, industrialization and technological advancement must come. Our government thinks this task is so important that your gifts to Syracuse-in-China will cost you little.

The SIC cites the current historical moment as presenting a pressing situation requiring immediate action from the SIC. Twenty-four years after prior appeals to an internationalizing world, SIC members name the current moment as finally realizing this inevitability of a “One World.” Even more compelling, perhaps, is that the SIC names the US government as already in place as a primary sponsor, which denotes a nationalized level of support for missionary initiatives like the SIC.

26 See the above footnote.
previous years’ literature. It is certainly true that in the 1920s SIC members considered human resources to be one of China’s attributes (in addition to natural resources). Still, even this recognition was tainted with hints of superiority. For example, Chinese were described by the SIC in the 1920s as being “people of amazing physical vitality, capable of out-working and under-living” others and as “an adaptable people, cheerful in the face of hardship and suffering, courteous, loyal, practical.” These descriptions may be complimentary in a “willing and able to be helped” sort of way, but these are not necessarily the kinds of descriptions one might expect of a culture deemed by the speaker to be of equal value and worthy of learning from. These artifacts may also be interpreted as constructing a capitalistic rhetoric of exploitation, whereby workers and people of a nation-state are exploited in the name of Western needs and ends.

My initial viewing of this archive file indeed led to a hypothesis that the SIC’s rhetorical framing of Chinese people was, over time, progressing away from an initial strong ethnocentric and colonial point of view to a more reciprocal understandings of the kinds of cultural exchange possible through the program. My observation, however, was based on limited data and analysis. It was to my surprise and delight, then, when I came across within this archive a thesis written by an SU student titled, The Syracuse-in-China Missionary Unit, published in 1981, whereby the author, Dale Whittam, an American Studies honors student, “explores the maturation of the missionary mentality by way of a case study on the Syracuse-in-China Unit” (1). His more comprehensive analysis— which I would categorize as rhetorical in nature and which included analysis of the more extensive SIC archive as well as interviews with and a surveying of living SIC members—demonstrated that the SIC’s promotional brochures “presented a negative picture of Chinese people, depicting them as backward and heathen.
Western missionaries perceived the Chinese as inferior, but not beyond help: Christian help” (2). He comments on the overall rhetorical approach of these brochures as follows:

“Comparisons of the two cultures, with US superior, was chosen to be the best ‘sales pitch’” (3).

However, after an extended analysis and relying substantially on the testimonies of living SIC members, he argues that the SIC Unit progressed over the years in that their prejudices and ethnocentric stances lessened:

Syracuse-in-China, as a case study, shows how the cultural assumptions held by early missionaries to China dissipated over the years. Missionaries became more receptive to Chinese people, more tolerant to cultures and ways unlike their own more admiring of China’s indigenous culture. The change occurred gradually and resulted mainly because of the prolonged missionary exposure to Chinese culture.

In fact, he claims that “By 1947, the SIC Unit had no strains of narrow-mindedness or ethnocentrism.” While Whittam’s thesis supports my initial observations of the SIC archive, I was not fully convinced of his final conclusion that “no strains” of ethnocentrism remained. I frankly suspect that Whittam’s reliance on interviews with living SIC members—and perhaps because the genres of narrative and history powerfully compel writers to wrap-up with claims of hope and progression—led him to overly empathize with and then unjustifiably relieve living SIC members from their still narrow-minded and ethnocentric behaviors that were demonstrated while in the program. Even a limited analysis of the archive provides evidence suggesting that the SIC program’s values, while progressing in a less-ethnocentric fashion, continued to emerge from elitist thinking despite their best intentions. The major difference in thinking and in approach between the 1920s SIC and the 1940s SIC that I observe has to do with the primary purpose of the organization. SIC consistently claimed that they had three goals, which again were evangelistic, educational, and medical. Despite claiming the three visions
were addressed equally, in the 1920s it appears that the SIC seemed to focus most on evangelistic efforts. In the 1940s, however, their focus skewed to be mostly about education, particularly education in English. And therein lies the group’s ongoing pursuit to colonize and deem Chinese culture and language as inferior.

![Figure 2. Syracuse-in-China’s 1945 Brochure Clipping.](image)

In 1943, SU formed a relationship with their so-called “sister” college, West China Union University (WCUU). Similar to what other missionary groups at US universities were doing at the time, SIC established this connection with WCUU. Their efforts, of course, were not completely void of religious foci; through teaching English in Chungking, the writers of the brochure say, “young graduates of Syracuse University might render valuable service both to the cause of international goodwill and to global Christianity.” Nevertheless, the relationship with WCUU represents SIC’s shift toward expanding their new primary focus among the three goals: from religion to education. In their 1945 literature, SIC writers invite their readership of

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27 The SIC literature names Cornell, Smith, and Harvard among others as doing similar missionary work where the teaching of English became central.
SU students to consider teaching English abroad. Above, in Figure 2, is a clipping from one part of their promotional material. I provide the language here verbatim for ease of reading:

China’s Desire for English Teachers /
China does not ask for hundreds of doctors and scientist and engineers. China does ask for hundreds of English teachers. A knowledge of English is necessary if young Chinese men and women are to take advanced study in medicine or any other branch of science. The Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek’s Ten Year Medical Plan—one of many for the reconstruction of the country—calls for our sympathetic assistance. The sending of English teachers is a benefit of every branch of modern knowledge. Doctors, scientists, engineers—China will call these, of course, but not in numbers comparable to the number of English teachers needed.

The SIC writers make clear with their announcement that the teaching of English to Chinese people is a prerequisite to their progressing as a nation and culture. Through their request and perceived need for English literacy, the Chinese are still positioned as inferior and US culture and the English language superior: they need “our sympathetic assistance” in order to have the opportunity to access our “advanced study” and “modern knowledge.” Despite Whittam’s seemingly understandable assumption that after “prolonged missionary exposure to Chinese culture” the SIC was more “receptive” and “tolerant” to (and even in admiration of) non-Western ways, the ultimate goal remained: While closer to cultural exchange, the outcome of SIC was unidirectional banking, with US customs and language deemed the superior knowledge to deposit.

It is easy to assume that colonial and ethnocentric points of view are a thing of the past—that the end of programs such as the Syracuse-in-China Unit likewise mark an end to these undesirable perceptions. However, histories that address the treatment of English literacy as a tool for spreading Western knowledges should be considered just as relevant to the WPA as are the current material realities and perspectives impacting our local contexts.
Today’s monolingualist approach to US higher education (Horner; Horner and Trimbur; Matsuda “The Myth”) are infused with English-only and other nationalist, ethnocentric, and even xenophobic practices and perceptions that were constructed long before our current moment.

Conclusion

Internationalization is a highly cultural and value-ridden matter informed by competing rhetorics that unavoidably affect student writing and language use in institutional settings and far beyond. Understanding institutional approaches to internationalization requires researchers to consider historical, rhetorical, and interpersonal angles. Striving for institutional change, particularly in the realm of how language and writing is understood and treated, is a rhetorical enterprise. It is about changing minds and values, not just systems and practices. Even when administrators are privy to insider and historical information about their local context, their audience is still unpredictable and in many facets unknowable. Yet, it is difficult to imagine institutional systems being in line with current research in Writing Studies (including, and namely, scholarship on translingualism and Second Language Writing) without first changing the values and ideologies held by the institution’s constituencies and grounded within its systems. Tackling the problems that accompany internationalization in US higher education institutions is no small matter and no easy task. It is difficult enough to be present and available as a WPA when matters of internationalization are raised among university administrators and authorities. It is further challenging to be prepared to make compelling cases in those moments about how and why the change WPAs seek in light of internationalization should in fact occur. In order to heighten awareness of our institutional realities—and when we have the means to do so—we as WPAs should engage in not only surveying current perspectives and
realities but also conducting historical research, including the kinds of archival-based research I describe and analyze here. If we are serious about coming to the metaphorical table better armed with institutional facts and values that may be considered more compelling by university administrators, then findings from institutional research, including historical research, is imperative to seek. The limitations of this study and my position as a graduate student prevented the application of my historical analysis to real administrative practice. In lieu of demonstration, I propose some practical uses of historical and archival research in which WPAs could engage.

The most obvious practical advantage historical and archival research offers the WPA is to arm her with institutional knowledge not often afforded to administrators, especially those who do not have a long employment history at their university or who may not be aware of the institutional narratives and histories floating about. With information gained from historical institutional research, the WPA is better positioned to incite historically informed discussions; to back those conversations with institution-specific historical evidence; and to anticipate ideological or other sorts of throwback from her audience. As WPAs’ work often relies on dialogue and interpersonal relations, having historical knowledge that specifically reveals ideological constructs serves as more than background information that sparks a WPA’s pursuit of new initiatives; instead, this information gleaned can be brought to the foreground, acting as evidence that supports the very changes proposed. In other words, while better understanding our institutions’ histories certainly makes us critically conscious, this knowledge can and should also be shared and applied in ways that unveils for other university administrators the exigency behind our administrative pursuits.
Beyond historical evidence surfacing in conversation, attempts to document and publish WPA institutional research (e.g., in letters, proposal and grant writing, articles published in university newspapers or academic journals, and presentations given at university events and beyond) offers the advantage of building ethos. Methodologically speaking, historical research is established as credible in the academy and could provide more widely regarded empirical grounding to support anecdotal or other evidence. Thus, being equipped with not only historical knowledge but also published accounts of our research can support our agendas in that this knowledge becomes public and our audience may attribute heightened value and credibility to published artifacts. In the case of Syracuse University, and as revealed in this chapter, cross-cultural conflict remains one of the biggest concerns of university administrators who frequently work with English language learners. While these administrators’ expert advice alone may not provide a compelling-enough reason to enact university-wide programs for cross-cultural training (a frustrating and unfortunate reality, to be sure), making public historical evidence demonstrating that colonial and ethnocentric points of view have long been imbedded in SU’s culture may help build a case for said programs that could be considered more persuasive by university audiences.

Given that shared values and ideologies are deep-seated and pervasive within any culture, administrators of higher education should account for their institution’s current and historical practices and then assess whether they are currently aligned with (or historically informed by) ideologies that are detrimental to making our institutions run ethically and be all-inclusive. While this is important work for all university administrators, WPAs in particular will benefit from discovering the ideological sources of their institution’s systems, practices, and
perceptions, for a number of reasons. If we accept that long standing ideologies and structures in the university provide potential challenges to the kinds of institutional changes needed to better support an internationalized student body, then administrators would be at an advantage when discovering how and why the current situations were historically constructed. Gaining a historical perspective may equip administrators with evidence that could assist in working within institutional confines and ideologies to transform structures that may not permit the development of much needed language and rhetoric support for ELL students in US universities. In essence, as the ideologies we uncover may be at odds with disciplinary views of English language, writing, and the teaching of both, this research would provide insight into just what we are up against. It enhances our ability to know our audiences, what values appeal to them, and thus make more persuasive arguments.
CHAPTER 4

An Administrative Account and Politics of Enacting Writing Resources for Graduate ELLs

Enacting change in institutions is a highly complicated and rhetorical process. It often requires time-consuming and labor-intensive negotiation of a variety of factors, including historical, material, and ideological forces that construct institutional systems, structures, and values. In Chapter 3, I examined the benefits of writing program administrators (WPAs) researching their institutions for current and historical approaches to internationalization, especially for the purposes of uncovering ideologies about language and internationalization deeply engrained in our local higher education contexts. My study of the current perspectives floating about at Syracuse University (SU) regarding the increased presence of English language learners (ELLs) illustrated, among other things, that some SU administrators believe there is currently a lack of resources afforded to international ELLs. My own participation in the SU Writing Program led me to a similar conclusion (see the Introduction for more about this) and eventually resulted in efforts to develop of a new resource for ELLs at SU in the form of a graduate-level writing course. In this chapter, I extend my investigation of the benefits of WPAs engaging in and then sharing our institutional research by drawing on my own experiences administering this course and negotiating an array of institutional politics along the way.

As US higher education continues to internationalize and as students become more linguistically diverse, change is likely to occur at our colleges and universities. WPAs may be the target of added institutional pressure or be charged outright to discover new ways to support the increased presence of ELLs. This occurrence—of institutions turning to WPAs to address the
effects of student diversity—can be likened to the disciplinary history of Writing Studies whereby the change in student population resulted in changes to student writing and, then, to writing curriculum. It is indicative of the recurring disciplinary problem of trying to convince university administrators of why and how the institution might better respond to student writing and the teaching of it, and why and how we as WPAs should be afforded the resources we need to effectively and ethically get the job done.

I cannot claim that my study remedies these historical battles that the field and its constituencies continue to face. On the one hand, WPAs may openly recognize the need to transform their programs—through institutional research and assessment, interdepartmental collaboration, professional development, teacher training, graduate curriculum, etc.—so that they are more conducive to their institution’s internationalized and linguistically diverse students, as the scholarship from Writing Studies that I summarized in Chapter 1 makes clear. On the other hand, most any writing program in US higher education is already tight for resources (for a number of other historical and highly political reasons), and taking on the additional task of establishing new programs and approaches that support ELLs or that adopt translingual dispositions may appear daunting if not impossible.

By way of example, in this chapter I analyze the institutional politics I faced when administering a graduate-level writing course for ELLs called Writing 600: “Advanced Writing and Rhetoric for English Language Learners” (hereafter, Writing 600). In Tom Fox and Rita Malenczyk’s contributing chapter to A Rhetoric for Writing Program Administrators, they define
institutional politics in the context of WPA work as “the power relations present, yet often hidden, in any college or university [that] can affect the WPA in any number of profound and sometimes less-than-pleasant ways” (314). Given that stakes are high, resources are tight, and institutional politics are often opaque yet impactful, I apply an administrative focus to my case study of Writing 600 in order to document and exemplify the kinds of issues that can arise in these situations, factors that administrators in other contexts may benefit from considering. I want to be clear that the purpose of the research I present in this chapter is not to compel other WPAs to enact similar courses as the one I describe. I also have no intentions to sell my pedagogical approach.  

Instead, I offer in this chapter my situated administrative praxis narrative of implementing a new writing resource (within the constraints of my program) to offer one example of what can go well, what can go wrong, what others might try, and what I will implement in future efforts. My administrative experience revealed a number of insights regarding the processes and politics involved in developing a course like Writing 600. Since ultimately the Writing Program could not sustain the course, there were important factors contributing to this result worth interrogating. Because I believe that the current trend to internationalize and to diversify our campus will necessarily result in many WPAs working toward enacting new writing resources for ELLs (by their own admission or otherwise), I aim with this chapter to provide WPAs with some examples, information, and questions to consider based on my experience with Writing 600.

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29 Despite my focus on administration, I want to add that there were many interesting discoveries made relating to pedagogy and to graduate ELL students’ experiences writing in English and seeking education at US institutions. But given my current focus and the spatial constraints of this chapter and dissertation, I will not discuss those issues here. That said, since writing program administration and writing pedagogy are inextricably tied, I will at times mention pedagogical and student-related issues when they are relevant to my examination of administrative politics.
One of the most common changes that has long taken place in response to internationalization and an increasingly linguistically diverse student population is the creation of writing courses designated for ELLs. Most of these courses are offered as pathway undergraduate courses designated as a means for students to meet university writing requirements. Writing requirements in graduate studies, contrastingly, are typically overseen in classrooms and programs across the disciplines and not at the institutional level. Given this, and despite the intense needs of graduate student writers of any language, graduate-level ELL writing courses subsist in much smaller numbers on a national level and many institutions do not offer them at all. When they are offered, they serve very different purposes than do their undergraduate counterparts, mostly given the nature of graduate studies and writing. It is no surprise, furthermore, that since courses for ELL graduate students are not common, neither is the research that would address and study them. For administrators interested in (or charged with) enacting such writing courses or even similar resources in their institutions, examples in the literature are few.

To address this gap, based on my case study of Writing 600, I examine the new perspectives I gained from my local context on what it means to negotiate the very real material constraints of departments and the (sometimes more challenging) material and ideological constraints of the institution. Namely, the issue and politics of remediation surfaced on numerous occasions. Given disciplinary concerns about remediation, my findings and their implications may be informative and relevant to other administrators striving to implement similar resources, for ELLs or otherwise, so as to better address this concern. In the remainder of this chapter, I review and analyze some of the literature on ELL graduate writing and writing
courses, provide my narrative of Writing 600, and conclude with a taxonomy of administrative concerns WPAs may benefit from considering when developing similar resources. As will be made apparent, while many of my findings from Writing 600 support those described in the literature reviewed in the sections below, other issues I confronted extend and complicate this knowledge base in important ways.

