

Best Practices for working with International Students

There are many strategies for working with international student writers. We hope to provide you with some basics for one-on-one interaction, but also to guide you in working with the Writing Center to form a broader system of support.

Communicate with the Writing Center so that we might best help your students.”

- First, be patient with your students. Understand that they come to us with a range of cultural, social, and linguistic diversity, and language acquisition takes place across a wide array of rhetorical and disciplinary situations.
- Use a patterns-of-error approach to provide succinct feedback on grammatical and mechanical errors.
- When possible, scaffold writing assignments to help focus on content development and to catch early and potentially disruptive grammatical and mechanical errors or plagiarism. Comment on ideas first and grammar second.
- Focus on content knowledge acquisition and disciplinary writing conventions.

First and foremost, adopting a patterns-of-error approach (explained below) can help you save time when commenting on and grading student papers. Establishing the most common errors in a student's writing, and providing them with the resources to learn them on their own, will not only save time but will enable students to take agency in their own language acquisition. Having grammatical and mechanical feedback grouped together will also help students better understand the feedback without it feeling overwhelming.

A patterns-of-error approach will also allow you to focus on how students develop their content knowledge. We provide more information on this below, but we want to emphasize that adapting to these new approaches will be a process. The Writing Center at Arkansas State University is happy to help you as you begin to change your processes.

Best Practices:

Introduction

The resources we provide in this packet are designed to help all faculty best facilitate academic writing in our international student population. As a basis to guide our pedagogies and practices, we use and refer frequently to the Conference on College Composition and Communication Statement on Second Language Writers and Writing. Using this document, and our own experience as teachers, pedagogues, and tutors, we offer the following guiding principles in working with English Language Learners (ELLs):

- Though all instructors carry varying degrees of responsibility in supporting our students in writing, it is in the best interest of our students if the feedback and instruction we provide also empowers students in how to find the answers on their own.
- That in order to most effectively help English Language Learners, we need to have a basic understanding of each student's level of language acquisition and the cultures from which they come to us.
- In order to provide language instruction, we must focus on content knowledge while also supporting students as they learn appropriate grammar and mechanics.
- Feedback should be sensitive to the varying levels of language acquisition and understand that for many of our students, native and otherwise, correct usage will be an ongoing process.
- Engaging in the rhetorical features of writing assignment design and assessment can help English Language Learners invest in a holistic learning experience.
- Our international students come to us from many cultural backgrounds and some topics and frameworks of investigation might seem unfamiliar or even taboo. Likewise, different cultures have different ideas of what constitute plagiarism, while other cultures have no concept of plagiarism at all.

We want to provide faculty across campus the most effective tools for working with our international and ELL population. In this packet we include a brief self-assessment of your current practices; a guide to commenting on student essays (the patterns-of-error approach) that helps you to save time and focus on content, along with a guide to common errors in grammar and mechanics; a sample paper that demonstrates this style of commenting; a guide to working with the Writing Center and tracking student progress; and, finally, a compendium of research from Writing Studies and Rhetoric and Composition to peruse if you feel so inclined. We intend to offer further workshops and more in depth support, but if you have any questions or concerns, please contact Airek Beauchamp at abeauchamp@astate.edu.

Understanding & Supporting *International Students*

When working with our international students, the most important thing we can do is remain sensitive to their particular circumstances. Several studies (Clair 1995, Sleeter 1992, Ahlquist 1992, McDiarmid 1990, Tyler, Stevens & Uqdah 2009) on the topic have found that even among the most aware and sensitive of instructors, biases toward non-native speaking students still exist among faculty, and that implementation of adaptive practices and pedagogies can take too long, or these practices and pedagogies might not be implemented at all.

We understand that the implementation of new practices for evaluating international student writing comes with practical limitations, and we hope to provide support so that faculty can adopt better practices while not feeling pressured to become experts in an entirely different field. Using the following material might take a bit of adaptation. Please remember that you can always contact Airek Beauchamp at abeauchamp@astate.edu for any questions or concerns with the new material. The pedagogies and research of Writing Across the Curriculum and Writing in the Disciplines (WAC/WID) can provide further help in developing practices that help your students develop their content knowledge. As Jonathan Hall and Nela Navarro explain, while we often consider students who are actively involved in their disciplines to no longer be

engaged in any form of language acquisition, disciplinary learning involves adapting many language skills, including register and vocabulary. Further, English language learners might be viewed by faculty as lacking competency due to their level of English language acquisition. Understanding that students have what Hall and Navarro refer to as “multicompetency”, a concept originated by Vivian J. Cook and refined by several theorists since to describe the linguistic practices of multilanguage learners that extends past the academic (though including academic and nonacademic reading, writing, speaking, and listening) and into rhetorical linguistic practices that are aware of appropriate setting, purpose, and audience, among other factors. If we consider a model of competency that takes into account the range of linguistic expression available to our international students, we can better understand their adaptive processes.