Graduate ELL Writing, Writers, and Writing Courses

When WPAs implement a new resource for ELL writers, regardless of the type or level, it is useful to gain familiarity with disciplinary approaches and best practices that have been documented in the cross-disciplinary scholarship, including any studies that specifically address administrative concerns. In this section, because administration is inextricably tied to curriculum and pedagogy, I first provide some general background information on the research conducted on graduate ELL writing. Then, I summarize some of the sparse studies that explicitly address the teaching of a graduate-level ELL writing course. While in the second half of my chapter I attend to the administrative processes and politics involved, I aim with this review of literature to illustrate the array of pedagogical and student-related issues needing consideration by the WPA interested in creating new writing resources at the graduate level.

Researchers of writing began shifting their attention to graduate writing and writers as early as the 1980s (e.g., Huckin & Olsen; McKenna; Richards; Shen; Swales, “Utilizing the Literatures”). Since then, interest in graduate-level writing instruction for English language learners (ELLS) has continued to flourish (predominantly in the field of English for Academic Purposes). This turn has been partly in response to the growing number of graduate
international and domestic ELLs and partly due to the distinctive challenges that face graduate ELL writers on linguistic, textual, social, and political levels.

As mentioned in the Introduction, in addition to negotiating what is often a disparity between their advanced intellectual abilities and their lack of experience with or exposure to English language and writing, graduate ELLs engage in different and more advanced writing tasks than do their undergraduate counterparts. As research shows and as the current study supports, many entering graduate ELLs not only confront the task of writing longer, more complicated, and disciplinary-specific texts but are often writing in English for the first time outside of completing language proficiency exams like TOEFL\textsuperscript{30} (Dong). Graduate ELL students themselves, including those who participated in the current study, have often named writing in English as their biggest challenge (see also Burke and Wyatt-Smith). Further, since the requirement and assessment of graduate student writing, ELLs or otherwise, often act as gatekeeping mechanisms for graduation, job entrance, promotion, and professional development, the stakes are high (i.e., through the writing of theses, dissertations, job application or promotion materials, manuscripts for academic publication, grant proposals, etc.).

The complexities of graduate ELL writing, however, extend beyond high-stakes genres and language proficiency concerns. Researchers, for instance, have examined the challenges that graduate ELL writers face as individuals often entangled within cultural, interpersonal, and identity politics. In response, one key direction researchers have taken is to examine the sociopolitics of working with faculty, given that graduate ELLs often research and write under

\textsuperscript{30} TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) is one of the most common standardized exams of English language proficiency used globally by students pursuing higher education in English-speaking institutions.
the close mentorship of advisors, especially during the thesis and dissertation process or if collaborating with faculty on publications (Belcher, “The Apprenticeship Approach,” “An Argument for”; Blakeslee; Cho, “Challenges of Entering”; Prior, Writing-Disciplinarity, “Response”; Tardy, Building Genre, “It’s Like a Story”). Within this relationship and elsewhere, graduate ELLs often struggle with the “game playing” required to negotiate the “rules” of their disciplines and departments (Casanave, “Writing Games”), especially given their conflicting identities as novices and students on the one hand, and experts and legitimate peripheral participants (Lave and Wenger) on the other.

While faculty guidance no doubt plays a major part for all graduate students, faculty advising may have a greater impact on graduate ELLs and their disciplinary enculturation since graduate ELLs often find themselves more isolated, having or seeking less opportunities to develop their English and disciplinary literacies elsewhere (Dong). Despite the numerous political factors that might influence closer control of faculty over their ELL graduate students, Belcher (“The Apprenticeship Approach,” “An Argument for Nonadversarial”) has shown that students reported greater success in entering the discourse communities of their disciplines when afforded more occasions to apply their transcultural identities and experiences to their fields (see also Cho’s study on students’ use of local and transcultural knowledges to expand center perspectives).

31 Studies on the phenomenon of student-faculty interactions often adopt the analytical perspective on learning developed by anthropologists Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger in their Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation. Based on numerous case studies of trade-based apprenticeships, the authors advance that situated learning via authentic albeit peripheral participation assists in the disseminating of skills, practices, and traditions valued by specific communities of practice (e.g., Berkenkotter, Huckin, and Ackerman; Casanave “Writing Games”; Li “A Doctoral Student,” “Negotiating Knowledge”; Prior Writing-Disciplinarity).
Given the vast findings on the challenges of graduate ELL writing and the desire from students and their faculty for written communication support to be made available, that there are few resources and courses available to them (on a national level) as they write is, at the very least, counterintuitive (Mullen). Furthermore, it is interesting that while faculty may agree that their graduate ELLs need additional resources aimed at developing their writing in English, many do not believe it is their responsibility or “job” to provide that support (Cooley and Lewkowicz; Jordan and Kedrowicz). Meanwhile, as the student participants of this study communicated, more explicit instruction in English and writing is highly needed, sought, and desired (see also Watson).

The lack of resources for graduate ELLs has left many students no choice but to enroll in courses designed for undergraduate ELLs where the content and approaches—while well intentioned and productive for certain graduate students and to a certain degree—may be irrelevant given the demands of graduate-level disciplinary-specific writing. These undergraduate ELL writing courses, which graduate ELLs are sometimes required to take by their advisors, departments, or institutions and which oftentimes will not count toward their advanced degrees even as electives, take precious time away from their disciplinary studies and no doubt leave many feeling frustrated if not outright resentful (Frodesen). The pursuit to internationalize higher education in the US, and certainly at Syracuse University, has resulted in significant increases to international ELL populations at the graduate level. That this student population—alongside other ELL populations—are not sufficiently supported given their distinctive needs thwarts actualization of a truly internationalized educational system and experience. Given the current cultural climate existing at SU surrounding internationalization
and ELL writing (as I discussed in Chapter 3), the lack of support made available for these students is not likely a result of simply being unsure about how to help support students. It is more likely a result of assumptions that students themselves are responsible for catching themselves up or, alternatively, that service departments (like the Writing Program and English Language Institute) are solely responsible for improving ELL writing and should either absorb costs or further bill the student.

*Graduate Level Writing Courses for ELLs*

While few in number, there is an important group of scholars who have researched explicitly the development of graduate-level writing courses designed for international and domestic English language learning students. As previously indicated, researchers working out of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) are primarily responsible for pursuing graduate ELL writing as a subject of scholarly inquiry. EAP, as a field, is a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and, more generally, of the discipline of English Language Teaching (ELT) (interchangeable with the discipline of TESOL, the Teaching of English as a Second or Other Language). ESP commonly tailors to the teaching of English for specific trades or business contexts (e.g., Workplace English, Finance English, Scientific English, etc.), while EAP’s specific focus is teaching Academic English and typically within higher education contexts.

EAP courses, given their nature and the distinctive needs of the students they serve, depend significantly on the demands of their institutional setting, are necessarily complex, and vary significantly in their focus and approach. In the US, although some EAP instruction is designed for specific disciplines (e.g., EAP courses for engineers only), many are interdisciplinary. While interdisciplinarity is common and likely more manageable in general
writing courses at the undergraduate level, the EAP classroom (at either the undergraduate or graduate level) presents different challenges to the instructor who is often not an expert in (or even familiar with) all of the many disciplines in which students write toward and study in their EAP programs, workshops, and courses. In EAP graduate classrooms (which are more commonly studied and enacted than undergraduate EAP courses perhaps for obvious reasons of graduates encountering more complex and advanced disciplinary-specific writing), students vary not only in their disciplines but also in their educational backgrounds, current progress in their graduate degrees, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, and experiences reading and writing in English. Thus, the EAP graduate classroom and its teachers’ pedagogies are necessarily driven by students’ disciplinary expertise and individualized needs. This situated and student-centered approach could mean that, for instance, students’ assignments and assessments differ and are tailored to their specialization and departmental demands.

However, according to Jan Frodesen, three variables significantly impact the extent to which the EAP course can be driven by students’ needs: “(a) university or departmental [ELL] requirements, (b) the instructor’s preferences for structuring writing assignments, [and] (c) the length of the course” (334). In her 1995 essay, Frodesen discusses her experience teaching a graduate writing course with ELLs using such a student-centered approach (what she calls “a learning-centered, interactive approach,” 331). In her course, students are active participants in negotiating the writing assignments they complete and provide feedback on the directions the course takes. Identifying the needs and wants of students early on is central to this method. Frodesen, for instance, uses questionnaires, consultations, and class discussion to learn more about students’ goals and concerns for developing their writing in English. Student-teacher
conferencing, in fact, proves to be a common feature of courses like Frodesen’s, as they provide the necessary one-on-one time required for student-centered pedagogies and since students’ writing tasks are so specific and advanced. For Frodesen, learning from students in these contexts is key: “Individual conferences with students...offer opportunities for students to share their expertise with the teacher and to explain the content, purpose, and audience for their papers” (343). More than being active participants in EAP courses like Frodesen’s, then, students are necessarily participating experts in their field as well. Frodesen’s students are challenged to “be ethnographers of their disciplines” (344); thus, she focuses her course content on helping students learn how to study and participate in the discourses of their discipline, another common outcome for EAP courses at the graduate level.

In Frodesen’s case and others’, however, the negotiation of the syllabus continues beyond student-teacher interactions in the EAP classroom. Instead, it reflects joined efforts between the students, the students’ faculty mentors (when and if they are involved), and the writing instructor. Seeking collaboration with students’ departmental advisors is thus a commonly sought relationship in EAP courses as it allows for students to receive feedback from mentors in their department on disciplinary knowledge and rhetorics that the writing teacher may not be able to provide. In some cases, the EAP instructor actually meets and interviews with students’ faculty advisors throughout the course (i.e., in order to gain additional insight on students’ needs and other disciplinary matters) (Richards), or the faculty member is invited to students’ presentations or to participate in assessing students’ written and oral projects. A final contributing social element to EAP courses like Frodesen’s is peer collaboration. Although there is some concern “mostly from the students themselves) over the extent to which ELL peers from
differing disciplines may assist in developing their classmates’ writing, it is commonly argued that receiving and providing peer feedback allows for interesting and productive discoveries not likely possible if working with students of the same discipline (see Silva et al.; Norris and Tardy).

While the design of EAP courses like Frodesen’s often varies from context to context, many of the issues she raises and approaches she takes appear in published accounts of similar courses. Frodesen’s article is one of a sixteen texts I located that explicitly discusses the development and teaching of graduate-level academic writing courses for ELLs. Eleven of the sixteen texts I examined are summarized in Table 1. The Table provides a snapshot of each texts’ description of (a) context, including the author, publication year, institution, and department; (b) course logistics, including the length, name, and student capacity of the course as well as whether it was required, graded, and/or taken as pass/fail; (c) course focus, including disciplinary tradition (i.e., EAP, ESP, ESL, genre analysis, corpus linguistics) and student assignments; and (d) students served, including the number of students served as well as information on students’ graduate degree pursued (i.e., master’s, doctorate, or both), discipline or department, and cultural/linguistic background. All fields were completed based on information provided in the respective publications; therefore, if specifics are missing (such as the course name or student demographics), it is because this information could not be located in the original text. I extract this information in Table 1 for the purposes of providing a quick overview of some of the models available to teachers and administrators of graduate-level ELL

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32 Five of the sixteen texts I located (Casanave, “Multiple Uses”; Hirvela; Storch and Tapper; Swales and Lindemann; and Turner and Bitchener) are not included in the table below for reasons of relevance. While these five texts do describe advanced writing courses geared to graduate ELLs, their focus is not explicitly on the development, design, or implementation of such a course. Instead, most of these authors aim to explore a particular pedagogical issue to do with advanced ELL writing courses, such as teaching the literature review (Swales and Lindemann; Turner and Bitchener), using portfolios (Hirvela), or utilizing applied linguistics literature (Casanave), while the last source reports on assessing the impact these courses have on students (Storch and Tapper). The issues these five texts raise are considered in my overall discussion; however, their specialized foci made them less applicable to my current analysis, and so they were not included in the summative table below.
writing courses. Referencing the full articles, of course, will help clarify the range of issues taken up in this literature.

Table 1. Overview of Published Accounts on Graduate Writing Courses for ELLs.

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<th>Context</th>
<th>Course Logistics</th>
<th>Course Focus</th>
<th>Students Served</th>
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| **Richards, 1988**  
Utah State University, US; Department of Range Science | Four-week summer course for EFL students; departmental requirement; students recruited by faculty | ESP and needs analysis approaches; students drafting self-selected sections of their theses or dissertations | Range Science master's and doctoral ELL students; students represent a wide range of countries and linguistic backgrounds |
| **Silva et al., 1994**  
Purdue University, US; ESL Writing Program | Semester-long pass/fail course titled, English 002; required for ELL graduate students who failed the university writing requirement exam; 10 students max per section | EAP approach; students work on five graduate genre-specific assignments (an informal autobiographical essay, curriculum vitae and cover letter for a specific job, summary of text in field, persuasive research proposal, and essay exam response) | Multidisciplinary master’s and doctoral ELL students; predominantly Asian |
| **Frodeson, 1995**  
University of California, Los Angeles, US | Ten-week semester-long course required for some ELL students based on a diagnostic exam | ESL approach; students complete an annotated bibliography and then draft two self-selected papers (once proposals are negotiated) | Multidisciplinary doctoral and some master's ELL students; sixteen students enrolled; students represent a wide range of countries and linguistic backgrounds |
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<th>Context</th>
<th>Course Logistics</th>
<th>Course Focus</th>
<th>Students Served</th>
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<tr>
<td>Dudley-Evans, 1995</td>
<td>Semester-long common-core course</td>
<td>Genre analysis approach; students perform discourse and genre analysis and write full or partial self-selected authentic texts</td>
<td>Multidisciplinary 1-year Master’s, PhD, and some MPhil students; though predominantly Asian, students represent a wide range of countries and linguistic backgrounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Birmingham, UK; English for Overseas Students Unit</td>
<td>Semester-long team-taught writing course language teacher collaborating with subject teacher</td>
<td>Language-subject cooperative teaching approach; students complete varying disciplinary-based writing tasks (i.e., examination answers, assignments, and theses)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Semester-long writing club; students meet in groups for workshoping drafts</td>
<td>Process approach; students draft self-selected authentic texts and participate in peer review sessions</td>
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<td>Allison et al., 1998</td>
<td>Five three-hour voluntary workshops over a period of four months; later version did either intensive weeks or met once or twice a week</td>
<td>EAP approach; centered around dissertation writing; students bring self-selected drafts to use for analysis and revision; students draft and revise throughout</td>
<td>Multidisciplinary ELL graduate students; 105 registered but only 21 completed; later version had max of 40; students represent a wide range of countries and linguistic backgrounds</td>
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<td>University of Hong Kong, China; The English Centre</td>
<td>Semester-long Integrated Bridging Program (IBP) taken during students' first semester</td>
<td>Language- and genre-based instruction and academic induction approaches; students negotiate with their departmental supervisors and then complete research writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cargill et al., 2001</td>
<td>Semester-long course required for architecture students to take in their first semester; 2 elective credits</td>
<td>EAP approach; students complete various architecture-specific assignments in addition to practicing note taking, paraphrasing, citation, and writing bibliographies</td>
<td>Multidisciplinary ELL graduate students; students represent a wide range of countries and linguistic backgrounds</td>
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<td>Adelaide University, AU; Language and Learning Service</td>
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<td>Swales et al., 2001</td>
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<td>University of Michigan, English Language Institute in collaboration with Architecture</td>
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<td>Architecture Master’s ELL students; 80 students served; 20 students per class; predominantly Asian</td>
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<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>Course Logistics</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Swales and Luebs, 2002</strong>&lt;br&gt;University of Michigan, US; English Language Institute</td>
<td>Six-week voluntary summer course, titled, &quot;Writing Up and Presenting Psychological Research: A Special Course for Non-Native Speakers of English&quot;; students are encouraged by faculty</td>
<td>EAP and discourse and genre analysis approaches; students analyze and practice IMRD format and write curriculum vitae, as well as letters of application, recommendation, and submission; as a final project, students present a conference poster in the presence of their departmental community</td>
<td>Psychology ELL graduate students and one visiting scholar; predominantly Asian</td>
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<td><strong>Melles et al., 2005</strong>&lt;br&gt;University of Melbourne, AU; The Centre for Communication Skills and ESL</td>
<td>Semester-long credit-bearing course titled, &quot;Introduction to Built Environment Studies&quot;; entering graduate ELL students automatically enrolled, though some granted exemptions based on demonstrating language proficiency</td>
<td>EAP approach; students work on three projects mirroring the three disciplinary-specific core courses completed in the first year of the architecture degree.</td>
<td>Entering ELL graduate students from four disciplines: Landscape Architecture, Urban Planning, Property and Construction, as well as Architecture; 46 students (18 exempt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lee and Swales; 2006</strong>&lt;br&gt;University of Michigan, US; English Language Institute</td>
<td>Semester-long voluntary credit-bearing course titled, ELI 630: “Exploring your own discourse world”; 2 elective credits</td>
<td>Corpus-informed EAP approach; students access, learn about, and analyze specialized corpora and then compile 2 sets of individualized corpora; the final project is an oral presentation on their findings</td>
<td>5 Multidisciplinary ELL graduate students and 1 visiting scholar; predominantly Chinese</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Norris and Tardy, 2006</strong>&lt;br&gt;Purdue University, US; ESL Writing Program</td>
<td>Semester-long pass/fail course titled, English 002: “Written Communication for ESL Graduate Students”; required for ELL graduate students who failed the university writing requirement exam</td>
<td>EAP as well as composition and rhetoric approaches; students work on five assignments (a writer’s autobiography; a resume and cover letter; a conference proposal; a conference poster; and a final genre of students’ choice)</td>
<td>Multidisciplinary master’s and doctoral ELL graduate students; predominantly Asian</td>
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Although later I catalog in more detail the many considerations facing administrators of writing courses for graduate ELLs, the information represented in the table above already begins to illuminate a number of attention-worthy themes and issues. For one, it is surprising that the texts were published over a period of eighteen years, yet only sixteen surface. There is no doubt that more published examples exist than those summarized here (especially since I have been selective to only include those texts that focus explicitly on the development, pedagogical approaches, and politics of ELL graduate-level writing courses). It is also true that the number of articles published on graduate-level writing courses is not necessarily reflective of available course offerings. These courses are likely taught by full-time teachers and adjuncts who may not have the time for publishing, or they may be situated in English language institutes where they are less accessible in terms of research by graduate students or tenure-track faculty. As indicated earlier, where research on graduate ELL writing is abundant are through examinations of faculty mentorship. Furthermore, then, the lack of attention to researching actual courses designed for ELL graduate students may speak to the likelihood that faculty mentorship is where a lot of these students receive training in writing, making the issue of faculty mentorship where most research on graduate ELL writing is centered.

Together, the texts represent four countries and seven higher education institutions. The respective courses point to variations in length and overall approach. While many authors report on semester-long courses, some describe shorter condensed courses offered over the summer or even as a series of workshops. Further, all can be classified as EAP courses; however, these teacher researchers often distinguish their pedagogical approach as being informed by traditions in ESP, Linguistics, Genre Studies, and (in one case and to a minor
extent) Composition and Rhetoric. Writing assignments vary from being student-selected authentic texts based on requirements from their departments (e.g., dissertation or thesis chapters) to assignments designated by the teacher or by department-set curriculum (e.g., assignments based on graduate genres like proposals, conference posters, or examination answers), or some combination of both. Although a majority of the courses described are interdisciplinary, some are designed specifically for certain disciplines and sometimes offered within certain outside departments (e.g., Architecture or Psychology).

The column in Table 1 that covers course logistics helps to further indicate some of the institutional politics impacting EAP writing courses for graduate ELLs. While many authors do not include full accounts on the course name and numbers or discuss whether it was required and offered credit or not, those who do provide interesting results. The Table shows that some are offered as required pass/fail courses for students who failed diagnostic exams, others as required classes offering elective credits that do not count toward their degrees, and others as voluntary-based electives (leaving it up to students to carve out time from their studies and busy schedules to get the support they need). The politics revealed here may have to do with certain material realities or the extent to which the courses’ respective universities and departments consider the courses to be remedial and worthy of university credit. We can easily imagine that these courses often require special expertise and ongoing departmental resources (often including funding) and that students of these courses also must negotiate a number of political issues (e.g., having their motivations and needs met, managing their course load, extending graduation time, negotiating with financial sponsors, seeking additional support from mentors). That quite a few authors do not address these kinds of issues may perpetuate
assumptions that such considerations are not critical to fully understanding the context of these courses and the political experiences of their teachers and students.

That said, many of the authors of these texts overtly address important political concerns. Interestingly, although perhaps not all that surprisingly, many of the issues they raise and that I detail below still exist in graduate and undergraduate writing programs regardless of their focus or not on ELLs. In their coauthored 1994 published account and analysis of a graduate-level writing course for ELLs, Tony Silva, Melinda Reichelt, and Joanne Lax-Farr raise a number of issues for administrators of similar courses to consider. Among other things, for instance, they question the problematic nature of the university writing requirement and assessment procedures that place students in their graduate ELL writing course in the first place. They also question whether such a course should be voluntary, interdisciplinary, taught by language and writing specialists (instead of disciplinary experts) and whether instruction should or should not focus on grammar, interdisciplinary peer collaboration, and students writing for “non-specialist audiences.” These same concerns, as most WPAs can attest, are pervasive within the full range of what writing programs negotiate at programmatic and institutional levels.

Norris and Tardy provide additional reflection eight years later on the same graduate EAP pass/fail no-credit course offered at Purdue University that Silva et al. write about. Specifically, Norris and Tardy address the institutional politics of placement, credit, and grading. Based on conversations and interviews with students, the authors express concern over how to negotiate as teachers the assigning of heavy workloads and having high expectations when the course is pass/fail and offers no credit. As a result of this institutional requirement, the course
does not count toward their advanced degrees (as it is assigned a 002 course number), is often taught by graduate students from the English department or ESL Writing Program, and is limited in its workload so much that some students consider it to be “easy.” Norris and Tardy question the benefits and pitfalls of these factors. For example, they note that on the one hand a graduate student as teacher and more lenient course requirements provide a safe and relaxed classroom environment; on the other hand, this may result in having a less experienced instructor, a different dynamic between student and teacher, and fewer opportunities to develop students’ writing than might be possible with a heavier workload. I would add, furthermore, that these factors—no-credit courses, graduate student teachers, and easier workloads—perpetuate remedial associations with graduate-level ELL writing courses.

The literature on graduate-level writing courses makes important strides toward documenting international programmatic initiatives to providing explicit writing instruction at the graduate level for ELL students; it draws out important implications of teaching such courses and helps to provide frameworks of issues needing consideration by teachers of comparable courses in other contexts. What these texts do not provide, even collectively, however, are detailed accounts of the administrative processes and politics involved when first developing and enacting writing courses for graduate ELLs in higher education\(^{33}\). Such a focus, as I will attempt to demonstrate in the section to follow, helps to unveil for other administrators the obstacles they might anticipate facing when advocating for similar courses to be implemented in their college or university, including conflicting material and ideological demands of students, departments, and institutions that impact such a process.

\(^{33}\) The authors of these texts also do not explicitly address the cultural politics of students in the contexts of EAP courses, nor do any discuss using critical and translingual approaches to teaching English language and writing. These issues are important and of interest but beyond the current focus and means of this chapter and dissertation.
The Administrative Processes and Politics of Writing 600

To extend the efforts of researchers examining graduate ELL writing courses, in this section I provide a praxis narrative of my experiences piloting Writing 600. While the literature on this topic has primarily analyzed these courses for their pedagogies, my account aims to offer a behind-the-scenes look into the processes and politics of administering the initial design and implementation of such a course. Thus, the anecdotes offered below were specially extracted from my field notes since they deal most explicitly with issues of administrative politics. Again, it should be acknowledged that while the issues I raise are a result of my administration of a graduate-level ELL writing course, the findings speak to the full range of issues attended to by WPAs. Of course, I also recognize (and so should readers) that this study and my claims are based on the situated circumstances of my program and institution, and so they may not readily apply to other contexts. Still, WPAs will recognize that the concerns I point to, such as the politics of remediation, affect all facets of WPA work, whether or not they have anything to do with ELLs and designing ELL writing courses.

About Writing 600

To give a brief account of the situation in which I was participating, I provide in this subsection some contextual information about Writing 600. (See the Introduction for more about how and why Writing 600 was initially developed). Two pilot sections of Writing 600 were offered in the 2011-2012 academic school year. Given the nature of pilot courses, my department chair agreed to limit registration to eight available spots so as to allow for additional time to develop curriculum, document the course’s proceedings, and archive textual materials and pedagogical reflections. When I advertised Writing 600, students across the
disciplines immediately showed interest and the course registration filled up quickly. Students varied significantly in their cultural and educational backgrounds, their disciplines, their experience with and training in English, and their current level and progress in their graduate studies. (See Chapter 2 for a more detailed breakdown of students’ backgrounds and disciplines.)

A total of fourteen students enrolled and passed the course, all of which agreed to act as participants in the research study attached to the course. Students were at different levels in their graduate studies and came from different disciplines. (For more on my research methods and the participants informing this study, see Chapter 2). During the course, students and I met each week for two hours as a group and then each student dedicated one hour per week to meet one-on-one with me (or, in some cases and less often, with an assigned SU Writing Center consultant). The group hours allowed time for students to engage in shared learning with their peers and to be exposed to other students’ writing, while the consultation hour provided the opportunity for each student to get one-on-one feedback that focused explicitly on his or her individual writing and writing needs.

The two pilot sections I taught were designed based on research in genre-based pedagogies, especially those described in the literature from English for Academic Purposes (like those described earlier in this chapter) and Rhetorical Genre Studies. Three major assignments guided the course trajectory and thus informed class discussions and activities as well as other smaller research and writing tasks. The first major assignment asked students to study, analyze, and write up a short report on the rhetorical conventions of a disciplinary-specific genre of their choice. The second major assignment asked students to learn about and
then perform discourse analysis on a number of articles in a self-selected journal based in their field. The third and final major assignment (which actually stretched the entire semester) was a sustained writing project based on an authentic and timely writing requirement students faced within their departments (e.g., conference paper or presentation, seminar paper, research article, dissertation chapter.).

While my hands were full with unexpected administrative and pedagogical challenges, the course was well received by students and seemed to help them develop their writing in English and their knowledge about research and writing in their disciplines (based on my own observations, classroom observations from two Writing Program staff and faculty, observations made by students’ faculty mentors, students’ writing, students’ interviews and testimonies, and the anonymous course evaluations students completed). On a personal note, designing and instructing the course was the most rewarding professional experience to date of my eight years of teaching. (See the Writing 600 syllabus in Appendix E for a more detailed account of the course design.)

Table 2. Overview of Writing 600.

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<th>Context</th>
<th>Course Logistics</th>
<th>Course Focus</th>
<th>Students Served</th>
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| **Watson**  
Syracuse University, US; Writing Program | Semester-long 3 credit course titled, "Writing 600: Advanced Writing and Rhetoric for English Language Learners"; students voluntarily enroll; 16 students max per section (8 students max in pilot version) | EAP, composition and rhetoric, genre studies; students work on 3 major assignments (2 genre analysis papers; 1 student-selected authentic writing project); other work includes ethnographic research of their field or department | Multidisciplinary ELL master's and doctoral students; students represent a wide range of countries and linguistic backgrounds |
Course Logistics and Politics

To design and implement Writing 600, I worked closely with our program director at the time, Dr. Eileen Schell. After proposing the course and its curriculum, we had a few preliminary issues to negotiate regarding Writing 600’s credit offered and workload. I had first advocated that the course should bear 1 unit of credit and that students be graded on a pass/fail basis. I had imagined that a 1-credit pass/fail course would help maintain a comfortable and low-stakes learning environment. But, as some studies show (namely, Norris and Tardy’s), the other side of the coin is that students may not be as motivated. Second, for my department, not assigning credit meant that the course would not generate tuition dollars, which could further perpetuate assumptions that writing programs should offer support for students as a service to the university rather than as a valued (both monetarily and ideologically) academic contribution. Additionally, faculty labor in our department at SU is already spread thin given the small size of the tenure-track faculty and the many demands they already manage to produce scholarship, serve as administrators, advise graduate students, and teach at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Even having me as a graduate teaching assistant pilot the course meant that the program had to absorb the cost when granting me a release from my normal teaching load, which was a one-time sacrifice made but not a sustainable option even if it was desirable for graduate students to teach it. Thus, we simply could not afford to offer Writing 600 on our current budget and without generating some sort of income.

A third major concern we considered is that 1-credit pass/fail courses offered within writing programs are historically viewed as remedial. Then, upon looking at the syllabus I had designed (see Appendix E), we both agreed that the workload was demanding and the course
goals advanced. This made the course comparable to other graduate courses offered at SU.

Rather than revising the course to reflect a 1-credit pass/fail requirement, we concluded that it was more appropriate and in our best interest that the course bear 3 graduate-level units. Bearing graduate-level credit, Writing 600 would also potentially provide the benefit of students using the course as elective credit to count toward their graduate degrees.

Assigning it a “600” number instead of an undergraduate number like “400,” we hoped, would not only better reflect the workload and expertise expected of students and would not only provide them with credit they could actually apply (albeit as elective credits); it would also help legitimize systemically within the university that the course was academically challenging and appropriate to be offered at the graduate level. (An even more undesirable approach, in our perspectives, could have been to use course numbers falling below our required first-year writing course number “105,” inaccurately portraying that the course served some sort of prerequisite for the basic undergraduate university requirement). This is also why I adjusted the course title from being, “Writing Enrichment for Second Language Writers” to be “Advanced Writing and Rhetoric for English Language Learners.” In short, the course number and title needed to reflect that its content and its students enrolled are advanced and the reputable and expansive field of Writing Studies informs the curriculum and course objectives. Moreover, neither version of the title included the term “international” (which would falsely assume that ELL students are not also domestic), and the final version did not use “Nonnative English Speaker” or even “Second Language Writer,” as such classifications are contested for promoting a deficit-model of ELL students.
Professor Schell and I ultimately made these decisions about the logistics of Writing 600 in order to establish credibility for the course, to offer usable credits to students, to maintain the department’s material demands, and to preemptively contest future assumptions of the course being remedial. Having Writing 600 bear 3 units of university graduate-level credit, however, led to some unexpected and undesirable outcomes. With only two weeks to go before the first day of the fall 2011 semester, we advertised the course (via an email flyer sent to graduate department listservs that directed students to email me in order to register). Within the next two weeks, I received nearly sixty emails from students interested in Writing 600. While I was immediately encouraged at what appeared to be a high demand for Writing 600 (especially since most students finalized their course schedules months ago), it was ultimately disappointing to learn that so many students would not be eligible for the course due to departmental policies, financial realities, and time constraints.

The issue was that many prospective students—depending on their status in the university and the policies of their department—discovered that they could not enroll in or secure funds to pay for the course. In particular, those who were not a Teaching or Research Assistant (TAs and RAs), and thus who were paying out of pocket, opted out because of costs, while those considered “visiting students” (who were studying at SU for a limited period and who were planning to graduate at a different institution, usually in their home countries) often found that their financial sponsors refused to pay for the tuition of the course. An unknown number of students did not attempt to enroll (I received more than a dozen inquiries about funding concerns) and a total of eight students had to drop upon realizing they could not cover the costs of the course. One student from Palestine who was studying at SU for two years
before returning to his home institution was pleased to arrange for his financial sponsor to pay for half the course, leaving the remaining balance to come out of his pocket. The waiting list for the fall 2011 course was so long (over 10 students) that it was not a problem filling open spots; however, for the spring 2012 semester, two students did not find out they had to withdraw (due to being unable to secure financial sponsorship) until after a few weeks had already passed\textsuperscript{34}, and at that point it was too late to enroll others.

According to some students, and oddly enough given how writing-intensive graduate studies almost always are, their sponsors did not consider Writing 600 to be relevant to their majors. This was the case even for an Afghan student (working under the supervision and financial support of his government) who was studying journalism. However, this problem not only affected visiting students and those with TA and GA lines. Some SU departments and their policies did not permit Writing 600 to count towards students’ degrees, while some students were only permitted a certain amount of units to take, and it was impossible or too difficult for them to make Writing 600 fit. I thus received emails from students who informed me that they must regretfully withdraw since their advisors said Writing 600 “can not be applied to [their] program.” One student who successfully completed Writing 600 (with the permission of his SU advisor) discovered later that the course will not count toward his graduation requirements. As I write this dissertation, he is currently petitioning that decision with my recommendation.

\textsuperscript{34} One of these two students requested that she audit the course. In fact, this proved to be another disappointing outcome of having the course bear 3 units since many students requested to audit the course for time and financial reasons but were not allowed. Despite my wishes for this possibility, the Writing Program does not permit auditing, and for good reason. Student auditors in the course results in extra work for the instructor without additional pay (if over the enrollment cap) and without commensurate tuition dollars to the department in return. Furthermore, the nature of Writing 600 demands significant time and effort from students in order to fulfill the course outcomes and to develop students’ knowledges and practices. Thus, it just does not make sense for students to have a limited and peripheral experience with courses like Writing 600, which is sometimes the case with auditing.
One final issue that prevented students from being able to take Writing 600 was the heavy workload of the course. Even without the course counting toward their degrees, many students were willing to accumulate the extra 3 credits of Writing 600 (even if they had pay themselves) so as to get some additional support with their writing in English; however, after reading over the syllabus during the screening process, many students decided that they could not afford the time required to complete such a demanding course. Although I was adamant in alerting enrolled students that the workload was comparable to other graduate courses, at least ¼ of those who completed Writing 600 still lamented at some point (in conversation, reflection writing, or course evaluations) that the course was very demanding and they were concerned about finding time to manage it alongside their other departmental coursework and responsibilities.