Supporting students in their acquisition of grammar is important, but should not replace support in acquiring content knowledge and disciplinary writing instruction.

Grammar, Culture

& Rhetoric

As Laura Micciche notes in “Making a Case for Rhetorical Grammar”, grammar can be intimidating not only to students but to some faculty as well. Grammar, though technically a set of rules that govern how language makes meaning, also indicates, or is perceived to indicate, levels of social or economic class, nationality, ethnic and cultural identity, and levels of education. In reality, English has a dizzying range of linguistic diversity, and in some ways the same case could be made for Academic American English (AAE).

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Because of the many ways in which grammar is coded for different levels of meaning in different contexts, grammar can be an effective way to teach rhetoric and disciplinary conventions.

If you are comfortable discussing grammar at this level, consider adopting your commenting on student work to better explain why and how grammar errors displace the rhetorical or meaning-making aspects writing. This approach can help students better understand grammar as intentional and purposeful language usage as opposed to a set of arbitrary rules.

Using a Patterns-of-Error

Approach

The WAC Clearinghouse offers a clear and helpful guide to locating and responding to grammatical and mechanical errors in student writing. Although it might take some adaptation, we recommend using this approach when commenting on grammar and mechanics in student writing, for both native and non-native writers.

We find that in the long run this strategy can help both students and instructors in several ways. For instructors, the patterns-of-error approach can help organize comments to be more concise, while charging students to take agency in their language acquisition.

It also allows instructors to focus on the content and disciplinary and genre conventions. Students are not only empowered to recognize and fix their own grammar, but they are less likely to find the amount of comments overwhelming.

The guide linked above is aimed at writing faculty and tutors engaged in intensive work with students. As the particulars in the WAC Clearinghouse guide might seem overwhelming, depending on your class size and time constraints, below is a quick guide to engaging in this process:

- First, scan the essay for the most common or distracting errors. It is in your best interest to only focus on a maximum of three.
- Briefly mark these errors and in the margins explain the errors. Remind the student that it is their responsibility to correct these errors. You can direct them to the grammar guides on the Writing Center website or refer them to the Writing Center for further assistance.

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A Brief Guide to Working with

ESL Writers

Understand the differences in ESL students.

What makes English as a Second Language learning different from Native English Speaker learning? The differences between individual ESL writers include: level of experience, type of experience (written or oral instruction), native language, previous instruction, previous interactions with faculty/students/community members, and disciplinary experience. De-equate language ability with the value of the person. Challenge, but don't push when requiring oral responses or presentations (classes should be rigorous, but not miserable) Cultural backgrounds can indicate level of comfort within classroom. This includes speaking practices, original thought, and taboo topics. Student may be coming into your class having been ridiculed for their speaking ability. They may be engaged with the material of your class, but unwilling to voice opinions because of negative past experiences. Essentially, do require student participation; but recognize that participation might look different from student to student.

Above all, be kind. Recognize the challenges of learning English in foreign area.

Make information accessible.

Include auditory and visual elements within lectures to help students engage on multiple levels. Upload PowerPoints/classroom materials to Blackboard. This helps all students, but particularly those who must process information on multiple levels. Give verbal and written prompts for assignments.

Activate prior learning and check for comprehension.

Briefly review material at the beginning of class. Measure understanding on sliding scale (go beyond asking if there are any questions). Encourage students to tie the material to their own culture.

When commenting on writing, comment on ideas first, grammar second.

Read the whole project before marking. Try a "pattern of error" approach.

Scaffold a writing process.

Be clear about expectations. Allow adequate time to complete the assignment without Google Translate. Require drafts. Adopt a revision pedagogy.

Collaborate with campus resources.

Talk with WC/CC staff about your students' needs and the goals for your assignment. If sending a student to a campus resource, be specific about the kind of help the student requires.

Engage in professional development.

Read the packet of materials/articles. Seek out other reading/training based on your discipline and students' needs. Tell us what other support you need.

Best Practices: Academic Integrity

& ELL Students

We believe the following guidelines can best help you understand and support ELL writers as well as our native language population. These guidelines are partially adopted from the Council of Writing Program Administrators document “Defining and Avoiding Plagiarism: The WPA Statement on Best Practices”.

- 1.** Understand that cultural norms for intellectual property can vary.
- 2.** Scaffold assignments so that you can observe early how students work with sources and catch any potential errors.
- 3.** Differentiate between plagiarism and inaccurate citation.
- 4.** Begin conversations about academic integrity early and be prepared to repeat information.

A frequent concern within ESL writing instruction is introducing students to normative U.S. concepts of intellectual property rights. Academic programs outside of the United States incorporate writing and research codes of ethics that may be unfamiliar to native U.S. faculty. For example, communities built on shared principles of ownership can create understandings of knowledge differently than cultures driven by individuality (as in most U.S. academic and social communities).

Particularly in rectifying diverse concepts of plagiarism, faculty can encounter difficulty communicating to international students expectations for academic integrity within course assignments. Understanding intercultural norms for writing practices and creating intentional, ethical instruction in academic composition is essential in teaching university expectations for writing and creating effective response to student work.

Instructors in Writing Studies have long found the benefit of supporting students throughout the writing process, a practice particularly important within ELL instruction. Scaffolding major assignments builds in checks to help prevent students from putting off large research projects and allows instructors to catch any ethics concerns early in the writing process.

Effective scaffolding in writing instruction takes many forms: an instructor might require students to submit an annotated bibliography in advance of a research deadline; students might submit progress reports for each section of a writing assignment; lower-level students might be required to turn in their outlining or brainstorming work; advanced students might need to submit sources along with their final project. Reading and responding to early drafts of student work can enable an instructor to plan for additional review of ethical research and citation practices as needed.

Occasionally, concerns for ‘plagiarism’ conflate with concerns for ‘stylistically accurate documentation.’ Particularly within ESL courses, it is necessary to differentiate between malicious intent to commandeer intellectual property and genuine unfamiliarity with documentation practices. Even in advanced and post-graduate courses, students can enter the university classroom with little to no experience in what most instructors would consider mainstream citation experience. The unfortunate fallback of this lack of understanding is often increased suspicions of plagiarism or academic dishonesty, which often impedes what should be a collaborative classroom environment given to learning and trust between instructor and student.

Best Practices: Academic Integrity

& ELL Students cont'd

When introducing concepts of academic integrity and accurate citation practices in class, a single lesson or quiz likely won't be enough to emphasize the importance of ethical research documentation and proper methods for students to do so. Likewise, students need more than content knowledge of what constitutes plagiarism to write with academic integrity--they need ample practice and opportunities to revise as they continue learning both discipline-specific content and language-level writing ability.

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Diane Pecorari suggests that crafting proactive instruction in acceptable academic writing is often more effective than acting as a copy-paste watchdog; and Rebecca Moore Howard notes that aggressive anti-plagiarism tactics can hinder rather than enhance student learning. When designing writing-intensive coursework, providing examples

of (and opportunities for practicing) successful paraphrasing, summarizing, and crediting helps students understand not just what "not" to do in writing--it helps enable them to be ethical researchers and writers on their own.

By teaching with cultural awareness, scaffolding major writing assignments, clarifying content and style concerns, and proactively presenting practices for effective writing, instructors can empower ELLs with the techniques and comprehension needed to succeed in ethical writing and research at the college level. All instruction in academic integrity does require balance: in some situations, strict action should be taken in disciplining malicious breaches of academic integrity. Adopting proactive, ethical instruction practices can help give ELL students the best chance they have to succeed.

Example Scenarios

Concern: Patchwriting.

Causes: Unfamiliarity with academic expectations, not knowing research practices, language insecurity, negative instructor response to original writing

Solution: Practice with summary, paraphrase, integration, and citation; show tolerance of language differences (preference of content over grammatical style)

Concern: Complete lack of sources.

Causes: Lack of clarity in assignment prompt, inexperience with research practices, ineffective reading strategies

Solution: Make clear expectations, give models of effective source documentation; for students still learning research methods, provide a few sample sources;

Concern: Improper styling. (Example: missing page numbers in APA format)

Causes: Inexperience, lack of knowledge, lack of time, lack of understanding

Solution: Provide helpful models, encourage revision, comment to help instead of hurt

Concern: Voice "doesn't sound like the student".