Deciding on who would teach Writing 600 in the future proved to be another contentious issue requiring Professor Schell’s and my thoughtful negotiation. Although it is common for graduate students to teach graduate ELL writing courses like Writing 600—and despite the fact that I as a graduate student designed and piloted the course—Professor Schell and I had questioned whether or not graduate students from my department would be permitted to teach the course. At first, Professor Schell and I had opposing perspectives. I advocated for graduate students to teach the course because I suspected that the demanding workloads of our program’s faculty would mean the course would not be offered regularly, nor would it be likely that multiple sections could be offered during any given semester. Further, one of the most valued pedagogical tools of the course (according to my observations and

\[35\] Part of my screening questionnaire included a question (and sometimes follow up conversation with students) explaining that students’ current commitments and availability should be a consideration given the high workload of Writing 600.
unanimous agreement among all fourteen student participants) was one-on-one consulting with students on a weekly or bi-weekly basis, something faculty would not be as likely to manage given their many other commitments. As a secondary benefit, having graduate students from our program teach Writing 600 would allow for the professional development of our graduate students in the teaching of ELL writing, something not often afforded given the division of labor (Matsuda “Composition Studies”) between so-called “1st language” and “2nd language” writing courses.

I was ultimately persuaded, however, by Professor Schell’s conclusion and final decision that having a graduate student teach Writing 600 supports the assumption that such a course does not demand faculty status and expertise. We worried, for instance, that the university status and salary of graduate students would lead others’ to assume the course had less value and legitimacy. Hence, it could have reaffirmed inaccurate assumptions that the course is remedial and not of the same merit as standard classes taught by “real” professors. If we wanted to legitimize Writing 600 in a sustainable and systemic way, Professor Schell conceded that the pilot version of the course could be taught by me, a graduate student, since I had expertise in the area, but preferred that faculty teach future sections. If exceptions were to be made and additional graduate students were to teach it, it would because they too had special expertise and interest in teaching ELL writing. In essence, we were trying to address the long established and intractable issues facing writing programs, including the prominence of these courses being taught by inexperienced or contingent teachers. We frequently found ourselves at an impasse since, as writing instructors and administrators, we had the expertise to offer this resource, but the material issues with sustaining the course were substantial and led us to
question at times whether we were setting the program up to be seen as capable of providing this service without institutional backing. As discussed in Chapter 3, SU has a history of relying on bottom-up initiatives to address the effects of internationalization, leaving departments little choice but to support ELLs by dipping into their already limited budgets. We knew that the Writing Program could not absorb the cost of Writing 600 for long, but we took a risk, hoping that if the course proved to be needed at the institution, we could make a case to university administrators for receiving institutional support.

To provide a bit of historical context, I should also mention that Professor Schell’s and my decisions to sacrifice at times certain pedagogical or departmental goals in order to address concerns of remediation were influenced by past encounters and current pressures from our dean and larger university. Years before Writing 600, a committee emerged from the Writing Program whose efforts led to requesting funds from the school to create additional writing resources for international students. Despite their efforts and numerous attempts, they were denied institutional funding and were told to be “entrepreneurial”—to fund it themselves by seeking alternative structures such as workshops or 0-credit courses paid for by students or their departments. I also learned that during the design of Writing 600, the Writing Program was being pressured by external administrators to find better ways to “fix” the problems of student writing and error, especially in international student writing. Unfortunately, outside complaints about student writing did not accompany discussions of tactical change or the university funding of new resources. In this history, we can begin to see some assumptions held by some university administrators at SU about language, language users, and institutional

36 This is an issue that SU’s Slutzker Center of International Services faces regularly, as I discovered in my research for Chapter 3. Slutzker Center, for instance, absorbs the cost of its orientation for international graduate students because the institution has not yet dedicated explicit material resources for this initiative.
accountability—namely, that ELL writing is remedial, that remedial writing is not fitting of university status and credit, and that specific service departments or students themselves (not the institution at large) are responsible for improving ELL writing.

When initiating Writing 600, we were concerned over placing the department in yet another position of service without equal commitment or explicit economic support from the institution. Professor Schell explained that while the department could manage offering the course once a year, we could not offer numerous sections until we received financial backing from the institution. The value remained that the Writing Program cannot and should not take on the entire responsibility for supporting students in developing literacies despite our best intentions in wanting to do more (Gail Shuck has likewise documented the negative outcomes when the rest of the university assumes that certain specialists or departments will single-handedly “fix” the “problem” with ELL writing). SU administrators, as mentioned in Chapter 3, have pointed to the complications that arise when internationalization occurs in “pockets” and based on grassroots initiatives rather than being handled systemically through institutional strategic planning. Our intention with Writing 600 was to resist implementing yet another “pocket” of internationalization that would absolve the institution of its responsibility to support ELL writing.

After my year of teaching the course, it was offered again the following fall (2012) and was taught by a faculty member in our department. Similar problems with students’ securing financial sponsorship resulted in only six of sixteen spots in the course being filled. The Writing Center Committee and I began brainstorming ways to address these issues, namely by seeking additional funding and cross-institutional partnerships for administering Writing 600.
Unfortunately, before we were able to create such opportunities, when the course was offered a third time low enrollment led to it being cancelled. The Writing Program’s Chair at this time, Professor Lois Agnew, learned that the Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics (LLL) department was working with certain departments to create writing courses for graduate ELLs where the departments themselves would fund the course so that students could take them without charge. At the time this dissertation was published, Professor Agnew and other administrators in the Writing Program were working alongside faculty in LLL to explore possibilities for collaboratively developing other resources for ELLs wanting additional support with their writing. Writing 600 may very well not be offered again.

As even this partial account of my experiences with Writing 600 shows, separating departmental politics from interdepartmental and international politics is unlikely. As we teased out programmatic and administrative issues, it was impossible to make decisions without considering how they would impact (or be impacted by) outsiders’ perceptions, future collaborations, and the materialities of students, our program, and the institution. The decisions we made and consequences we faced help to illuminate a few additional issues that others in similar situations may want or need to consider.

A Catalog of Administrative Concerns for Enacting Graduate ELL Writing Courses

Considered together, the findings from my case study of Writing 600 and from previous research (likewise focusing on graduate-level writing courses for ELLs) reveal a hefty amount of issues worth synthesizing. In this section, I catalog some of these concerns in the form of
heuristic questions that other administrators\textsuperscript{37} may consider when enacting similar resources. While pedagogical implications are also many when designing and implementing courses like Writing 600, I limit my discussion to administrative concerns given the focus of my study and the lack of attention on this issue in the literature. At times, as will be made apparent, however, pedagogy and administration are inseparable.

Despite the breadth of issues uncovered, what follows is not comprehensive. Instead, this catalog should be considered a working list that will require administrators’ individualized rhetorical negotiations based on the situated circumstances of their site-specific contexts. In fact, the actual policies, documents, and systems that must be traversed are likely many, only some of which I mention here. Nevertheless, what follows may be useful to administrators as they imagine, initiate, and enact graduate-level writing courses or even other resources for ELLs, which as I have previously argued, may be a necessary intervention to pursue as institutions continue to internationalize.

While many of the guiding questions posed here are interconnected and overlap, the initial question will likely have the greatest impact on how the course is carried out: \textbf{1.) What purposes will the course serve?} The exigency behind the course is central to identifying its purpose. What has influenced the course’s initiation? Who has proposed it and why? Will a given department, for instance, develop it out of observations that students want or need it? Will it result from the institution’s leading administrators in response to new internationalizing goals? Will the course be used to fulfill a graduation requirement or to prepare students for a university writing exam? Will it be offered voluntarily to all or select students? Will it be a

\textsuperscript{37} While it will be apparent that my targeted subjects here are those working in the field of Writing Studies, I imagine (and hope) that individuals teaching writing in other disciplines could adapt the issues I cover.
required course for entering international graduate students and/or students identified as ELLs? How will these issues be decided and how will developers tease out the implications of their choices? Ultimately, careful reflection on and articulation of the course’s purpose will guide how the remaining questions are addressed and what actions are needed next.

This brings me to consider the agents hoping to enact change. 2.) Who (or what entity) will be charged with spearheading the initiative and following through on its progress?

Identifying actors may require careful consideration of power, ethos, and labor. Enacting institutional change, even at the level of proposing a new course, requires political connections, status, and insider knowledge of departmental and institutional processes. Ideally, the individuals working toward the change would hold said knowledge or at least have a means through which to locate and access that information. A project of this nature may also require years of continuous labor and negotiation, making it complicated and perhaps less ideal to appoint leaders whose stay at the institution is limited (i.e., graduate students or those soon to retire) or whose position is subordinate or contingent. If the project is based on bottom-up initiatives, what authorities may be propositioned to partner the project? For me, gaining insight and partnership of higher-ups was key, and I was fortunate that the department chair utterly supported the development of the course from the start. Professor Schell guided the course logistics, gave feedback, sent emails, and shared her knowledge of institutional histories and ideologies. Still, I was not as keen on partnering with other authorities beyond our

38 An important issue that I want to mention but do not have time to develop in my current discussion is the prospect of having graduate writing courses that do not specify first or other language. When advertising Writing 600, a few native English speakers inquired about enrolling. This got us thinking about what we would need to do to extend enrollment to all students. As no studies to my knowledge take up this issue in the context of graduate student writing, it is an important inquiry for future consideration, especially given Paul Kei Matsuda’s argument that linguistic homogeneity is a myth and that there exists a problematic disciplinary divide between composition studies and TESOL. Such an integrated approach, further, would also combat the myth that graduate students from all linguistic and cultural backgrounds do not want or need explicit writing instruction at this advanced educational level.
department, a fact to which I owe (in part) to the inability to sustain the course. I wonder, for instance, if more sustainable courses would have been possible if I sought partnerships with the LLL Department or if I had the time, opportunity, and resources to seek collaborations with (or at least financial sponsorship from) higher university administration. Thus, another important question meriting its own elaborate examination: How can partnerships across the intuition be fostered and secured? Finally, if successful in its initial implementation, who (or what entity) will be responsible for managing the course over time and ensuring its ongoing survival and success?

3.) **How and by whom will the course be sponsored and financially supported?** Once the purpose and people are in place, and depending on the situation, the project may not be able to resume without seeking and securing economic backing. This means anticipating, researching, and negotiating not only the financial and material constraints of our departments (and ideally our interdepartmental partnerships), but also the financial and material constraints of students, their departments, and their financial sponsors (including those across national borders). Can and will students pay for the course themselves? Even if they can, tuition dollars may not be enough to cover all costs depending on how departmental budgets are dispersed. A more difficult task is then determining how the constraints discovered will be addressed. From where will necessary funding come? How might sponsorship be accomplished across institutional divides so as to collaborate on the enactment of such a resource? Thus, in addressing the issue of financial sponsorship, it is also important to question, How can partnerships across the institution be fostered and secured? What possibilities exist to request and receive funding at the institutional level? How can it be made possible for this initiative to
achieve university-wide support? In short—albeit incredibly complicated—How are these economic possibilities sought and accessed?

One question that connects many issues covered thus far is determining the following:

4.) Where will the course be housed within the institution? In the case of Writing 600, we housed the course in the Writing Program; however, as mentioned, recent developments in the Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics department at SU reveal that a more sustainable approach might have been to offer the course in other departments where funding could be secured so that students were not financially responsible for the course (unfortunately, I am not yet aware of the details of their approach and progress). This reflects yet another set of reasons to collaborate across institutional divides: a) Economically, housing the course in other departments may help secure financial sustainability (and potentially fund the teaching of the course); b) Disciplinarily, it prevents further association of writing programs as serving the role as the university’s sole “fixers” of student writing; and c) Pedagogically, students will benefit from working with writing instructors in addition to (or even alongside) their departmental advisors (i.e., EAP courses housed in other disciplines are often structured so that the writing instructor and students’ advisors collaborate and even share in teaching and assessment). That said, this solution is also susceptible to failing if the departments that house the course are not sufficiently supportive or if they falter in their commitment.

Even if the collaboration among institutional constituencies is not a financial one, furthermore, gaining the labor and endorsement from faculty across the curriculum will ideally promote wider acceptance of the course and be cause for more university-wide recognition and support. Of course, unless housing the course within a general program or institutional entity
(i.e., with the Graduate School, Chancellor’s Office, or other School), having the course belong to certain departments will ultimately shape the course content and place limits on student enrollment, excluding many students across the institution. Weighing the pitfalls and benefits to decisions like this no doubt plays a major part in this and each guiding question listed here.

Next, 5.) **Who will teach the course, and why?** While most graduate-level writing courses for ELLs are taught by language and writing specialists, some are co-taught by faculty in other disciplines, especially if offered in a department outside of a writing program. Is co-teaching possible or preferable? As the literature has shown, graduate students (usually doctoral students in English, writing, or linguistics) have instructed these courses, leading to a variety of sociopolitical implications (mainly to do with the fruits and tensions arising when the student is at the same educational level as the teacher). Such an option may also appeal economically to institutions. In the case of Writing 600, however, with the aim to combat assumptions that the course is remedial or that it does not merit faculty status and expertise, it was decided that full-time faculty teach the course with exceptions for graduate instructors only being made if they have expertise in teaching ELLs.

Moreover, determining who will teach the course is also an issue of sustainability. Who will manage over time the fulfillment of this position? Given the current teaching loads and other demands of potential instructors, is it possible to maintain ongoing instruction of the course? If so, who will teach the pilot version? Will a new position be created and a new instructor hired? Are there funds or institutional support in place for that? Could there be? Will a given instructor be solely responsible for teaching or will other instructors have the option or obligation to teach it? How might the pilot and each section to follow be utilized to serve as
models and resources for future teachers? Will there be professional development opportunities in place to provide necessary training and support for prospective teachers?

Another concern has to do with the ways in which the course is historically recorded and presented. 6.) How will the course be officially included in the institution’s course offerings? What will the course title and number be, and why? Will that title or number reflect remediation, and can that be rectified? Will the course bear credits, and can those be at the graduate level instead of at the undergraduate? What will the enrollment capacity be? If institutional authorities set the capacity too high,\(^{39}\) is it possible to negotiate that number down? How will the course be described in the institution’s catalog? Finally, and importantly, what are the policies and procedures for registering a course with the institution? What office(s) handle this process? What forms are involved? Is there a trial period, and if so, what follow-up is necessary to ensure the course obtains permanent status and is regularly offered? Who will manage these logistics now and over time?

Administrators will likewise need to ask, 7.) What placement procedures will be used to enroll students? The literature in Second Language Writing has recently taken issue with the politics of identifying and placing students in courses designated for ELLs, offering discussions on the many obstacles and ethics worth considering as these practices are defined and redefined in our institutions (see, for example, Callahan; Costino and Hyon; Crusan “An Assessment”; Crusan “The Promise”; di Gennaro; Gleason; Haswell “Searching”; Plakans and Burke). While it is important to address this concern with careful attention, unfortunately,

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\(^{39}\) The Conference on College Composition and Communication’s (CCCC’s) “Statement of Principles and Standards for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing” states that, “No more than 20 students should be permitted in any writing class. Ideally, classes should be limited to 15.” Professor Schell and I decided to cap enrollment of Writing 600 at 16 (though the pilot version was capped at 8).
depending on the circumstances, this issue may be implemented institutionally and without many options for negotiation (e.g., in cases where the course is used as a graduation requirement and higher-ups call shots or if the course is department specific and administrators there make this decision). If this is not the case, and if enrollment is open and voluntary, what constraints (if any) should be placed on who can enroll?

For instance, in the case of Writing 600, visiting students (those not graduating at SU) often were those who had to drop because of financial sponsorship and those who were less confident about how Writing 600 would apply to their future work (especially if they were planning to compose their remaining graduate writing in their home language). Further, two students who were further along in their degrees (at the dissertation stage) expressed that the course may have been more useful, relevant, and manageable to them if they took it during their first years of graduate study. If offering Writing 600 again in the future, I would return to these issues and reassess my screening process. Lastly, if constraints are in order, how will you control enrollment and gather information about students ahead of time?

Once the course is active, evaluating the outcomes will be instrumental for ongoing development. Thus, 8.) How will the course be evaluated? What will be evaluated, when, why, how, and by/for whom? Since any new course is experimental and tenuous, evaluating the administration of it is just as critical as evaluating the pedagogical approach and students’ experiences. For Writing 600, in addition to gathering the standard course evaluations, throughout the semester I collected and recorded (with students’ permission) their testimonies during consultations, their written reflections, and our frequent in-class dialogues about what was working for them and what was not. Student participants were informed about my study
and the nature of Writing 600 as a pilot, so their feedback often targeted larger administrative goals in addition to pedagogical ones. I also collected or recorded in my field notes any instances where I received external feedback (e.g., faculty in my department who observed the class and wrote reflections; faculty in other departments who contacted me to express interest in the course or gratitude for the improvements they were noticing in our mutual students).

Administrators may likewise want to be on the offensive about documenting progress and reporting success so as to have ready evidence that supports their case to continue offering the course. Another audience for results, as is the case in the current project, is administrators in other institutions looking for models for their own initiatives or public accounts of such efforts to use to make their own case for developing similar resources. Having documented evaluations of the new course (in addition to the public accounts of others’ across the nation) may assist in presenting a more rhetorical argument to those who may have power over the course’s future.

The final guiding question I want to present is one that addresses the issue of sustainability, an important factor that has already been implied in many of the questions above. Said simply, then, 9.) How will the course be sustained? Anticipating potential roadblocks and locating sources for ongoing and future successes is essential albeit incredibly difficult. Some strategies to rely on have already been mentioned, including identifying appropriate agents to lead the initiative, gaining the support of your department and other institutional gatekeepers, securing financial sponsorship, finding ways to collaborate across institutional divides, utilizing and following up on institutional policies for enacting new resources, carefully evaluating and documenting the course’s proceedings, building a case in
support of the resource being developed, creating spaces to share and archive curricular and pedagogical materials and reflections, etc. To elaborate on the issue of documentation, one contentious concern that affects sustainability may be negotiating the role writing and genre play in this administrative process. Namely, I am referring to the challenging work of discovering and then utilizing what are often occluded genres\textsuperscript{40} of the institution (e.g., letters, proposals, grants, petitions, forms, contracts, recommendation letters, reports, etc.). How might these genres be located and successfully employed, especially if administrators are not aware of or familiar with them?

Another issue worth considering that relates to sustainability and student placement procedures is student attrition. Will student attrition be a problem? If so, why? How can attrition concerns be researched ahead of time and prevented? One of the major factors preventing Writing 600 from continuing was the low enrollment of students (a problem itself related to other problems, mostly that students could not pay for the course or apply its credit towards their degrees). I also suspect that advertising the course was a factor impacting Writing 600 (in all honestly, we needed to advertise it more widely and in a more timely fashion). How can and should the resource be presented, promoted, and circulated? Even deciding when and where to offer the course may affect enrollment. I received dozens of inquiries from students who very much wanted to enroll but could not take the course simply because of time conflicts with their program’s course requirements. If teaching Writing 600 again, I would better research when graduate courses are typically offered and when not.

\textsuperscript{40} John Swales in his \textit{Genre Analysis} and again in "Occluded Genres in the Academy" coins and describes this term as referring to academic genres that are highly political and exclusively known to insiders, remaining altogether hidden or at best opaque to outsiders.
As was true for Writing 600, and as will likely be the case for other similar initiatives, many of the discoveries to each of these questions emerge just a little too late. After all, despite even the best efforts not all problematic matters can be anticipated. Having to cope with and respond to problematic administrative structures is no doubt a necessary part of enacting institutional change. The breakdown of certain enactments, however, does not dictate the failure of alternative endeavors. Since the development and ultimate discontinuation of Writing 600, a number of initiatives have emerged that share the purpose of Writing 600, whether explicitly in response to it or not. The Writing Program, under the new leadership of Professor Lois Agnew, has focused professional development opportunities for instructors on the themes of multilingualism, translingualism, and reimagining student writers in light of these terms and the theories behind them. As previously discussed, Professor Agnew and others in the department have also sought to establish connections and collaborations across disciplines to investigate and respond to the needs of ELLs and their writing. And, again, the Literatures, Languages, and Linguistics department at SU is creating new courses for graduate ELLs (maybe partly in response to their learning about Writing 600 and my discussions with their administrators, maybe not). On a personal level, moreover, the administrative structures that led Writing 600 to be discontinued has afforded me new knowledge and perspectives that will result in stronger and more sustainable efforts in the future. Searching for, celebrating, and making the best use of these silver linings of administrative hurdles may help propel future successes.
Conclusion

As examined in Chapter 3, and as further demonstrated here, there are numerous issues beyond pedagogical and departmental matters needing careful consideration by writing program administrators implementing new resources in response to internationalization. In particular, there are various institutional and ideological concerns, as well as a number of constituencies and stakeholders whose policies or expectations may conflict when it comes to determining just what a given resource should and should not accomplish (not to mention where, how, and why). The task facing administrators interested in pursuing change in their institutions is, to say the least, a challenging one.

One important implication that administrators might consider as they enact change in their institutions (an implication that all professionals in Writing Studies have a stake in) is the reality that the institutional systems and gatekeepers we negotiate with may (consciously or not) hold assumptions that our field, department, courses, and students are remedial. Institutional values about remediation in writing programs are historically cemented within many (most? all?) institutions across the nation. My analytical narrative of administering Writing 600 and the catalog of issues I reported might serve as reference guides for future efforts toward combating such notions, ends that require collective, interdepartmental, national, and international reflection and action.

The need for deliberate action cannot be overstated. Swales et al. argue that developers of EAP courses (that is, graduate-level writing courses for ELLs) are often “unnecessarily passive in [their] acceptance of institutional practices and percepts” (440). And it is not difficult to
understand why. Negotiating institutional systems and ideologies about ELL writing is an uphill battle, perhaps especially when it requires combatting notions of remediation. It may feel like an impossible endeavor to convince some of our colleagues that courses like Writing 600 belong in the university and are not remedial much less stakeholders across disciplinary and national divides. Thus, in those important moments when the opportunity strikes to implement change, we may serve ourselves better in the long run by making tough decisions and carefully crafted cases about the administration of the ELL graduate writing course. Whenever it is within our means, we should intentionally seek out assumptions of remediation, remembering that the administrative choices we make now will impact (in one way or another) our institution’s values. The “why” behind institutional values and practices is vital to uncover in these moments, especially for the purposes of tapping into the values of opposing stakeholders. If it is possible to locate connecting values, administrators can rhetorically utilize this insight to craft persuasive cases about the need for and development of resources (see more on this part of WPA research in Chapter 3).

Finally, and as briefly mentioned above and as discussed in Chapter 3, making public our efforts to address internationalization may allow for more rhetorical approaches to enacting change in our and others’ institutions. Currently, the literature is limited which addresses the development of resources like Writing 600. Within the small group of scholarship that exists, furthermore, the trend has been mostly to document pedagogical concerns, while there is far less attention placed on administrative practices and politics. In all likelihood, actual instances of enacting institutional change across the nation are exponentially greater than those accounts published. While that acknowledgement is encouraging, administrators attempting to develop
new resources for ELL graduates are at a disadvantage by not having additional sources to rely on as models and as evidence supporting their initiatives. Disciplinarily speaking, moreover, the fields of Composition and Rhetoric, Second Language Writing, and English for Academic Purposes would be better served by such accounts, which would support broader understandings of institutional and administrative approaches to multilingualism and remediation. The current chapter (and this dissertation’s study more generally) is one attempt at circulating the practices and politics writing program administrators face as US higher education continues to internationalize.
CHAPTER 5

Looking Outward and Imagining Change:

Negotiating Institutional Constraints and Possibilities

I have argued at various moments throughout this dissertation that as efforts increase to internationalize higher education, so should our efforts to investigate whether transformation is needed to better respond to the results of such initiatives. If change in response to internationalization and the increased presence of English language learners is indeed needed at the institutional level (which is certainly the case at Syracuse University), it will require substantial work, time, and resources alongside of carefully situated, strategized, and rhetorically devised collaborative efforts. As Porter et al. have famously argued, “Since institutions are rhetorical entities, rhetoric can be deployed to change them” (610). The more complicated response to (and empirically informed perception of) this charge for engaging in institutional research and change is one that accords for the nuances and complications that arise in local university contexts, which is, in part, what I seek to accomplish through my dissertation study.

My study presented in Chapter 3 demonstrated the kinds of insights that WPAs may glean by conducting institutional research whereby they examine how institutional discourse on internationalization constructs and is constructed by an institution’s realities, histories, and ideologies. My means to these ends was twofold. First, I drew on my interviews with administrators at Syracuse University to learn about the current climate at SU regarding how internationalization and the presence of ELL students are understood and handled. My
interviews with participants illustrated a number of concerns that impede a more effective approach to internationalization at SU, including cross-cultural conflict, the need to improve ELL student writing, the lack of resources (including writing resources and particularly at the graduate level) made available to ELLs, and the need for more systemic institutional support toward promoting and fostering an internationalized student body. My analysis uncovered that SU’s current approach to internationalization and addressing the needs of a multilingual and internationalized student population is tackled more post factum than preemptively—typically, SU has initiated internationalized diversification without strategic planning only to pick up the pieces later when problems inevitably and exponentially occur.

As I write this dissertation, Syracuse University is at a tipping point where more systemic approaches to addressing its internationalizing institution may soon appear. Even if university administrators across campus are not in agreement over why change is needed in response to internationalizing, they share a concern over this issue and are well aware of its importance to the current historical moment. SU has a new leader, Chancellor Kent Syverud, who, on his first day on the job, visited the Slutzker Center for International Services. More than simply making appearances, one administrator I interviewed explained that when top administrators have met as of late, “international education and engagement is on the agenda.” While the actualities of this agenda is not yet public and far from realized, this participant seemed optimistic of changes soon to come. When goals to educate for a global world becomes a priority of higher administration, the participant explained, then it will also become a priority for trustee giving, fundraising, campus-wide conversations involving deans, and ideally more attention and resources will be allotted to programs for supporting this endeavor. Despite acknowledging
that discussions of “multilingualism” and its politics are still not well received by the majority, administrators such as this participant are encouraged by the fact that multilingualism is at least part of the conversation and that some institutional figures even welcome it.

Beyond examining current perspectives and realities at SU regarding internationalization, in Chapter 3 I also explore potential benefits of using historical research to contextualize institutional settings and discourses. For this part of my study, I gathered and rhetorically analyzed historical and archival data, locating moments in SU’s past that demonstrate long-held ideologies about what internationalization means and looks like at SU. My analysis of published accounts of SU’s history alongside my small-scale archival research of the Syracuse-in-China Unit make evident that colonialist, separatist, ethnocentric, and xenophobic perspectives are woven within SU’s historical approaches to internationalization.

Institutional research that attends to historical and ideological matters, I believe, can help uncover some of the values that have been constructed over time and are deeply seated within institutional structures and the university community’s perceptions, realities which I argue are imperative to be aware of when attempting to enact change in higher education institutions on behalf of ELLs.

Of course, researching institutions’ present and past approaches to internationalization is only one part of this complicated process of enacting change in higher education. Responsible intervention in a university’s internationalization—through adjusting curriculum, teacher training, and other systemic practices—is also necessary in order to ensure that the distinctive needs of linguistically and culturally diverse student bodies are effectively and ethically supported. Then, as intervention does occur, it is important to critically assess the changes
integrated along the way, making revisions as necessary and sharing insights gained with others in academia who are engaged in similar pursuits.

In this vein, I aimed in Chapter 4 to recount some of the many issues needing careful consideration by WPAs interested in developing graduate-level ELL writing courses or other kinds of writing resources. To do so, I drew on my own experience implementing such a course, “Writing 600: Writing and Rhetoric for Advanced ELL Writers.” The praxis narrative I provided of my experience administering Writing 600 was based on my analysis of field notes, participant-observations, interviews with student participants, and all administrative textual materials collected over two years. As previous studies of the graduate-level ELL writing course have mostly focused on pedagogical concerns, my study complicated and extended this literature in important ways given my explicit focus on administration and on the many institutional politics involved when first implementing new writing resources. In line with the tradition in Writing Program Administration to use research for the purposes of uncovering and then circulating some of the behind-the-scenes administrative and institutional politics not often visible to all WPAs, I concluded with a catalog of heuristic questions that may help others better navigate the complicated, rhetorical, ideological, and highly political systems of our institutions.

The issues I raise through the catalog I provide in Chapter 4 are many and range from seeking financial backing, to designing and naming the course in ways that avoid the politics of remediation, to setting in place systems that will sustain the resource over time. The most important lesson I learned as the administrator of Writing 600 was the benefit of situating writing resources beyond the confines of our departments in an effort to build alliances across the disciplines, share responsibility, avoid having to absorb costs, and secure external and top-
down financial support. As discussed in Chapter 4, students’ financial situations greatly impacted the eventual discontinuation of Writing 600. If I had known prior to implementing Writing 600 the potential financial roadblocks students were facing, I could have pursued a more sustainable design and approach to the course, which in turn could have resulted in better supporting the many graduate ELL students at SU who want and need additional resources to help them with their writing. This further supported my contention that above all else, when it comes to researching higher education institutions and implementing change that aims to strike a balance between institutional constraints and possibilities, the most important work we can do is to account for students—their perspectives, experiences, backgrounds, strengths, needs, and situated circumstances.

**Ending With a Call to Start With Students**

In Chapter 2, I referred briefly to a conversation I shared with an English language learner (ELL) who was a graduate student of Writing 600 and participant to this study. This conversation prompted me to further reflect upon the politics of global uses of English as a *lingua franca* and how students’ motivations to learn and use English may not at first appear to align with translingual approaches. This student, who asked that I refer to him in my research simply as Learner, was concerned that, even if done rhetorically, drawing on his intercultural expertise and communication styles in his academic writing would make him immediately identifiable as nonstandard. He disputed even slightly pushing at the standards in his writing, explaining that he had long recognized that he embodied what is deemed nonstandard in many contexts, placing him at a disadvantage; he was determined instead to demonstrate not only his ability to meet the standard, but to somehow exceed normalized expectations. He
remarked, “I have to be better than native speakers. The level is already tilted against me. My background, my accent. I have to be better.”

The social, cultural, and political hierarchies that exist on racial, linguistic, national, and cultural levels (among others) have real consequences; the “level,” as he called it, was “already tilted against [him].” This is because many ELL students are acutely aware that, depending on their personal and professional goals, their oral and written English proficiencies can either thwart or powerfully position them to achieve their goals. I return to this encounter because Learner’s experiences and perceptions help demonstrate an array of the complex ways diversity manifests in institutional settings. Learner’s motivations, identity, and situated circumstances, as I will further demonstrate below, help illustrate why all students’ distinctive situations should be learned and accounted for (through administrative institutional research) when aiming to better define and transform institutional realities and higher education.

Learner was motivated to receive his doctoral degree from the US in hopes to earn the status he felt necessary to be a more successful leader in social movements aimed at ending caste-based injustices in India. He sought to organize oppressed people through his own writings in English and then to liberate others by teaching them to read and write in English. He had a massive following of people in India (in the thousands) that he taught weekly English lessons through web interfaces. He enrolled in Writing 600 (as an elective that would not count toward his degree) so that he could improve his disciplinary writing and so that, more importantly, he could learn more about English writing and the teaching of writing, which he would then apply when crafting lessons for his students.
Learner’s political position and reputation in India, he often expressed, meant that he was in constant fear of being discovered at Syracuse University by individuals from higher classes in India, which he felt would result in them strategizing ways to deport him and put an end to his political pursuits. He explained that if his skin color was not so light, he likely would have been identified long ago as part of the lowest caste in India. To keep his identity hidden, he mostly did political work through phone and email communications, where he dedicated many hours each day to his writing and his teaching of writing.

Learner also faced what he deemed personal and cultural disabilities. He had a slight speech disorder, a condition I came to understand as being deeply connected psychologically to his sense of inferiority as belonging to the “untouchables”—fellow members of the lowest caste in India and the very population he sought to liberate. He explained inferiority concerns as the cause since the disorder disappeared at age 30, when he obtained a powerful employment position. It returned years later during the first meeting he had with a Syracuse University professor who expressed disappointment over Learner’s tardiness, which Learner remembered as a very tense and stressful encounter. He misunderstood a meeting set for noon to mean he could swing by anytime in the afternoon; then, upon realizing his error, he struggled to explain himself and gain mutual understanding with his professor. Learner described having a habit of being tardy; he was often late to meetings, classes, and even when turning in assignments, behaviors he deemed as “cultural disabilities” having been raised in India where practices of time and timeliness varied significantly than those in the US. His professors, Learner rationalized, did not respect him or want to work with him because of what appeared to them
to be a lack of motivation and responsibility. He disclosed that, as a result, he was receiving failing grades in some of his seminars.