Causes: Some ESL writers are trained more in written than verbal English; insecurity with own voice might lead to the student using someone else's writing

Solution: Know students well, require draft work, talk with students about progress

Grammar Refreshers:

Active vs. Passive

Grammarly's Formulas:

Active Voice

“[subject]+[verb (performed by the subject)]+[optional object]”

Passive Voice

“[subject]+[some form of the verb to be]+[past participle of a transitive verb]+
[optional prepositional phrase]”

Subject: The person or thing doing the action

Past Participle: Typically formed by adding -ed to the end of a regular verb

Transitive Verb: An action with a direct object (the person or thing who receives the action)

Rhetorical reasons for using the active voice:

- When you want your meaning to be clear and succinct
- To form strong direct sentences with an emphasis on who or what is responsible for the action taking place
- Rhetorical reasons for using the passive voice:
 - When the subject which receives the action is more important than the subject performing the action, or when the subject performing the action is unknown
 - To be polite or to avoid placing blame
 - When the situation calls for a formal voice (this is frequently the case in academic and specifically scientific writing)
 - When needing to omit first or second pronouns

Example:

Active: I see this as...

Passive: It is seen as...

More Reading:

Julia Penelope's Speaking Freely: Unlearning the Lies of the Father's Tongues

Grammar Refreshers:

Affect vs. Effect

“Affect” is most commonly used as a verb meaning “to influence or to change.” It is sometimes used as a noun but only within the discipline of psychology.

Examples:

- Illness affects his patience.
- She attempted to affect a caring attitude.

“Effect” may be a verb or a noun. As a verb it means to bring about.

Example: We will effect the changes we want.

As a noun it means result of a cause.

Example: What effect will this bring?

Choose affect(s) or effect(s) to complete each sentence.

1. Sleep will _____ how you feel.
2. What will be the _____ of this class?
3. The storm will _____ the size of the crowd.
4. We _____ everyone around us.
5. There are both seen and unseen _____ to blindly following without questioning.
6. Being late to class _____ other students concentration.
7. The _____ of being late is poor participation grades.
8. Good grades are the _____ of being prompt and responsive.
9. Advertising _____ outcome of elections.
10. What _____ do you want to have on those around you?
11. Another drought will _____ the wheat crop.
12. The bad behavior of some students may _____ the reputation of the whole school.
13. The movie had a big _____ on her.
14. He did not want the scandal to _____ the outcome of the election.
15. The silence was not the _____ Barry wanted.
16. To understand history we must often look at an event's cause and _____.
17. Her calm _____ helped everyone relax.
18. He will _____ his departure tonight.
19. The _____ of the hurricane is being felt throughout the state.
20. The disease would _____ her ability to walk.

Grammar Refreshers:

Articles

An article is an adjectives that simply modifies a noun. The English language features two: the and a/an. The refers to specific nouns. A refers to general nouns. Therefore, the is a definite article while a/an is an indefinite article.

Example:

“I want to read the book sitting on your desk” or “I would love to read a book sometime soon.” The first sentence refers to a specific book, while the second sentence is about a non-specific book.

Note:

A is used for nouns that do not begin with vowels (a table, a chair, a zebra, a mailman).

An is used for nouns that begin with vowels (an apple, an elephant, an orphan, an engineer.)

Exceptions:

- In some cases, however, a noun may begin with a consonant sounds (like “user”) and thus will need an “a” in front (a user, a university, a unicycle).
- Some nouns beginning with a silent “h” will need an “an” such as “an hour.”
- Sometimes when an “h” is pronounced an “a” can be used beforehand (a house, a historical event), but “an” can also be used in these cases.

Things to Remember:

- In the English language the indefinite articles are used to indicate membership in a group:
 - I am a tutor. (I am a member of a larger group known as tutors.)
 - Brian is an Irishman. (Brian is a member of the people known as Irish.)
 - Rachel is a practicing vegetarian. (Rachel is a member of the group of people known as vegetarians.)

Grammar Refreshers:

Basic Word Usage

Noun: a word used to identify a thing, place, person, time, name, etc. Proper nouns, such as names of people and cities, are capitalized. A noun will be the subject of the sentence when followed by a verb corresponding to the noun.

Pronoun: Another way of expressing a noun, usually a substitution in a general sense.

Example: He, she, you, I, etc. These can often have the exact same function of the noun as the subject of the sentence.