In addition to the challenges he faced personally, politically, culturally, and interpersonally with professors, time constraints and other anxieties that resulted from his busy course load (he was taking five graduate seminars at the time) and extra curricular social justice initiatives also proved to be challenging. According to Learner, his struggles to find the time he needed to attend to scholastic and political endeavors was exacerbated by what he saw as “an inability to read” effectively (accurately) and efficiently (time-wise) as well as extreme anxiety over producing writing. He explained that once gathering the nerves to even begin (which in itself could take days), writing a single paragraph sometimes took three hours or more. He likened his anxieties over writing in English to his caste-based insecurities and speech disorder.

I recommended that Learner go talk to his professors about his misunderstandings, unique circumstances, anxieties, and cultural differences, but he was adamant about never using what he considered excuses to receive special conditions. Even when serving in the military—he explained as an example—he refused to notify officials that he had polio since this would mean he would be afforded benefits that others were not, including the use of a mule when making the long and treacherous trip by foot over the Himalayas. Learner was determined to earn back his professors’ respect not through communication about these issues he faced but through his scholarly accomplishments and ongoing efforts to improve his student ethos. But more than achieving high marks or winning the regard of his professors, Learner was determined to perfect his English, to teach English to his thousands of weekly followers, and to eventually write a book that would unveil the deep-seated ideologies that kept millions of
Indian “untouchables” oppressed and inspire them to mobilize. And, for him, because the stakes were so high, results demonstrating his improvements couldn’t come fast enough.

Learner’s story reminds us of the ways students’ lives and identities significantly impact how they experience our institutions and classrooms. It presents a compelling example of the ways in which positionality and non-academic identities and situations further complicate the assumptions we may have about students, images that often guide us as WPAs—whether we realize it or not—when we seek institutional change. It captures well a full range of issues that may at first lead us to doubt that higher education as it stands could meet the needs of students like Learner. But that is the point: Stories like Learner’s challenge us to rethink higher education as it stands and inspire us to push for changes at our colleges and universities that better reflect truly internationalized and student-centered approaches.

While Learner’s case is in some ways an extreme or unique example, it was not uncommon to learn of examples from other students whereby their situations and motivations complicated assumptions of what higher education aims to offer students, and why. Students like Learner, who are motivated to use English outside of academic and professional settings—precisely the contexts for which US universities assume to prepare their students—illustrate the kinds of issues needing to be addressed in US higher education as it internationalizes. If Learner’s goals are to use English for purposes beyond the academy, I often wondered, for example, “What can my genre analysis course on academic writing in the disciplines really offer him?” Quite frankly, the opportunity to get to know him often left me wondering, “Who am I to teach this international political leader and teacher of English to thousands?” As our students are internationalized and are now coming in with goals to write in contexts that we in higher
education do not typically prepare them for, how do we begin addressing that? If we promote an internationalized education, shouldn’t students’ motivations and specific goals for applying knowledge and using English be part of what is considered? As students are likely to be bringing in far greater knowledge of international/transnational communication than their US peers and professors, what can we do to engage this knowledge and the rhetorical adaptabilities that come with it?

These questions help demonstrate why I consider translingual approaches so important for our current historical moment. Scholarship on translingualism argues that we not only treat multilingualism and intercultural identities as resources, but that we strive to prepare all students to be adaptable and effective within transnational and transcultural communicative contexts. While not always done in practice, most educators may agree that institutional aims and systems should be driven and informed by students—their expressed needs, motivations, perceptions, and, of course, the literacies and resources they bring with them. In this light, we may begin questioning where, how, and why the breakdown occurs between what students need and are motivated to accomplish with higher education with what their institutions are aiming and prepared to provide. Learner’s high-stakes motivations remind us that ideals we may attach to our scholarly, administrative, and pedagogical pursuits—especially those driven by translingual approaches—cannot be effectively mediated until they are more closely aligned to institutional practice and the overall aims of higher education at large.

**Implications for Future Inquiry**

The stakes can be high when English language learners (ELLs) pursue English education, especially because the ideological forces attached to Standard Edited Academic English and
tacit policies for English-only monolingualism become inherently attached to student bodies.

The field of Composition and Rhetoric has in recent years argued for scholarly efforts to concentrate on discovering how and why we may better respond to these institutional practices and politics. In fact, the arguments circulating in the field of Composition and Rhetoric and in SLW, as briefly summarized in Chapter 1, demonstrate significant leaps toward complicating understandings of language use and internationalization, offering studies on and arguments about cross-cultural communication, multilingualism, and translingualism. While this scholarship may not (yet) be reflective of the actual practices currently implemented in higher education, they certainly indicate ongoing efforts to bridge disciplinary divides and to reconsider our assumptions about language, writing pedagogies, and the treatment, placement, and assessment of ELL international and domestic writers.

In this dissertation I theorize about the benefits of current and historical institutional research, extracting from my own investigations of Syracuse University the ways in which even cursory institutional analyses can offer numerous insights into how university efforts to internationalize may be seeped in counterproductive perspectives, such as nationalistic, colonialist, and ethnocentric points of view. I also provide my own administrative praxis narrative to exemplify some of the many political practices and situations involved when WPAs strive to implement new writing resources in response to their internationalizing universities. While I do not assume that my research in this dissertation solves the complex issues resulting from internationalization and the increased presence of ELLs, my site-specific qualitative studies provide cases that demonstrate some of the methods, analyses, and potential discoveries that WPAs who are compelled by similar agendas may find informative.
The literature I review and studies that I present in this dissertation raise many issues and make clear that further exploration is needed and, moreover, that a number of concerns continue to be unresolved. Given the rise in internationalization and increased ELL student populations in US higher education, for example, it remains unclear in the field of Composition and Rhetoric (and across the disciplines, for that matter) the vast and diverse ways in which US institutions are approaching internationalization and coming to grips with the resources necessary for an internationalized student population. We have a healthy body of literature on what theories and practices might improve conditions and pedagogies regarding ELL writing, including a small but growing body of scholarship concentrated on the nexus of SLW and WPA. Save one dated study that surveys labor divisions and teacher preparation in SLW across multiple contexts (Williams) and the collective research presented in *The Politics of Second Language Writing* (Matsuda, Ortmeier-Hooper, and You), however, there are no nationwide accounts depicting the current state of this issue.

Without knowing what is actually occurring (where, how, and why), along with an assessment of those actualities, WPAs who endeavor to apply knowledge from research in SLW and on translingual approaches are at a disadvantage when negotiating with university stakeholders. New studies could act as evidence for what practices are deemed problematic as well as those practices for which institutions should strive. This is why increased inquiry into local institutional contexts is important; in many ways, such research is prerequisite to gaining a fuller understanding of the national scene. While site-specific, these studies could serve as models and as precedents for the kinds of change others seek in their local contexts. What works for one institutional setting, of course, will not necessarily work for another; however,
publishing accounts of these studies could at least provide important background and strategic examples that could be applied in other contexts. It is perhaps the only way to understand a breadth of practices and contexts.

Recent research from Christine Tardy (“Enacting and Transforming Local Language Policies”) and Martha Davis Patton (“Mapping the Gaps in Services for L2 Writers”), for instance, provides approaches to studying our programmatic and institutional contexts that could be adapted by others. Tardy examines the perceptions and practices of teachers in one writing program and highlights the problem of instructors recognizing their classrooms as multilingual spaces despite not actually treating them that way. She recommends that researchers study the kinds of language diversity occurring in their institutions, reflect on the extent to which classrooms are indeed enacting a “multilingual norm,” and strategize ways to work with instructors’ already rhetorical practices to teaching writing so that they adhere to this new norm. Patton, who maps out, assesses, and outlines potential gaps in support for ELLs at her institution, argues that (among other things) increased attention to faculty development could assist in closing the gaps she identified.

We can extract from these two model studies an array of site-specific WPA-focused pursuits for engaging in institutional research. Initiatives like these could mean gathering and analyzing data on the extent to which students are linguistically diverse and on the ways they are institutionally recruited, labeled, processed, assessed, placed, supported, and taught. I was only able to attend minimally to these factors in my current dissertation (as is seen in my Introduction and Chapter 3), and so my and other studies would benefit from having more precise understandings of linguistic diversity on campus. Not having readily available means to
account for domestic ELLs, for example, was and still is a gap needing to be filled at Syracuse
University. Without accounting for this information, we are essentializing students and
perpetuating tacit English-only monolingualist assumptions and practices. How can we cater to
the distinctive needs of our ELL students, after all, if we cannot accurately provide even the
most basic statistical information about students’ languages and backgrounds?

Beyond collecting numbers, and as implied above through the example of my student
participant, Learner, WPAs and all university administrators would benefit from gaining a
heightened sense of students’ backgrounds (including cultural, linguistic, and educational),
distinctive needs, motivations, as well as their strengths, strategies, and rhetorical
adaptabilities. Through ongoing investigations of students’ identities and experiences at our
situated institutions, we must consider how students’ motivations and plans for using English
should impact their experience in US higher education and our approaches to teaching them;
further, it is in many ways even more critical that we increase our knowledge of what students,
all students, bring with them. This information—which could be gathered through qualitative
research (e.g., interviewing and surveying students) as well as through interpersonal
communications and collaborations with students—helps to construct a clearer sense of where
students “are” when they arrive at college (so that we can be more practical about where
students realistically should and can be by the end of our courses and their overall program of
study). Ongoing accounts of students’ realities may help dismantle outdated institutional
assumptions about students, especially if those accounts avoid focusing on students’ deficits
and instead emphasize that students, including and especially transnational and multilingual
students, have an array of assets to contribute while participating in their institutional settings.
As I indicated in Chapter 3, studying our institutional contexts for how administrators who work closely with ELLs perceive the situation can aid in gaining a number of insights. This includes learning about what the most pressing concerns are, what perceptions and values are held across the institution, what partnerships or tensions exist from past encounters, and what context-specific plans of action may be undertaken. As is true of Syracuse University, many of the ways ELLs are supported come from bottom-up, programmatic, and grassroots initiatives, rather than institutional top-down systems and initiatives. Despite that being a problem in and of itself, it also points to the importance of talking with, learning from, and collaborating with the administrators and faculty who are on the ground and who are the most seeped in the “current climate” of the institution. My study in Chapter 3 also revealed the potential benefits to studying historical moments in our institutions for how they reflect various ideologies and beliefs about internationalization and ELLs. The constraints of this study meant that the examples were select, and thus a full depiction of SU’s history to internationalize was not accounted for. I imagine additional studies into the realms of how historical practices and perceptions underlie the institutional structures and values of today could be generative, especially to uncover potential ideological roadblocks, such as monolingualist, colonialist, ethnocentric, and xenophobic beliefs. As I argued, this kind of “ideological digging” may be of use to WPAs as they begin crafting cases for institutional changes that better reflect and capitalize on the fruits of a truly internationalized learning environment.

Considering specifically the presence of international ELLs, it could be useful to know how practices for recruitment and admittance have changed over time, especially during the nation’s biggest influxes (e.g., 1966-1971, 1975-1981, and 1990-today). What were the reasons
for these influxes? What international and context-specific factors may have impacted the situation? What are the trends for admittance qualifications and testing? How may those assessment systems themselves be assessed?

The economic side of this complex situation is also something my study does not incorporate but that would be useful to WPAs. What are the monetary resources that come in due to the admittance of international ELLs, for instance, and how do resources then trickle down the chains of programmatic funding so as to support these student populations? What’s ideal for the distribution of resources? Are there institutions across the nation we should be emulating when it comes to their economic backing of internationalization and supporting ELLs? What are the sources of these funds? Other necessary if not more controversial questions whispered in institutional hallways include: Are institutions admitting (knowingly or otherwise) ELLs that do not have the background and experience in English that they need to be successful in US higher education? Are institutions, to any certain degree, exploiting international ELLs due to the monetary gain they offer given their status as full-tuition-payers?

Cross-cultural conflict as a result of internationalization proved to be a concern shared across administrators at SU. Studies are needed that investigate institutionally driven initiatives already in place that aim to build cross-cultural awareness. Are institutions assuming that the increased diversity and thus increased intercultural exposure will single-handedly build tolerance and mutual valuing across cultures? What efforts are already in the works for building cross-cultural understandings among student populations? Are there deliberative faculty-led conversations taking place for rethinking assumptions teachers have about students and their language uses? Are there university-wide approaches to training instructors on good practices
for teaching an internationalized student body? For all these areas of inquiry, what are the various models out there and what can we learn from them?

Finally, writing programs (and their institutions) that already adopt more translingual approaches may serve as important sites of research. What can we glean from their approaches to curriculum, teacher training, and services offered to students? What praxis narratives might WPAs in these situations share regarding how they inducted change and negotiated the politics of their local contexts? What battles were fought, which were lost, which were won, and why? What kinds of cross-disciplinary collaborations took shape, if any? Were rhetorical efforts made to link current institutional values to the values of a translingual approach? What evidence or documentation or strategies served to support initiatives?

**A Transdirectional Model for Institutional Research and Administration**

Whether we are engaging in single- or multi-site studies of the current state of internationalization and ELL writing, administrators in Writing Studies and beyond would benefit from applying translingual frameworks to their analytical approaches. Research on translingual approaches invites us to move away from interpreting diverse uses of language and rhetorics as deficits and instead asks that we “[honor] the power of all language users to shape language to specific ends” (Horner et al., “Language Difference” 305). It posits that we should acknowledge linguistic diversity in international and national settings and to find opportunities as teachers and researchers for pushing the boundaries of normalized linguistic and rhetorical conventions to better reflect the demands of a more globalized and intercultural world.

Applying a translingual disposition to research and administration, I argue, asks us to dismantle not only the unidirectional English-Only ideologies informing our understandings of effective
language use but to further reimagine educational systems and administrative practices so that they better address, invite, and account for translanguaging.

Christiane Donahue, in her 2009 CCC article, asserts that we should reorient the discourse on internationalization in the field of Composition and Rhetoric, which she claims often relies on a hierarchical “us/them” paradigm (213). While her implications are more focused on how Composition and Rhetoric scholars should reconstruct this discourse within our field-specific research, her argument applies to the overall approaches to internationalization in higher education writ large: “Notice that we ‘import’ problems (the challenges of multiliterate, multicultural students, for example),” she explains (222), which then positions us as “exporting” expertise—linguistically and culturally—to these student populations. Administrators adopting a translingual approach would reject such moves and advocate a more fluid and reciprocal model for assessing the situation and imagining possible responses. That is, those applying translingual frameworks would argue that learning about the diversity in students’ cultural, linguistic, and educational backgrounds suggests not only that we consider what they need to do to succeed in US higher education but to also rethink our own systems and pedagogies so that they are better suited for the kinds of difference existing at our colleges and universities.

If adopting a translingual disposition in our institutional research and administration, it becomes unsuitable to focus only on material agendas when we ask, “In what ways are institutions adjusting their systems and programs to address a changing student population?” Answering that question requires work at ideological and systemic levels. In other words, we cannot merely quantify a truly transnational and translingual approach to administration with dollars and labor spent on teacher training, curriculum development, and new writing.
resources. We also need to qualitatively attend to our administrative approaches through explicit examinations of whether they tacitly or explicitly perpetuate monolingualist English-Only expectations and to what extent they fall into import/export models of rationalizing those outcomes.

In short, we would recognize that as we internationalize higher education, the student image we hold—the White, US born, middle-class, native-English speaking monolingual student—is also changing, and so then should our systems, administrations, and the underlying ideologies of both. However, we cannot simply reverse the responsibility of what/who needs to change, adjusting a metaphorical pointed finger from the student to the institution; reversing the direction would only reinstate a unidirectional model of understanding this rhetorical situation.

Alternatively, I argue we need a transdirectional model for assessing current approaches for internationalizing US higher education and for transforming its institutional missions and curricula to better reflect the needs and actualities of its diverse student bodies. Taking on transdirectional models means working in tandem with what students already bring with them to determine how higher education can shift in ways that help students achieve their distinctive goals. A transdirectional model accomplishes more than ensuring all constituencies and their needs and perspectives are accounted for when imagining potential change, although this is, of course, an important piece of seeking institutional transformation. More than that, transdirectional administrative approaches take into consideration how all constituencies in higher education might transversely adjust and more accurately respond to the realities and needs of internationalized institutions. This includes considering what outcomes we set for
students, but also setting new and more internationalized ideals for faculty, administrators, and staff that account for and include revisions to circulating disciplinary knowledges, systems, and ideologies.

What we risk by not applying translingual and transdirectional frameworks to our institutional research and administration is to continue approaching higher education in ways that rely on tacit monolingualist, ethnocentric, isolationist, and nationalist beliefs. Without explicitly attending to a translingual and transdirectional perspective, we may too easily fall back on what’s pragmatic, what’s easier, and what’s safe given what we know about the politics of English and what is at stake for students. It is my contention that by continuing with unidirectional monolingual research, administration, and pedagogical practices we risk halting necessary revisions to our discourse on internationalism and our systems in higher education (even at the slightest of paces) in ways that might embrace a more politically leveled shift toward understanding and engaging language difference.
Appendix A: Gail Shuck’s Description of “ESL Populations”

Gail Shuck, in her contributing chapter to *A Rhetoric for Writing Program Administrators*, “What is ESL?”, clarifies for readers that although folks in higher education commonly refer broadly to the so-called “ESL population,” there is no single population of ESL students. Instead, there is a diverse group of many populations. In fact, she calls for pluralizing this term (“ESL populations”) and outlines a more thorough overview of the diverse students that are so often generalized into this one category. Below is her list verbatim. I append it here to my study because I believe it is one of the best overviews out there. Of course, and as Shuck further acknowledges, even this detailed list is limited; there are many other issues impacting ESL populations, including proficiency, acquisition, and the full range of other identity markers.

ESL populations include:

- International students (holding visas to study in the US) who studied English but never used it for real communication.
- International students who studied in an intensive English program in the US or another English-dominant country.
- International students who spoke English at home or school or work in their native countries [...].
- Transnational students who spend significant educational time in two or more countries.
- US-born students who speak a language other than (more often, in addition to) English at home and might be English-dominant, L1 dominant, or fully bilingual.
- Immigrants who came to the US as children or teens (with varying degrees of proficiency in English and in their parents’ languages, and varying degrees of literacy in any language).
- Adult immigrants (which similarly varying language and literacy expertise).
- Refugees—quite different in some critical ways from immigrants—who used or studied English in at least one other country before arriving in the US [....]
- Refugees who had never used or studied English at all before coming to this country.
- Refugees whose first languages aren’t written.
- Students who feel very strongly that they’re English learners and are thankful for ESL programs.
- Students who feel they’ve “graduated’ from ESL programs.
- Us (I’m not waxing metaphorical here—it’s important to remember than many WPAs are also L2 users of English). (64-65)
Appendix B: Recruitment Script for Study on Writing 600

**Note: This script will be read orally to students during an in-person or over-the-phone meeting all students will have during their registration of Writing 600.

“As part of this course you have the option to participate in a research study that I am conducting. Writing 600 requires students to turn in various assignments and to be interviewed by me during our writing consultations regarding their cultural, educational, and literacy backgrounds. To participate in the study, you would be giving me permission to save your work and to audio-record your interviews so that both may be used in my future research. Since the research materials are based on work and activities you'll be completing for and during class, participation should take you no additional time. Those who elect to participate will also be asked whether they are available for follow-up interviews and the collecting of additional material. Follow-up participation would serve the purpose of clarifying my understanding of our interviews and to solicit writing assignments you completed for your other courses taken at Syracuse University. Follow-up participation would likely require less than one hour of your time.

“The study will be informing my doctoral dissertation and scholarly publications. Your name and identity will not be revealed in any publications of the research nor to anyone outside of this class. The purpose of the study is to better understand the college and writing experiences of graduate students whose first language is other than English. It is my aim to publish research which draws attention to how universities and writing programs might best support these students throughout their graduate educations. “Would you be interesting in reviewing with me the consent form for the study which offers more information? If so, do you have any questions before we look at that document?”
APPENDIX C: Consent Form for Study on Writing 600

This document will detail an invitation for you to participate in a research study. Involvement in the study is voluntary, so you may choose to participate or not. This sheet will explain the study to you.

Introduction to the Study:

My name is Missy Watson, and I am a doctoral student in the Writing Program and instructor of Writing 600 for the 2011-2012 academic school-year at Syracuse University. Please feel free to ask questions about the research I’ll describe below if you have any. I will be happy to explain anything in detail if you wish.

For my study, I am interested in learning more about your experiences and perceptions as a graduate student when it comes to the writing that you have and will complete for your advanced degree and beyond. I am seeking your participation in three ways. First, during three of the writing consultations you and I will have scheduled during the course of the semester in WRT 600, you will be asked to participate in audio-recorded interviews with me. Second, I will ask that you participate in the survey questionnaire I will distribute twice in class. Third, I will request copies of all completed work done this semester in our course and any other assignments and prompts you receive and are willing to share that come from outside of the course. Participation will take approximately 4-5 hours of your time.

Confidentiality and Data Management:

All information will be kept confidential. In other words, I will keep records of the data collected but I will keep them private from public view. In any articles I write or any presentations that I make, I will use a made-up name for you, and I will not reveal details or I will change details about any identifiable information, such as where you work or live.

Interviews will be audio-recorded for the purposes of data analysis. Files will be stored securely in my password protected laptop computer and will be deleted when the study has been completed.

Incentive:

You will receive three units of course credit upon successful completion of the semester-long study (a total of approximately 28 hours of WRT 600). Furthermore, since WRT 600 is designed to educate and mentor students based on their specific needs, participants will ideally be gaining literacy and rhetorical training that directly informs their current degree and professional standing. Thus, in one way you will be compensated on a weekly basis because of the specialized and individualized instruction and feedback on their writing that you will receive. The interviews will also be conducted to elicit your reflections, a process which in and of itself may be beneficial to your development as a writer.

Agreeing to participate in this study is not a prerequisite to taking the course. Thus, students who withdraw from the study may still complete the WRT 600 course and receive all intellectual benefits and course credits that the class will offer. Participants who decide to withdraw from the study and the course (WRT 600) will
have been compensated weekly up to the time that they withdraw since they will be receiving specialized and individualized rhetorical instruction.

**Benefits and Risks:**

The benefit of this research is that you will be helping me and others in my field to understand the specific needs, experiences, and perceptions of multilingual graduate students enrolled in US universities. This information should help us to reassess university and programmatic strategies for supporting multilingual graduate students with adequate training and resources. By taking part in the research you may experience the following benefits. You will have the opportunity to be mentored by a trained writing instructor who specializes in second language writing and genre-based pedagogies, providing you with helpful strategies for becoming more fluent in the genres, practices, and discourses of your discipline. In addition to gaining more expertise in writing for your discipline, you will ideally gain rhetorical insights during your reflections and workshop interactions. You will also be introduced to a network of other multilingual writers which may be of future assistance to you as you continue to negotiate professional development in your respective field. Such networking, for example, may be useful to you in future writing endeavors as you will have each other as resources for collaborative approaches to academic writing, strategies which will be fostered during the study.

The risks to you in this study include minor immediate or long-term psychological effects. Since participants will be asked to reflect on their perceptions and experiences, which--depending on the specific experiences and perceptions of each individual--may be emotionally traumatic for you to reflect upon. For example, it is possible that participants may have insecurities about their experiences and perceived abilities to write in English; this may cause unintended stress for participants when asked to recall writing experiences. To minimize risk, participants will be informed and reminded frequently before, during, and after interviews that they are under no obligation to share emotionally-loaded information that may be harmful to their immediate and long-term psychological state.

**Your Right to Withdraw**

If you do not want to take part, you have the right to refuse to take part, without penalty. If you decide to take part and later no longer wish to continue, you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without penalty.

**Researcher Contact Information:**

If you have any questions, concerns, complaints about the research contact the Principal Investigator, Eileen E. Schell, or me, Missy Watson, at our respective email addresses: eeschell@syr.edu and mewatson@syr.edu, or at my phone number: 760-964-3623. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you have questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator or if you cannot reach the investigator, contact the Syracuse University Institutional Review Board at 315-443-3013.

**Your Consent:**

All of my questions have been answered, I am 18 years of age or older, and I wish to participate in this research study. I have received a copy of this consent form.

___ I agree to be audio recorded.

___ I do not agree to be audio recorded.

_____________________________ ____________________________ Date

Signature of participant
Printed name of participant

________________________
Signature of researcher Date

________________________
Printed name of researcher
APPENDIX D: Research Instruments for Study on Writing 600

Interview 1: questions aimed at gathering information on students’ educational, cultural, linguistic, and writing backgrounds:

- Professional, Educational, Cultural, and Linguistic Background
  1. What graduate program are you studying in?
  2. What are your research interests?
  3. What kinds of research tasks do you perform?
  4. Where did you grow up and attend early schooling?
  5. What languages do you speak? What is your native language?
  6. Where did you attend high school?
  7. Would you please tell me about the institutions you attended to complete your previous degrees?
  8. What was your undergraduate major?

- Writing background
  1. What kinds of writing tasks did you complete during your undergraduate studies?
  2. What language(s) were you instructed in at your previous institutions?
  3. What kinds of writing tasks did you undertake in your first language?
  4. What kinds of writing courses, if any, have you taken in high school or college?
  5. What kinds of writing tasks have you been completing in your graduate studies?
  6. What is your writing process like? In other words, what steps do you tend to follow when you face a writing task? What has influenced this process?
  7. What successes and/or hardships you do you face or have faced when writing in English?
  8. What kinds of strategies do you (or have you) employ(ed) when seeking to improve your writing?

Interview 2: questions aimed at gathering information on students’ perceptions about their (a) understandings of their discipline, (b) experiences working within disciplinary practices, and (c) abilities to effectively write for their discipline (in US university contexts).

1. Tell me how you got here? What encouraged
2. What are some challenges you have faced in undertaking work in your graduate degree? What are some of the successes you have had thus far?
3. What have you learned thus far about the expectations of your discipline and field—expectations for research/scholarship, teaching, job training, etc.
4. What do you know about writing in your discipline (from writing in your seminar classes to application processes to exams to theses, etc.)?
5. What has been your personal experience so far in dealing with writing in your discipline?
6. What kinds of mentorship and support have you received and sought as a graduate student?
7. What strategies do you have for receiving educational support here at SU?
8. What strategies do you have for receiving support on your writing here at SU?
9. What kinds of support (if any) would you like that you are not receiving?
10. What recommendations do you have for your department, the Writing Program, and/or Syracuse University for working with and supporting graduate students like you whose first language is other than English?
11. Please add any additional comments or explanations regarding the questions above or anything else that strikes you.
12. Would you be willing to participate again later in the semester or shortly after if I have any additional questions or would like to gather other materials from you that come from your other courses?

**Follow-Up Contact:** students who agree to be contacted for follow-up information and materials (those who said yes to the last question of interview 2).

1. In our first/second interview, you said X. I have a question about Y. Could you talk more about that and clarify Z for me?
2. Do you have any other papers that you wrote and writing prompts that you were given in your other classes here at SU that you'd be willing to share with me? If so, could you email them to me at mewatson@syr.edu?
Advanced Writing and Rhetoric for Second Language Writers
Writing 600: Special Topics

INSTRUCTOR CONTACT INFO
Missy Watson
Email: mewatson@syr.edu
Office: HBC 002
Office Hours: T 5:00-6:00 pm
hr TBD

CLASS INFO
WRT 600, Section M001
Schedule#: 60711
Location: HBC 209
Time: T 6:00-7:45pm + 1 hr TBD

COURSE DESCRIPTION AND TRAJECTORY
Welcome to Writing 600, a Special Topics writing course where advanced multilingual students explore a variety of critical and rhetorical approaches for American academic reading and writing. The major goal of this course is for students to develop rhetorical practices for studying and writing within discipline-specific genres in order to better prepare them for effectively entering disciplinary conversations through academic research writing. Students will study and practice writing in a range of advanced academic genres and will investigate the formats and structures, the ideologically-driven practices, and the rhetorical moves that make up how disciplinary research translates into written knowledge. We’ll look closely at real examples of scholarship published in our respective fields (such as articles and theses), identify common communicative moves and rhetorical strategies appearing in those genres (such as the organization schema, source-use and citation practices, claim-making strategies, etc.), discuss the social and political processes involved in writing for our discipline (such as working with faculty mentors and journal editors), and apply this knowledge of genre conventions and disciplinary practices to the writing of our own research (such as our own articles and theses chapters). In short, this course strives to foster sophisticated rhetorical awareness to be applied in students’ advanced degrees and beyond.

As a class we’ll start by exploring the big picture of our respective disciplinary practices and genres, and we’ll end by applying our refined rhetorical knowledges to a specific writing project stemming from outside of class. Phase One, therefore, will act as an introductory unit whereby students will become acquainted with the course and with their roles as rhetorical researchers of (not just IN) their discipline. We’ll learn strategies for understanding writing in our fields, including interviewing members of our disciplinary communities to gain insight into the practices occurring and writing genres being employed. Phase Two will build on students’ general knowledge of the writing in their fields by looking more closely at the rhetorical situations of research articles. Students will critically analyze research articles for their audiences, purposes, organizations, styles, textual presentations, sentence-level features, and overall discourse conventions. Students will
work in this phase as discourse analysts, developing rhetorical research methods and writing up small-scale articles of their own, reporting their study and findings about the uses of language in their fields. The last phase, **Phase Three**, will be dedicated to students applying their ongoing meta-awareness of their field and its genres by working on a sustained writing project of their choice. That is, students will attempt a first (or heavily revised second) draft of a real writing task to be used for their graduate education (such as a thesis chapter or conference paper). While we’ll work on the sustained writing project throughout the entire semester, this last unit will be dedicated to taking stock of the refined rhetorical knowledge we’ve gained and applying that knowledge to revising the project.

### REQUIRED TEXTS

- At least one published graduate student writing guide specific to the student’s discipline. (Required to purchase)
- An array of articles from research journals published in the student’s discipline. (Available online)
- An array of sample texts written in the student’s discipline, by classmates, by the student, and/or by the instructor.

### COURSE GOALS FOR WRT 600

Students will

1. practice rhetorical reading and writing in ways that raise awareness about the communicative acts and writing genres required of US graduate students and research professionals;
2. investigate and reflect on the political nature of academic writing and research, the processes involved in writing for advanced degrees, and the role of audience, purpose, organization schema, style, and presentation existing within North American disciplinary-specific texts;
3. complete a semester-long sustained research writing assignment that responds to a real and timely project in their graduate careers and at least two genre analysis writing assignments, all of which demonstrating students’ critical understanding of each rhetorical situation;
4. collaborate in a variety of contexts, including workshops, one-on-one consulting, ethnographic research (including participant-observations and interviews), peer review, text-based interactions, and online collaborative contexts for improving their range of rhetorical prowess and networking through ongoing, individualized and collaborative mentorship.
COURSE REQUIREMENTS AND ASSESSMENT

This is a 3-credit course and students will be given a letter grade based on an assessment of their written work and participation. However, in order to pass this course, students must

- attend at least fourteen of the fifteen scheduled class (group workshop) meetings;
- attend at least fourteen of the fifteen scheduled individual consultations;
- actively participate in weekly workshops and consultations, complete reading and writing assignments on time, and show up to class and meetings promptly and prepared to work; and
- successfully complete (and revise when necessary) each of the major assignments and at least 90 percent of the minor research and writing assignments (i.e., all reflections and homework activities).

Your instructor will provide you with two evaluation reports (at mid and end points of the term) assessing the effectiveness of your performance, written products, and overall progression in the course. Oral and written feedback will also be given during the course of the semester.

Brief descriptions of assignments and course requirements:

- **Writing Workshops (10%)** – The entire class will meet weekly as a group for two hours to workshop concepts, share ideas and knowledge, and collaborate on projects. Various writing, reading, and research homework assignments will be assigned throughout the semester. All work must be word-processed, competed on time, and brought to each writing workshop.

- **Writing Consultations (10%)** – You will meet one-on-one with me every other week for one hour at a mutually agreed upon time. You will also meet for one hour with a Writing Center consultant on the off-weeks (that is, on every week during the semester that you don’t meet with me). During these meetings we’ll mostly focus on your Sustained Writing Projects. Besides being present at these meetings, you are also required to 1) keep a detailed journal recording the events of each visit; and 2) bring with you to each visit all necessary materials, including: your writing, your resource book, your chosen textual models, and any other written resource you’re drawing on.

- **Sustained Writing Project (30%)** – The Sustained Writing Project is the major assignment for the course. Early in the semester, you and I will decide on a suitable project for you to take on (to be approximately 15-30 pages in length). This project asks you to identify a real academic writing task that you are planning complete in the near future for your advanced degree (such as a conference paper/presentation, seminar paper, research article, dissertation chapter, etc.). You’ll investigate the genre and apply your rhetorical knowledge of the genre by writing and revising drafts. In other words, if you choose to write your methods section of your dissertation, you’ll research the conventions and rhetorical qualities of that genre in your discipline in addition to writing the first draft of that chapter. You’ll therefore want to choose a project that you are prepared to write (content-wise). If you haven’t conducted your research for your dissertation, for instance, you probably won’t be ready to write your methods section. This project will be presented to the class during finals week.