Verb: A word that describes an action that takes place in the sentence, usually performed by the subject.

Adjective: a word that describes the subject, or any other noun in the sentence.

Example: The starving dog ate the delicious roast

Adverb: a word that describes a verb. This often refers to the way that a verb does something.

Example: The teacher awkwardly introduced herself.

Preposition: a word governing, and usually preceding, a noun or pronoun and expressing a relation to another word or element in the clause.

Example: "The man on the boat," "The woman in the car," "The dog on the television screen"

Object of the preposition: the noun that follows the preposition.

Example: "The man on the boat," "The woman in the car," "The dog on the television screen"

Direct object: a noun phrase denoting a person or thing that is the recipient of the action of a transitive verb.

Example: Rachel walked the dog.

Indirect object: a noun phrase referring to someone or something that is affected by the action of a transitive verb (usually on the receiving end) but does not function as the primary object.

Example: Please give Dr. Beauchamp a hug.

Conjunction: a word that connects two thoughts or ideas. Remember the FANBOYS acronym for conjunctions. FANBOYS = For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So.

Grammar Refreshers:

Common Sentence Issues

Fused: Neither punctuation nor conjunction between two independent clauses.

Example: It was the end of the day the clocks were winding down.

Correction: it was the end of the day, and the clocks were winding down.

Comma splice: A comma alone between two independent clauses.

Example: I am tired, I do not want to go to work.

Correction: I am tired, and I do not want to go to work.

Run on: Similar to a few sentence, often corrected with a conjunction. Remember to use FANBOYS (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so)

Example: It is nearly midnight everything will be closed.

Correction: It is nearly midnight so everything will be closed

Fragment: A dependent clause or phrase punctuated as if independent.

Example: In the morning after breakfast.

Correction: In the morning after breakfast we should go to the Farmers Market.

Grammar Refreshers:

Compound Adjectives

A compound adjective is an adjective that is comprised of two or more words. To review, an adjective is a word that modifies a noun (person, place, or thing).

Usually, a hyphen is placed between two or more adjectives when they act as a single idea.

Ex. Ernest Hemingway is a well-known American author.

That concept is easy enough to understand, but, surprisingly, there are many rules associated with hyphen use. Following are some general rules. (Keep in mind there are always exceptions to the rules. Yay, English!)

When to use a hyphen:

- If two or more words come before a noun and act as a single idea, use a hyphen.
- If forming an original compound verb, a hyphen is required.
- If using an original or unusual compound noun, a hyphen is required.
- If writing about a period (years, months, weeks, days), use a hyphen... Unless that period of time is plural, in which case, don't use a hyphen.
- If using numbers, hyphenate spans or estimates of time, distance, or other quantities.
- When using compound numbers, hyphenate from twenty-one through ninety-nine.
- If spelling out a fraction, use a hyphen.
- Hyphenate double last names.

When not to use a hyphen:

- If the word "and" can be said between the two adjectives, a hyphen is probably unnecessary.
- If the compound adjective comes after the noun, a hyphen is probably unnecessary.
- If using "very" or an adverb ending in "ly," do not use a hyphen.
- If introducing a fraction with "a" or "an," don't use a hyphen.
- Don't hyphenate proper nouns of more than one word when they are used as compound adjectives.

Activity

Choose the correctly punctuated sentence.

1. He operated like a finely-tuned machine. OR He operated like a finely tuned machine.
2. This a family owned café. OR This a family-owned café.
3. My Chihuahua is six-years-old. OR My Chihuahua is six years old.
4. The couple's relationship is long-term. OR The couple's relationship is long term.
5. This is a remarkably-simple exercise. OR This a remarkably simple exercise.

Grammar Refreshers:

Possessive Nouns

Possessive nouns are used to show ownership, and these nouns can be either singular or plural.

Singular Possessive Nouns

These possessive nouns take two forms. The first is a singular noun that does not end in “s” whereas the second form does end in “s”.

Singular Noun that does not end in “s”

Formula: [noun] + 's

Example: My sister's car is parked in the driveway.

Singular Noun that does end in “s”

Formula: [Nouns] + 's

Example: I borrowed Chris's book to read.

Plural Possessive Nouns

Plural possessive nouns, like singular nouns, also have two forms if the word ends with s or not.

Plural Possessive Noun ending in “s”

Formula: [nouns]'

Example: The planets' orbits are more elliptical than circular.

Plural Possessive noun not ending in “s”

Formula: [noun] + 's

Example: The parent looked over the children's homework.