- **Genre Analysis Report (25%)** – The major assignment for Phase 1 will be to conduct ethnographic and critical research (critical in the sense that you will sort through and analyze how and why your field does research and not just knowing what that research is; ethnographic in the sense that you will conduct observations and interviews of sites in and
members of your discipline) and write a 5-7 page report that details the major processes, genres, and other communicative acts commonly occurring in your specific discipline and/or department. More specifically, students will inquire about a particular genre from their field (i.e., a dissertation proposal, thesis methods chapter, conference paper, etc.), detailing the genre's purpose, audience(s), contexts, structural features, organization schemas, presentation styles, linguistic features, etc.

• **Research Article Report (25%)** – The major assignment for Phase 2 will be to apply discourse analysis to a full issue of a major journal in your discipline (which you may choose). You will develop, conduct, and report on quantitative and qualitative discourse analyses of the research article(s), analyzing a range of rhetorical features of the articles—from the theoretical and conceptual foci of the journal (as it relates to the field more generally) to more specific textual observations such at the micro and macro levels. The report should be 5-7 pages long.

**Note:** more detailed assignment prompts will be handed out during the course of the semester

### CLASSROOM EXPECTATIONS

**Attendance and Participation:** This section of Writing 600 is a hybrid of a variety of educational settings, including the traditional graduate seminar, the more informal writing workshop, and the writing center model where students collaborate with mentors one-on-one. Since this course focuses on language learning practices, and since language is learned in communities, it is essential that you attend class and participate. If you must miss a class, it is required that you inform me ahead of time through email and stay on top of all assignments by contacting classmates. One absence and one missed consultation are permitted.

**In-Class Behavior:** The following list covers expectations for in-class behavior. These are basic expectations that we’ve all heard before. For convenience and to act as a reminder, here are a few guidelines to keep in mind:

1. For the courtesy of your fellow classmates, please turn off all cell phones, iPods, IM’s, iPhones, etc. Laptops must be used in ways relevant to our class (no outside coursework or surfing). Texting is not permitted during class.
2. Be polite and considerate to all members of the class at all times. We will often have different perspectives, so our comments should be shared and responded to respectfully. Your professional courtesy is appreciated.
3. Arrive on time, be prepared with all readings, and bring all texts under investigation. Please bring your own copy of the texts to every class session.

**Email:** We’ll be communicating often and submitting assignments through email (mewatson@syr.edu). This requires students to check their email often. When emailing me, in addition to any other brief note you’d like to add, PLEASE WRITE THE FOLLOWING IN THE SUBJECT LINE OF EACH EMAIL SENT TO YOUR INSTRUCTOR: WRT 600 SP 12. For example, an email subject might be something like “WRT 600 SP12: Can we schedule an appt?”
Computer Use and Assignment Format: Most of the work you do for this class will be handed in word-processed. Use an easily readable font, size 12 point, and double-space your work. Include one-inch margins. Computers, as you know, are susceptible to crashing and freezing. Save your work frequently, back up your files, and plan your projects with extra time allowed for those inevitable glitches. Also, it is imperative that you save all revisions of all work.

Contacting Me: I encourage you to come see me during office hours throughout the semester. If you are unable to meet with me during office hours, please see me before or after class or send me an email so that we can arrange an appointment. Please do not hesitate to meet with me to talk about your work several times during the semester. I am also available for Skype, gmail IM, and phone meetings. Please email me your screen names and/or phone number and I will contact you at my earliest convenience. However, please allow approximately 24 hours for all responses.

The Writing Center: You and I will be working one-on-one in the SU Writing Center every other week for 30 minutes. You are also required to meet with a different Writing Consultant every other week for one hour. Writing Consultants are available to work with you at any stage of your writing process and with any kind of writing you’re creating. Whether you need help understanding an assignment, brainstorming ideas, revising subsequent drafts, or developing editing strategies, face-to-face and online chat appointments are available throughout the semester. Appointments can be reserved up to six days in advance via their online scheduling program, WCONline. In addition, drop-in appointments are welcome Monday through Thursday from 10:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m. and brief concerns, questions, or drafts (max of 5 pages) can be emailed to consultants via their eWC service. IMPORTANT: Graduate students are afforded additional services online for the revising and editing of articles, theses, and dissertations. For more information on hours, location and services, please visit <span href="http://wc.syr.edu/">http://wc.syr.edu/</span>. This is a free resource to all students and recommended for all writing assigned in this class.

Accommodations: If you believe that you need accommodations for a disability, please feel free to inform me at any stage of the semester. In most cases, students contact the Office of Disability Services (ODS), <span href="http://disabilityservices.syr.edu/">http://disabilityservices.syr.edu/</span>, located in Room 309 of 804 University Avenue, or call (315) 443-4498 for an appointment to discuss their needs and the process for requesting accommodations. ODS is responsible for coordinating disability-related accommodations and will issue students with documented disabilities Accommodation Authorization Letters, as appropriate. Since accommodations may require early planning and generally are not provided retroactively, please contact ODS as soon as possible.

Academic Integrity: The Syracuse University Academic Integrity Policy holds students accountable for the integrity of the work they submit. Students should be familiar with the Policy and know that it is their responsibility to learn about instructor and general academic expectations with regard to proper citation of sources in written work. The policy also governs the integrity of work submitted in exams and assignments as well as the veracity of signatures on attendance sheets and other verifications of participation in class activities. Serious sanctions can result from academic dishonesty of any sort.

SU’s religious observances policy found at <span href="http://supolicies.syr.edu/emp_ben/religious_observance.htm">http://supolicies.syr.edu/emp_ben/religious_observance.htm</span>, recognizes the diversity of faiths represented among the campus community and protects the rights of students, faculty, and staff to observe religious holy days according to their tradition. Under the policy, students are provided an opportunity to make up any examination, study, or work requirements that may be missed due to a religious observance.
provided they notify their instructors before the end of the second week of classes. You must work with your professor’s demands to make up missed work in a timely manner. For fall and spring semesters, an online notification process is available through MySlice/Student Services/Enrollment/My Religious Observances from the first day of class until the end of the second week of class.
In the chapter titled “The Fortunate Traveler: Shuttling Between Communities and Literacy by Economy Class” author Suresh Canagarajah shares some of his strategies, successes, and frustrations in shuttling between writing in various contexts, namely between writing conventions in Sri Lanka and in the United States. As part of his conclusion, he explains that “Such experiences have taught me many things: that the conventions governing academic discourse are partisan; that the judgments on the acceptability of feelings/affect and other matters of tone or style are considerably subjective, differing according to the culture of the various scholarly communities; that matters of style can ideological with different prospects for highlighting or suppressing a critical perspective” (35). According to his experience, therefore, expectations and conventions for writing and research vary across teachers, disciplines, journals, schools, nations, etc. Because this is arguably the case for each of us working to read, research, and write within the US university and beyond, this assignment—the Genre Analysis Report—is designed to assist you in becoming more versed in some of the literacy conventions in your profession that remain to you a mystery. Thus, this project asks,

*What literacy practices in your discipline and/or profession do you feel like an outsider to? What kinds of research, writing, or professional practices do you wish to participate in but know little about how to do so? What strategies might/ought you use to locate this insider information?*

For the Genre Analysis Report you will **conduct ethnographic and critical research** (critical in the sense that you will sort through and analyze *how and why* your field does what it does; ethnographic in the sense that you will conduct observations and interviews of sites in and members of your discipline) and **write a 6-7 page report** (or more, if examples are embedded) that details the major processes, genres, and other communicative acts occurring in a specific area in your discipline, profession, and/or department that you set out to discover. Major goals include:

1. Mapping out and deciding what kinds of literacy and professional practices you want to know more about for this project (this could range from focus questions like: *How do I write a thesis? How do I make a teaching portfolio? How do I design a research study? What are the best strategies for preparing for and passing my exams? How do I best prepare for and present at Conference X? What steps and processes are involved in writing for publication? Etc.*
2. Strategizing ways to locate more information and resources about those practices, including scheduling and designing at least two informal interviews with advanced students, faculty, or other professionals;
3. Locating and reviewing at least one textual resource that you will reference for attaining current or future disciplinary or professional goals;
4. Inquiring about, locating a model for, and analyzing some text-based genre related to the practices you’re exploring, detailing the genre’s purpose(s), audience(s), contexts, structural features, organization schemas, presentation styles, linguistic features, etc.; and
5. Writing up a report based on the data you’ve collected that details your findings in an
organized, instructional, and contextualized fashion (so that, for example, a new student in your field would be able to read it, make sense of it, and find it useful).

Complete draft due Tuesday, February 7..........................Final polished version due Tuesday, February 14
WRT 600: Phase 2 Assignment Prompt
Research Article Analysis Assignment

The discourses of our fields—that is, the languages, texts, genres, and rules governing what's appropriate in the various communications we encounter—differ across the communities we (strive to) belong to. For our Phase 2 assignment, we will continue exploring the discourses of our fields by performing close analyses of research articles. Whether we find our discipline’s approaches to research as common sense or as a complete mystery, discourse analysis of this genre will allow each of us to slow down and better understand the patterns that emerge in our respective field’s knowledge-making practices. So how do we design and implement a rhetorically sound discourse analysis? Well, as discourse analyst Susan Peck MacDonald and rhetoric and composition scholar Carolyn Miller put it,

[One] approach to analyzing academic discourse is to look for ways in which sentence-level and text-level features reflect each other, on the assumption that text-level features are partly constructed at the sentence level and that sentence-level features have text-level functions. This approach is intended to render visible differences among ways of making knowledge in academic discourse. (MacDonald, “The Analysis of Academic Discourse(s),” 115)

A classification of discourse will be rhetorically sound if it contributes to an understanding of how discourse works—that is, if it reflects the rhetorical experience of the people who create and interpret the discourse….A useful principle of classification for discourse, then, should have some basis in the conventions of rhetorical practice, including the ways actual rhetors and audiences have for comprehending the discourse they use. (Miller, “Genre as Social Action,” 152)

In other words, for this assignment we’ll take a discourse analysis approach and look closely at (and draw conclusions about) how text-level features and sentence-level features rhetorically intermingle and function together in the genres of advanced academic research writing. However, based in a Milleran tradition, we’ll be rhetorically analyzing these texts as representations of social actions of communities, exploring what, how, and why texts do what they do, when and where they do it, as well as for who and by whom these texts are developed and transformed. Using discourse analysis will help us to

• work at rhetorically reading and writing in ways that raise consciousness about the genres required of us as graduate students and research professionals;
• become more rhetorically aware of the audiences, purposes, organization schema, and presentation styles existing within disciplinary-specific writing genres;
• explore how genre, rhetoric, situation, exigence, motive, culture, and politics are dialogically intertwined;
• develop an understanding of disciplinary genres as cultural patterns that may be viewed as conventional categories of discourse and meaningful rhetorical action; and
• become critical readers and writers of disciplinary genres, rhetorically negotiating when appropriate the conformation to and transformation of those genres.

**Requirements**

In short, you’ll choose at least one sample research article to examine, identify features for examination, perform discourse analyses, and write up your rhetorical analysis and reflections in a 5-7 page research paper. Here are more specific goals:

- Draw on and apply a range of discourse analysis methods, such as (but not limited to) those practices discussed and/or modeled by Swales and Feak.
- Reference and include a variety of sources, including your sample research article(s), selected guides on and approaches to discourse analysis, and other textbook guides (such as citation guides, Swales and Feak chapters, or other disciplinary texts you know).
- Use a condensed version of the Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion (IMRD) format (i.e. the empirical research article genre) to guide the writing-up of your research. Draw on the analyses of Swales and Feak in Units 7 and 8 to guide your writing process and written product, but also critically negotiate and use (when necessary) alternative versions, simplifications, and/or extensions of the IMRD format.
- Following your condensed version of an empirical study using IMRD format, include an appendix (or afterward/conclusion) where you explain some of the ways this format might assist your future research projects, but also reflect on the limitations of this version of IMRD and of your research paper in general. What tasks didn’t you perform or what information didn’t you include that will be needed for future investigations? In what ways will your future research vary from or extend this model? What did you do that you won’t do again? Provide details and examples to demonstrate your reflections.

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*Partial draft due T March 20......Revised full draft due T March 27 ......Final polished version due T April 3*
WRT 600: Phase 3 Assignment Prompt

Semester-long Sustained Writing Project

The Phase 1 and Phase 2 assignments in WRT 600 are designed to help students learn and practice skills for critically reading and writing texts in ways that foster rhetorical genre awareness and develop their understanding of disciplinary-based advanced academic writing. In other words, Phases 1 & 2 of the course ask students to engage in new assignments (specific to WRT 600) that challenge and develop their reading, writing, and rhetorical skills in English, particularly as they apply to writing in their discipline. Another major goal of this course, however, has to do with developing students' abilities to engage in advanced disciplinary writing by working on projects from outside of class—that is, by bringing in real writing assignments from their graduate degrees (like seminar or conference papers, theses or dissertations) that students would like to spend some extra time on and, perhaps, get some extra feedback on from peers and trained writing instructors. The Sustained Writing Project (SWP) is dedicated to just that: to addressing students' particular writing needs by working on a current or future disciplinary-based writing project that applies to their graduate and professional careers.

While we’ll work on the Sustained Writing Project throughout the entire semester, the last four weeks of the course will be dedicated to taking stock of the refined rhetorical knowledge we’ve gained, learning more about revising and editing our writing, and then applying that knowledge to completing the project. Much will be required for the SWP (especially since it spans all 15 weeks), and each student's SWP will be highly individualized so that the final product and ongoing development will be tailored to the specific needs of each student. Despite the flexibility of this assignment, all students share the following requirements:

1. Design and complete a formal proposal (with timeline) for the SWP.
   - The proposal should provide a detailed description of the project (purpose, genre, length, audience, etc.), including background information and a rationale. It should also include a detailed timeline of five major goals or milestones you will aim to accomplish in order to stay on track and complete the assignment by the end of the semester.
   - For Group 1, the due dates for the 5 major goals are: 2/2, 2/16, 3/1, 3/29, 4/12.
   - For Group 2, the due dates for the 5 major goals are: 2/9, 2/23, 3/8, 4/5, 4/19.
2. Attend each of the writing consultations scheduled with your instructor, and come to each prepared with all materials including the necessary writing and revision work per the SWP timeline.
3. Complete multiple drafts and perform heavy revisions to drafts when necessary.
4. Participate in numerous in- and out-of-class peer workshops with peers and Writing Consultants.
5. Prepare and present a 10-15 minute talk on your Sustained Writing Project (done finals week).

Complete draft due T April 24.........Revised draft due T May 1.........Final polished version due F May 11
Phase 3 Project Proposal Guidelines

Drafting your Phase 3 Project Proposal is the first step you'll take toward completing your SWP. Your proposal should include the following:

1. Title
   a. Please include the title of your Phase 3 project, your name, the date, and our course information (i.e., WRT 600, Instructor Missy Watson).

2. Abstract
   a. In one paragraph, summarize the major goal(s) and parts of your proposed project. Consider these questions: What is your project? What purpose does it serve? What genre is it? What will it include? Who is the audience?

3. Background and Rationale
   a. In one to two paragraphs, explain any important background information and discuss why this project will be useful to you as a writer in your profession/discipline. Consider these questions: What context does this project fall under (i.e., departmental, disciplinary, professional)? What is the significance of this project to you and/or your field?

4. Outline of Goals and Outputs
   a. In a chart or outline, map out all of your 5 project goals (your major objectives/milestones for completing the project) and all necessary outputs (your various tasks that you will complete in order to achieve each goal). This may be the most complicated and important part of your proposal since these are goals you'll need to set and meet for our one-on-one consultations. See the example below.

Example of an Outline of Goals and Outputs for “Writing a Thesis Introduction”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date Due</th>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, Feb. 2, 2012</td>
<td>1: Complete Phase 3 Project Proposal</td>
<td>• Brainstorm projects</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Write abstract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Write background and rationale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Design outline of goals and outputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Read, revise, and edit proposal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, Feb. 16, 2012</td>
<td>2: Read all necessary literature and begin to synthesize</td>
<td>• Create a bibliography of readings and start reading</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Write detailed reading summaries</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Take notes on how readings connect</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Meet with advisor to discuss which texts are important to include</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Make outline of synthesizing readings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, Mar. 1, 2012</td>
<td>3: Write detailed outline of intro chapter and begin drafting</td>
<td>• Read resources on “How to write introductions”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Locate a model thesis introduction and analyze</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Write a detailed outline of introduction chapter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Draft the following: first paragraph, purpose statement, and research questions and hypotheses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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