Possessive Adjectives

Possessive adjectives modify the preceding noun to highlight ownership

Possessive Adjectives

my, your, his, her, its, our, and their

Examples:

Is this your backpack?

This is our home.

Have you seen my phone?

The dog is playing with its puppies.

Grammar Refreshers:

Verb Tense: Present

Simple Present

Structure: base form of the verb

Examples

The school is close to the park.
We study Mathematics daily.

Uses

general statements of fact
habitual activity

Special uses

time clause examples:

When Dan arrives, we will eat.

As soon as mom arrives, we will leave for the store.

future meaning if it is a planned event or a definite action
examples:

Classes end May 12th.

Her train arrives at 6 p.m. next Tuesday.

The art museum opens at 09:00 p.m. Monday.

Present Progressive

Structure: be verb + ing form of the main verb

Examples

Dam is sleeping.

He is writing another novel this year.

I am teaching Chemistry.

Uses

an activity in progress at the moment of speaking

an activity generally in progress this week, month, or year

Special uses

future meaning for a planned event or a definite action

examples:

He is seeing the doctor on Thursday.

She is leaving at noon Wednesday.

Present Perfect

Structure: have/has + past participle of the main verb

Examples

We have driven our car to 110 towns in America.

I have lived in Dallas for two years.

I have seen many Broadway Musicals.

Uses

An action which took place at an indefinite time in the past.
The emphasis is on the completion of the action rather than the time of the action.

An action that was repeated before now.

The exact time of each repetition is not important.

An activity that began in the past and continues to the present.

Present Perfect Progressive

Structure: present perfect + ing form of the main verb

Examples

Jenn has been living in Beijing since 1985.

Mike and Andrea have been working at Sears for two years.

I have been thinking about looking for a new car.

She has been sitting at her desk for three hours, so she is tired.

Uses

Shows the duration of an action that began in the past and continues to the present.

Shows a general activity in progress recently without a specific mention of time.

Grammar Refreshers:

Verb Tense: Past

Simple Past

Structure: for regular verbs = base form of the verb + ed ending.

Examples

I walked to the store yesterday.

I went to the mall.

Use

An activity that began and ended in the past.

Past Progressive

Structure: was/were + ing form of the main verb

Examples

I was walking through the park when I saw an Eagle.

At 2:00 last Sunday, Minnie and Tim were swimming.

Uses

One act was in progress when another act occurred.

An action that was in progress at a certain time and that probably continued.

Past Perfect

Structure: had + past participle of the main verb

Examples

David had already taught his math class before he took his daughter to the dance recital.

Until yesterday, I had never heard of that movie.

Use

An activity that was completed before another activity or another time in the past.

Past Perfect Progressive

Structure: have/had + been + ing form of the main verb

Examples

I had been studying for three days before I took the test.

Mary finally arrived. John had been waiting for her since noon.

His hair was long because he had been letting it grow for a year.

Uses

Shows duration of an activity that was in progress before another event in the past.

An activity in progress that is recent to another time or activity in the past.

Grammar Refreshers:

Verb Tense: Future

Simple Future

Structure: will or is going to + simple base form of the main verb

Examples

She will go to university at Arkansas State next semester.

The doorbell is ringing. I will answer it.

Jim is going to visit London during his next vacation.

Uses

To predict the future.

To plan for the future.

To express willingness to do something

Special use in time clauses

Use the simple present in a time clause.

Examples

When I get home from work, I will cook dinner for everyone.

The puppy will go to sleep after it eats.

Future Progressive

Structure: will + be + ing form of the main verb

Examples

I will be writing when you get here.

Tomorrow, I will be giving a presentation in my Oral Communication class.

Mieko is going to be walking in the park this afternoon.

Don't worry. Jill's plane will be landing soon.

Use

An activity that will be in progress at a time in the future.

Future Perfect

Structure: will + perfect tense + past participle

Examples

On Thursday, we will have studied *The Great Gatsby* for two weeks.

I will have reviewed the Powerpoint slides before I go to take my test later.

Use

An activity that will be completed before another time or event in the future.

Future Perfect Progressive

Structure: will + perfect tense + ing form of main verb

Examples

If I arrive home a little after 4:00 and you get there at 9:00, I will have been waiting for you for almost five hours by the time you get home.

Next December, I will have been attending Arkansas State for four years.

Use

The duration of an activity that will be in progress before another time or event in the future.

